

**Entrepreneurship Development through  
Corporate Social Responsibility – A Study of the  
Nigerian Telecommunication Industry**

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Doctor of Philosophy**

**Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of  
the requirements of De Montfort  
University, United Kingdom, for the  
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**April, 2015**

## ABSTRACT

Beyond the conventional meaning of CSR as a voluntary obligation for enhancing the social, economic and environmental wellness of the society, the developmental-oriented CSR is emerging and requires exploratory and empirical investigations. This research attempts to fill the gap in this direction by examining the Entrepreneurship Development through Corporate Social Responsibility – A Study of the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry. In specific terms, the research seeks deeper understanding of CSR and Entrepreneurship with a view to refocusing both constructs as support mechanisms for small enterprise development in Nigeria. Considering the multidisciplinary nature of this research, an extensive review of literature was carried out which provided deeper insights into the research problem. Arising from the review of literature, the human capital theory and stakeholder theory provided the required theoretical grounding for the study. For easy triangulation, the study adopted a mixed research methods (an amalgam of qualitative and quantitative research methods). The target population for the study was the Nigerian telecommunication industry, which comprised the 24 telecommunication companies and the 65 million proxy telephone users. Lagos state was preferred as the sample location. From the target population, sample sizes of 9 telecommunication companies and 384 telephone users were selected with justifications using purposive sampling and snowballing sampling respectively. The qualitative aspect of research used interview instrument for data collection. The interview data from 9 interviewees were analysed using content and thematic analyses. The quantitative research on the other hand used web-enabled questionnaire instrument for data collection. Out of the 384 telephone users targeted, only 369 responses were analysed, using descriptive and inferential statistics (Chi-Square Test, Friedman Rank Test, Structural Equation Modelling and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis). At end of the investigation, it was found that the stakeholders' perception of CSR is largely a philanthropic perspective; while the perception of entrepreneurship in the same industry is the act of setting up businesses for self-employment and wealth creation. Furthermore, the dominant CSR activity is sports and entertainments, while entrepreneurship development was poorly supported. With regards to the potentials, the study found that CSR is a potential means for funding entrepreneurship education; funding start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees; funding business clusters and technology business incubation centres for small businesses; funding purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities; and also CSR could be an effective instrument for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria. Finally, it was found that there is a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry, but the predictability of CSR dimensions on entrepreneurship is weak. The study has therefore enriched the literature with an enhanced understanding of CSR incorporating entrepreneurship, as opposed to viewing CSR in terms of social, economic and environmental dimensions. The study concludes with a discussion of the academic and practical implications of the findings as well as recommendations for further research in this multidisciplinary field.

**Keywords:** Corporate Social Responsibility, Development, Entrepreneurship, Nigeria, Telecommunication, Industry

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

**“Whosoever is ungrateful to fellow men, can never be grateful to God” (Hadith). Let us be grateful to the people who make us happy; they are the charming gardeners who make our souls blossom” (Marcel Proust).**

I wish to express sincere gratitude and heartfelt appreciation to endless number of individuals and academic institutions for their invaluable assistance right from the commencement of this Doctoral degree and the completion of this thesis.

First and foremost, I wish to thank Ashok Patel and Dr. Kemi Yekini for their technical assistance, scholarly critique of all manuscripts, regular academic counselling and their invaluable encouragement as supervisors. In particular, Ashok Patel as the lead supervisor showed empathy, mentorship and played fatherly role throughout the programme. In the same vein, I appreciate the contributions of my former second supervisor, Dr. I. Adelopo who left De Montfort University, Leicester for University of the West of England, Bristol. Thank you all.

Secondly, I express gratitude to the Management of Yaba College of Technology under the leadership of Dr. M. K. Ladipo for the approval of two-year study leave. The study leave provided the needed concentration, focus, enabling environment and timely completion of this research.

Furthermore, to the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND), Nigeria, I am highly grateful for providing grant for my PhD. This opportunity was facilitated by the Chairman of TETFUND in Yaba College of Technology, Mr. Innocent Akhuesonkhan (Deputy Rector, Academic). Similarly, I appreciate Dr. M. A. Adebakin (Deputy Rector, Administration) and Mrs. V. V. Eniola (Director, CED) for their moral support and encouragement.

The Registrar of the College, Ms B. C. Amapakabo is particularly appreciated for responding promptly and timely to my unending requests for letters of introduction for visa applications. Thank you ma!

While engrossed in academic research in the United Kingdom and travels abroad, I specially thank my wife, Basirat Olaide for taking care of the home front and the children. When at home, the children also showed understanding, therefore I say thank you to Fatimah, Zainab, Aisha and Ali. Daddy appreciates you all.

Similarly, my profound appreciation goes to all my friends and colleagues in United Kingdom and Nigeria such as Abdus-Salam Aljadani, Munir Abeed, Shaykh Ahmad al-Qari, Professor Ahmed Adedeji, Dr. Hakeem Mobolaji, Dr. Ismail Adeleke, Thomas Olusola, Moshood Bello, Ibraheem Akoshile, Ma’ruf Shokunbi, Imam Abdullahi Shuaib, Dr. Kamil Omoteso, AbdulHakeem Abdul Qadri, Prince S. Olagunju, Dare Ogunjirin, ‘Toba Ajewole, Adeniyi Fadipe, Engr. Mas’ud Ajala, Chris Igwe, Steven Peluola, Mrs. N. Ayika, Mikail Animashaun, for their moral and material support. In The Muslim Congress (TMC), I thank the likes of AbdulWasiu Bangbala, Hassan Taiwo Adesina, AbdulWahab Adetunji, Mikail Animashaun and others for managing the affairs of TMC in my long absence. To Andrew Lowe of Cambridge, I say thank you.

I wish to thank the Leicester Business School, De Montfort University, Leicester, United Kingdom for supporting me with Doctoral Support Fund for 2012, 2013 and 2014 academic sessions which augmented my finances and enabled me attended conferences in France, Malaysia, Belfast and Cumberland/Windsor at different times. Finally, I thank all the scholars and institutions whose materials were used and referenced in this multidisciplinary research in the fields of Economics, Management, Finance and Entrepreneurship.

## PUBLICATIONS AND DECLARATION

In line with the De Montfort University's regulation 15.3 (Presentation of Thesis), I hereby declared that, the following journal articles and chapter contribution to a book have emerged from my thesis. Copies of the abstracts have been neatly attached as appendix.

Sources	Description of publications
Chapter One and Two	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Survey on the Adequacy and Effectiveness of Regulations on Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Reporting: Evidence from the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry. <i>Net Journal of Business Management</i>, 2014, Vol. 2(2), pp. 18-30.</li> <li>2) How Adequate and Efficient are Regulations on Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Reporting? <i>Evidence from the Nigeria Telecommunication Industry. Asian Journal of Empirical Research</i>, 2014, Vol. 4(6), pp. 315-334.</li> </ol>
Chapter Three and Four	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3) Discourse Analysis of Entrepreneurship Definitions &amp; Theories: Implication for Strengthening Academic Research. <i>International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business</i>, Vol. <b>Forthcoming</b></li> <li>4) Corporate Social Responsibility and Entrepreneurship (CSRE): Antidotes to Poverty, Insecurity and Underdevelopment in Nigeria, <i>Social Responsibility Journal</i>, 2015, Vol. 11(1), Vol. 11(1), pp.56 – 81.</li> <li>5) Exploring the theological foundation of Corporate Social Responsibility in Islam, Christianity and Judaism for Strengthening Compliance and Reporting: An Eclectic Approach. <i>Journal of Business Management and Economics</i>, 2014, Vol. 5(6). pp. 131-141.</li> <li>6) Corporate Social Responsibility, Waqf System and Zakat System as Faith-Based Model for Poverty Reduction. <i>World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development</i>, 2014, Vol. 10 Issue 3, pp. 228-242.</li> <li>7) Tackling Poverty Crisis in the Muslim Majority Nations (MMNs): The Faith-Based Model (FBM) as an Alternative Policy Option. <i>Advanced Journal of Business Management and Entrepreneurship</i>. 2013, Vol.1 (1), pp. 1-12.</li> <li>8) Spatio-Temporal Audit of Nigeria's Industrial Policies and Entrepreneurship Development Interventions from 1946 to 2013. <i>International Journal of Humanities and Social Science</i>, 2014, Vol. 4 No. 1, pp. 294-309.</li> <li>9) Bridging Governance Gap with Political CSR. <i>Developmental-Oriented Corporate Social Responsibility: Vol 1, Book Edited by Dima Jamal &amp; Charlotte Karam and Micheal Blowfield, Greenleaf Publisher, UK.</i></li> </ol>
Chapter Five	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>10) Environmental Factors and Survey Research in Developing Countries: Evidence from Nigeria. <i>Asian Journal of Empirical Research</i>, 2013, 3(10), pp. 1362-1381.</li> </ol>

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## LIST OF TERMS AND ACRONYMS

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
AM	Accountant Measurement
AI	Amnesty International
AR	African Renaissance
BBLs	Building Business Linkages
BIOCs	Big Indigenous Oil Companies
BITC	Business in the Community
BOI	Bank of Industry
BROI	Blended Return on Investment
BVP	Blended Values Proposition
CA	Content Analysis
CAC	Corporate Affairs Commission
CE	Community Engagement
CM	Citizenship Model
CMC	Chinese Ministry of Commerce
CORE	Corporate Responsibility Coalition
CPI	Chevron Pacific Indonesia
CSI	Corporate Social Investment
CSI	Corporate Social Irresponsibility
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSRМ	Corporate Social Responsibility Matrix
CSRE	Corporate Socially Responsible Entrepreneurship
CSV	Creating Shared Value
DJSGI	Dow Jones Sustainability Group Indexes
DJSI	Dow Jones Sustainability Indexes
EAI	Entrepreneurial Attitudes Index
EAI	Entrepreneurial Activity Index
EC	European Commission
EC	European Union
ECSRФ	Explicit CSR framework
EFCC	Economic and Financial Crimes Commission
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EE	Entrepreneurship Education
EIPs	Entrepreneurship Intervention Programmes
EO	Entrepreneurship Orientation
ETA	Equilibrium Theory Analysis
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
GFI	Goodness-of-fit Index
HINs	Highly Indebted Nations
ICPC	Independent and Corrupt Practices Commission
ICSRF	Implicit CSR framework
ISO	International Standards Organisation
LFN	Laws of Federation of Nigeria
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MHN	Maslow Hierarchy of Needs
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
MNOCs	Multinational Oil Corporations

NAPEP	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NDE	National Directorate of Employment
NECA	Nigerian Employers Consultative Association
NEEDS	National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OPE	Operational Business Environment
OPSG	Organised Private Sector Group
PM	Philanthropic Model
R&D	Research and Development
RI	Reputational Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error Approximation
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SAT	Sustainability, Accountability & Transparency
SD	Sustainable Development
SEC	Security and Exchange Commission
SEM	Stakeholder engagement and management
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SEPR	Social, Environmental and Public Reporting
SI	Social Indicators
SID	Social Involvement Disclosures
SMPB	Stock Market Price Behaviour
SMEDAN	Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria
SMEEIS	Small Medium Enterprises Equity Investment Scheme
SRG	Sustainability Reporting Guidelines
SROs	Socially Responsible Organisations
TA	Thematic Analysis
TBICs	Technology Business Incubation Centres
TNCs	Transnational Corporations
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
WBCSD	World Business Council for Sustainable Development
SM	Specialist Measurement
TSM	Towards Sustainable Mining
OMS	Operation, Maintenance and Surveillance
OFN	Operation Feed the Nation
PBN	People's Bank of Nigeria

# CHAPTER ONE

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## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

*Henry Ford: Coming together is a beginning; keeping together is progress; working together is success“(Annual Report, 2004: ii).*

### **1.0: Introduction**

Chapter 1 gives an introduction about the research under ten (10) sections. Section 1.1 gives the background on emerging issues that have brought CSR and entrepreneurship into the limelight in recent times. Section 1.2 presents a number of justifications for the study in the light of experiences of developing countries. Section 1.3 states the problem statements that necessitated the research. Section 1.4 highlights the general and specific research objectives. Section 1.5 follows with the salient research questions, from which appropriate research propositions and hypotheses were developed in chapters 3 and 4. Section 1.6 itemises the contributions of the study to knowledge, both in theory and practice. Section 1.7 discusses the research methodology. Section 1.8 defines the scope and limitations of the study. Section 1.9 articulates the significance of the study in the domain of academics and business; and Section 1.10 concludes with the structure of the thesis. Chapter 1 serves as a springboard for discussions in subsequent chapters of the thesis.

### **1.1: Background to the Study**

The wave of globalisation, global financial crisis, upsurge of corporate scandals/irresponsible behaviours, challenges of environmental sustainability, desire for business competitiveness, pressure to enforce the United Nation’s Global Compact and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and international peace agenda are important issues that have accorded recognition to CSR and Entrepreneurship, as potent private-sector mechanisms for sustainable development (Nelson, 2000; United Nations Millennium Declaration, 2000; Emerson, 2003; Jenkins, 2007, Dusuki, 2008; Nelson and Prescott, 2008; OECD-Eurostat Entrepreneurship, 2009; Murphy, 2010).

In Nigeria, entrepreneurship is in crisis occasioned by failing public-sector industrial policies and development programmes targeted at small business development (Raimi, Patel, Yekini and Fadipe, 2014). From independence to date, Nigeria has continued to experiment with Industrial Development Policies (IDPs), Poverty Alleviation Programmes (PAPs) and Entrepreneurship Development Interventions (EDIs) with a view to achieving the goals of economic development – wealth creation, technological development and job creation.

Despite the efforts directed at achieving the goals through a multiplicity of development programmes, the poverty level, crime rate and unemployment rate are rising (Akhueomonkhan and Raimi, 2013). Highlights of failed and failing development programmes in Nigeria include: the Indigenisation Policy, the Enterprises Promotion Policy, the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), the Back-to-Land programme, the Import Substitution Strategy, the National Directorate of Employment (NDE), the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), the People's Bank of Nigeria (PBN), the National Economy Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND); the Community Banking Model, the Technology Business Incubation Centres (TBICs), the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), the Bank of Industry (BOI), the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN), the Small and Medium Enterprises Equity Investment Scheme (SMEEIS), the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), the 7-Point Agenda, the Economic Transformation Programme etc. (Njoku, Ihugba and Odii, A. 2014; Oghojafor, Okonji, Olayemi, and Okolie, 2011; Raimi et al., 2014). These laudable intervention programmes, designed to fast-track entrepreneurship and growth of SMEs, have not produced desirable and measurable performance results; rather they reflect woeful records of failure (Ahmad and Singh, 2003, Raimi et al., 2014).

The failure of a number of public-sector developmental programmes (PSDPs) in Nigeria is linked to protracted bad governance and low quality political leadership (Young, 1999; Nnonyelu, 2013). Some analysts have attributed this failure to the inability of government to properly nurture its development programmes, the prevailing weak reward system, backward social systems, dysfunctional institutional/governmental structures and endemic poor policy/programme implementation (Bowles, Durlauf and Hoff, 2006; Raimi, Mobolaji and Bello, 2010; Raimi et al., 2014).

Furthermore, several studies in recent times revealed that SMEs in Nigeria and across Africa face institutional constraints such as poor access to loans due to lack of collateral, insufficient managerial acumen, inability to compete for tenders, infrastructural deficiencies (especially electricity), dubious legal systems, the mind-set to remain informal, inability to afford new technology, unfriendly multiple tax systems, harsh local markets, lack of business incentives from governments, corruption, bottlenecks of business incorporation, epileptic/expensive energy supply, ineffective partnership among stakeholders in the region and a fading culture of entrepreneurship as well as a rising failure rate among SMEs (NEEDS Document, 2004; Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; BEEP, 2007; Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2006; Roy, 2010; Raimi et al., 2011).



The negative effects of failure of governance and environmental challenges inhibiting SMEs as highlighted above have engendered very weak enterprises that cannot create jobs, add value to national GDPs nor are able to improve the quality of lives of diverse citizens operating in the sector. SMEs have been described as unable to “effectively compete for the millions of Shillings/Dollars of contracts offered by major public sector and statutory bodies” (Republic of Uganda, 2010:11). The resultant effect of preferential treatment in favour of big enterprises is that economic growth and sustainable development have eluded developing nations, a pitiable phenomenon described by Kauffmann (2005) as the “missing middle”.

Worse still, the poor socio-economic situation in Nigeria requires a coordinated private-sector intervention. Roy (2010:49) describes Africa (Nigeria inclusive) as a continent suffering from “Widespread poverty, corruption, inadequate resources, poorly trained labour supplies, wars and other forms of civil strife such as ethnic cleansing, pandemic diseases such as HIV/AIDS and malaria, tribal tensions, and ruinous economic policies all of which have led to problems of such magnitude and dimension that it is only governments, African and international, that can mobilize the necessary capital to begin to make headway on these enormous issues.”

In order to tackle the multidimensional challenges facing SMEs, development scholars canvassed an alternative intervention from the private sector because it is seen as having a better, creative and innovative approach to tackling developmental issues (Roy, 2004). A coordinated private-sector intervention is required to strengthen entrepreneurship in order for SMEs to grow, innovate and remain competitive in the global market (Kauffmann, 2006; Abereijo and Ilori, 2010). Also, such private-sector intervention for entrepreneurship development would stimulate the economy towards the path of sustainable economic development (Sagnia, 2005; Private Sector Development, 2009, National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy, 2004, DFID, 2009).

Based on the above, this research explores how CSR initiatives of the telecommunication companies in Nigeria could be refocused as support aid for entrepreneurship development and through this effort accelerates economic growth and national development. The research adopts the refocusing strategy for CSR because Africa with specific focus on Nigeria has “a distinctive set of CSR agenda challenges which are collectively quite different to those faced in the developed world.” (Visser 2008:474). Therefore, the implementation of CSR investments and associated activities should be radically different from those in the developed society where the SMEs have sound institutional support services.

Secondly, it is believed that refocusing CSR could be a sustainable means of embedding strong entrepreneurship culture in a poverty-ridden economy where the SMEs operate under the “bottom of the pyramid” (Boyle and Boguslaw, 2007:103). In other words, CSR investments of corporations could be used as a vehicle for redressing the present setback in entrepreneurship in Nigeria and by so doing complements the ongoing public-sector programmes on enterprise development and poverty reduction. The feasibility of the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework as proposed by this thesis is not in doubt, as scholars have argued for its practicality. For instance, Murphy (2010) asserts that:

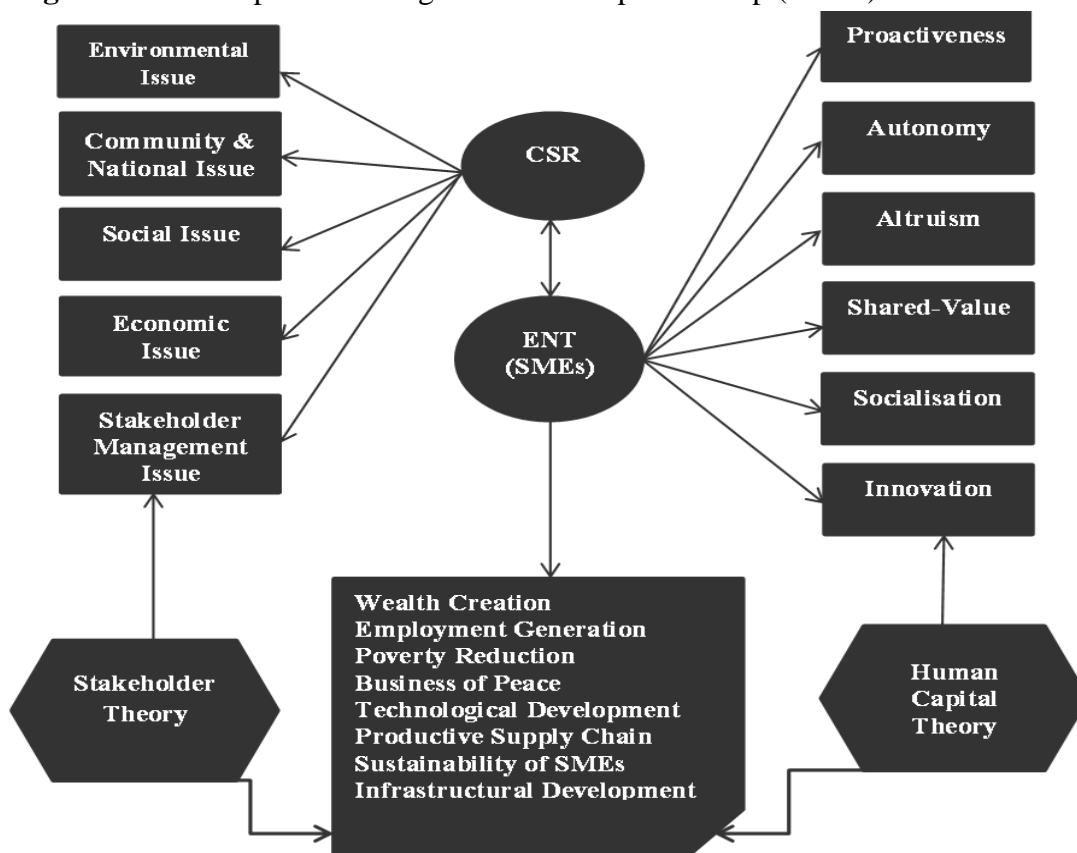
*“Entrepreneurship correlates with higher rates of innovation, job creation and merit-based achievement – all benefits that accrue to businesses.... a growing number of corporations [are massively] ...creating new products and launching initiatives designed to encourage entrepreneurial mind-sets and build skills that bolster enterprise creation and success.” (Murphy, 2010:2).*

Analysts note that CSR is inevitable for the continued survival of businesses globally (Ismail, 1999; Carroll 1999; Moon, 2002; Jamali, and Mirshak, 2007; Visser, 2008; Gholami, 2011; Crowther and Aras, 2012). Similarly, Charitoudi, et al., (2011) note that CSR has become a tool for national economic recovery, as businesses provide palliatives, donations and support for their host communities in the period of economic depression. The scope of CSR as deducible from the above discourse covers social, economic, legal and environmental initiatives.

One of the perspectives of CSR that fits the theoretical construct of this thesis is a political CSR which advocates deliberative democracy, where the states and businesses collaborate in governance and sustainable development (Edward and Willmott, 2013). Political CSR is a new paradigm which ascribes to the multinational corporations (MNCs) and civil society groups some roles traditionally assigned to the states in a democratic milieu because of a governance gap (Scherer and Palazzo; 2008; Scherer and Palazzo, 2011). The key argument of the governance gap theorizing is that governance is crucial for development, and where there is a governance gap, it is in the interest of corporations to bridge the gap with their CSR initiatives to stimulate development. In support of this fact, Visser (2008:474) views CSR as “the formal and informal ways in which business makes a contribution to improving the governance, social, ethical, labour and environmental conditions of the developing countries in which they operate, while remaining sensitive to prevailing religious, historical and cultural contexts” in the operating environment.

The conceptual model of CSR that underpins this study is CSR-Entrepreneurship shown in Figure 1 below; it is a form of development-oriented CSR used by socially responsible corporations for improving and building the capacity of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) within/outside their value chain, to be able to create wealth, generate more employment and stimulate local development. The model exemplifies the maxim of Confucius that: *“Give a man a fish, and you’ll feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish, and you’ve fed him for a lifetime”* (Perrin, 2007: Parag. 1). This type of CSR investment finds relevance in Nigeria where enterprises are hindered by infrastructural deficiencies and weak institutional support services.

**Figure 1.0:** Conceptual Framing of CSR-Entrepreneurship (CSRE) Model



The CSRE model in Figure 1 above depicts the hypothesised relationship between CSR and Entrepreneurship. The model is a framework with two interface constructs, viz: CSR and Entrepreneurship (development of SMEs). The CSR construct which is underpinned by the Stakeholder Theory has five dimensions, namely: Environmental Issues, Community & National Issues, Social Issues, Economic Issues and Stakeholder Management Issues. These dimensions represent the various ways corporations express their voluntary commitment to the society, as part of their triple-bottom line obligations. The entrepreneurship construct, on

the other hand which is underpinned by Human Capital Theory has six dimensions, namely: Proactiveness, Autonomy, Altruism, Shared Vision, Socialisation and Innovation. These six dimensions of entrepreneurship are the means through which corporations' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) are measured. In other words, they represent ways by which established corporations further the growth of SMEs within and outside their value chain as corporate social entrepreneurs. It an advanced form of CSR (Austin and Reficco, 2009) built on shared value-driven business propositions purposely designed to support smaller businesses and the society at large (McGray, 2007; Porter and Kramer, 2011). When capacities of SMEs are boosted by corporations as proposed in the model, it would boost creativity and innovation (Ramachandran, Devarajan and Ray, 2002).

The main idea underpinning the CSRE model as depicted in Figure 1 above is that social investments of corporations on five dimensions of CSR, when refocused to promote MSMEs as stakeholders of corporations, the benefits to the society include: wealth creation, employment generation for others, poverty reduction, engendering business of peace, promotion of local technology, boosting supply chain's capacity, create sustainability for MSMEs and building infrastructural facilities for MSMEs. The evidences in support of the CSRE model abound in several cases of MNCs supporting MSMEs in developing countries (Murphy, 2010; Nelson, 2007, Nelson, 2008; Porter and Kramer, 2011).

Aramex and Injaz corporations initiated an entrepreneurship education programme (EEP) in the Middle East and Southeast Asia; the programme has generated massive jobs for the youth in the region (Murphy, 2010). Also, Porter and Kramer (2011: 5) reported a synergy between MNCs and local cocoa farmers using a mutually-beneficial model of creating shared value (CSV). The CSV model succeeded in improving farming techniques, enhanced access to better technologies and accelerated the emergence of a local cluster of small suppliers with improved efficiency, yields and sustainability. Besides, Visafone Nigeria Plc. stimulates entrepreneurship by reducing the cost of calls for SMEs through a business-friendly package which reduces overhead expenses on telephone calls (Visafone Communication Limited, 2013). Chevron established in Indonesia a CSR initiative called Chevron Pacific Indonesia (CPI) to support SMEs. The scheme trained over 4,000 small local businesses and cooperatives. The model provided financial support to the tune of \$1.3 million in 2001 to small businesses and more than \$114 million in 2009 (Murphy, 2010). Similarly, the CSR-oriented business linkages of Unilever in Vietnam, Toyota in Thailand, Intel in Malaysia and Motorola in China provide logistic and financial support to SMEs as private sectors (Luetkenhors, 2004). On the strength of the several cases highlighted above, the CSRE

conceptual model is hypothetically feasible subject to empirical testing later on in the research.

Contextualising CSR as a mechanism for any form of development is a debatable issue in the literature. Utting (2003) ask: Promoting Development through Corporate Social Responsibility - Does it Work? In response to the debate on CSR and development, scholars have proposed a number of enterprise development models in the less developed countries (LDCs). These include: Inclusive Business Models (Jenkins (2007; Jenkins et al., 2007); Building Business Linkages (Nelson, 2007; Murphy, 2010); Partnering For Success (Nelson, 2005); Business and MDGS (Nelson, 2008); Blended Value Propositions (Emerson, 2003); Private-Sector Development Support (UNDP, 2009; OECD, 2009); Creating Shared Value (Porter and Kramer, 2011); Business of Peace (Nelson, 2000) and Corporate Social Entrepreneurship (Austin and Reficco, 2009) etc. All these frameworks emphasise collaboration between the public and private sectors to enhance economic and social goals in the face of developmental challenges facing people, small businesses and the society.

From another angle, CSR can be potent instrument for tackling socio-cultural, political and environmental problems in the society. A few examples include: CSR as a mechanism for reputation building (Carroll, 2004); a tool for conflict resolution (George and Kuye, 2012; Raimi and Adeleke, 2008); an ethical-based paradigm to please God and meet social needs (Dusuki; 2008); a mechanism for political risk management (Moen, 2011); a mechanism for attaining sustainable development (WCBSD, 2000); and a tool for compliance with the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises (Natufe, 2001; Luetkenhors, 2004). All these frameworks justify the plausibility of the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework proposed in this research. There are several gaps in the literature, and this research focused on exploring the developmental side of CSR. In other words, beyond the conventional understanding of social responsibility, could CSR be refocused as a support intervention for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria with a view to redressing poverty-perpetuating issues affecting small businesses? What then are the justifications for this exploratory research?

## **1.2: Justifications for the study**

The most common understanding of CSR in developing nation like Nigeria is philanthropic donations channelled into charities, sponsoring of musical events, funding of sports/cultural programmes, promotional raffles, donations to schools and similar initiatives (Amaeshi et al., 2006; Helg, 2007; Osemene, 2011; Ibe, 2012; Owonibi, 2012). Research in developing countries indicates that there is a strong emphasis on the philanthropic tradition especially

funding of programmes focused on community development (Visser, 2008). Even the corporations operating in Nigeria are not immune from this parochial understanding of CSR. Their CSR reports and information on their websites reflect this philanthropic mind-set (Nigeria Bulletin, 2008; Ibe, 2012; Airtel, 2012; Etisalat CSR Report, 2010; MTN, 2013).

This research is therefore a renewed effort at changing this narrow mind-set about CSR and arguing in favour of a developmental-oriented CSR. Specifically, a developmental-oriented CSR conceived by this research is a social investment for redressing socio-economic challenges facing entrepreneurship in Nigeria. To forestall ambiguity in understanding, the term entrepreneurship as used in this research, *is the act of pursuing economic opportunities by an individual or group with the aim of setting up small businesses (either product-oriented or service-oriented) for self-employment, wealth creation, fostering creative innovation, development of local technology and self-actualisation in spite of poverty-perpetuating challenges*. This operational definition accommodates cottage businesses, petty trading and small and medium enterprises (SMEs). The entrepreneurial process includes idea/opportunity identification, assessment of the viability of the idea/opportunity, sourcing the required start-up capital and exploiting the idea/opportunities by setting up a business venture.

To balance the operationalization, the term CSR as used in this study, *is the voluntary social investment of corporations which is expended periodically on social issues, economic issues, environmental management issues, community/national issues and stakeholder management issues for the purpose of enhancing the wellness of the host nations and the people*. These five dimensions of CSR when focused by corporations; they have the potency to stimulate development effectively and efficiently than unorganised philanthropic donations. CSR as operationalized above is the contribution of corporations to economic development and participatory governance in their host nations; a phenomenon which has been described as the developmental-oriented CSR in the literature.

Although the possibility of CSR initiatives promoting social and environmental issues is not in doubt (Samuelsson, 1971; Carroll, 1999; Natufe, 2001, Ismail, 2009; Natufe, 2011, Said, 2011; Moen, 2012, Charitoudi et al., 2011; Tausif, 2012), using CSR for entrepreneurship development or full-fledged economic development is a debatable subject in the works of notable scholars (Frynas, 2005; Frynas, 2008; Idemudia, 2010; Nelson, 2000; Newell and Frynas, 2007; Porters and Kramer, 2011; OXFAM, 2008; Raimi, Akhuemonkhan and Ogunjirin, 2015).

Another justification is that attempts by researchers to promote the developmental side of CSR on the basis of theory have been inconclusive in the literature (Blundel, 2008; Frynas, 2005; Frynas, 2008; Sharp, 2006; Utting, 2005). There is a need to fill this gap. Although, there are several case studies of multinational corporations (MNCs) across the globe funding SMEs and promoting entrepreneurs within their value chain; these cases provide evidence of the viability of the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework and calls for exploratory and empirical studies to understand the theoretical basis of this practice (Murphy, 2010; Porters and Kramer, 2011; Porter, 2011; Raimi et al., 2014).

Furthermore, the role of entrepreneurship in enhancing employment and income generation is well established in the literature (see Culkin and Smith 2000, Peacock, 2004; Wang, Walker and Redmond, 2006), but the linkage of entrepreneurship and CSR as drivers of growth, employment and income generation has not been well articulated. Therefore, there are wide knowledge gaps in theory and practice to be filled in the literature on CSR and Entrepreneurship. The first task toward filling the knowledge gap is to provide sound and justifiable arguments from the literature for the possibility of a CSR-Entrepreneurship framework. The second task in bridging the observed knowledge gap is to develop a coherent theoretical framework around the CSR-Entrepreneurship which will aid empirical investigation. The outcomes of these tasks would determine the plausibility or otherwise of a causal relationship between the two concepts.

From the developmental viewpoints, it is in the overall best interests of corporations to be socially responsive to the needs of entrepreneurs and small business owners. Apathy to social involvement (otherwise called corporate social irresponsibility or CSI) attracts social and economic sanctions from the enlightened public, judging by the attitude of society to irresponsible corporations (Gunningham et al., 2002; George and Kuye, 2012). Emerson (2003) had long argued that the economic objectives of corporations should be blended with social objectives to achieve a balanced unison. He contends:

*“It is not a question of either/or, but rather both/and. We need new metrics, new conceptions of the fundamental value proposition that are not simply a “quid pro quo” trade-off between two seemingly competing goals perceived to be locked in a zero-sum battle. Existing frameworks and understandings of both investment and return are inadequate, and we must address the deficiencies of current approaches. We must advance... a metric (that) integrates and affirms the greatest maximization of social, environmental, and economic value within a single firm.”(Emerson, 2003:38).*

The prescription above has started manifesting in the operations of MNCs like Microsoft, Cisco, Chevron, Gates and others which initiated developmental CSR programmes in Indonesia and the Middle East for the purpose of imbuing in the students, adults and the unemployed graduates the culture of entrepreneurship and job creation (Nelson, 2007; Jenkins, 2007; DFID, 2009; OECD, 2009). In developing nations with governance and infrastructural deficits, there is increased involvement by MNCs in the wellbeing of host communities in the forms of community engagement (Yekini, 2012), social entrepreneurship and corporate social entrepreneurship (Covin and Miles, 1999; Austin and Reficco, 2009), corporate citizens (Amaeshi et al., 2006) or responsible investors/responsible investment (Scholtens, 2014). Notable corporations like General Electric, IBM, Google, eBay, Johnson & Johnson, Grameen Bank & Grameen Foundation, KaBOOM, DonorsChoose, Intel, Nestlé, Unilever and Wal-Mart are using CSR as a strategic tool for promoting social wellness without losing their core economic objectives of profits and wealth creation (Kerr, 2007; Haskins, 2009; Porter and Kramer, 2011).

This study is therefore justified because it develops a framework for fortifying the growth of entrepreneurship in Nigeria. It has been suggested in policy circles that developing economies need to stimulate entrepreneurship and small businesses consistently in order to grow economically and technologically (Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006) because “...strong entrepreneurs as the big drivers of economic growth, innovation, job creation and regional development and a vibrant SME sector provide a solid foundation to increase standards of living and to reduce poverty...” (Private Sector Development, 2009: p.1).

Besides, Nigeria needs a sustainable CSR model for supporting and complementing weak public policies on poverty reduction and job creation in order to tackle rising wave of crime, militancy and terrorism. Fort and Schipani (2004: 26) remark that “poverty correlates with armed conflict, and war creates poverty.” This assertion is true as studies in Nigeria have linked the upsurge in criminal tendencies like Niger Delta militancy, ethno-religious wars in Jos and Boko Haram insurgency in Northern Nigeria to extreme poverty and governance failure (George et al., 2012; Okpaga et al., 2012; Olowu, 2010; Raimi et al., 2014; Watts, 1999; Watts, 2005). In complementing the efforts of government, the corporations need to be proactive at tackling poverty because if untamed and unaddressed, it would in the long run affect businesses and drain financial resources of the private sector (Boyle and Boguslaw, 2007). Latest figures show the poverty rate in Nigeria standing at 72% and the unemployment rate at 24% (National Bureau of Statistics, 2012). The country is listed among highly



indebted nations (HINs) owing \$44billion (Mohsin, 2013; Raimi et al., 2013). This ugly economic profile calls for proactive policy redirection, which this research seeks to explore.

Further justification for this research is the need to broaden the mode of implementing CSR investments in developing countries with a focus on Nigeria. As argued earlier, corporations operating in Nigeria utilise their CSR basically for charity, sports promotion, support for the entertainment industry and donations to schools/hospitals/welfare centres. These uncoordinated CSR investments have not supported the economy nor reduced poverty sustainably. It has been observed that most government programmes (as well as corporate donations) are one-off palliatives that give momentary satisfaction and short-lived solace that “...do not address the root causes of poverty, and do not develop assets... because the lack of comprehensive policy or programmes (for SMEs)... tends to keep poor people poor” (Boyle and Boguslaw, (2007:113). There is a need for better coordination of CSR investments to forestall dissipation of efforts and resources on programmes that have no developmental impact on the society. The three principles of genuine CSR activities are: sustainability, accountability and transparency (Aras and Crowther, 2007; Crowther and Capaldi, 2008; Fernando, 2011). Therefore corporations that initiate CSR activities lacking sustainability, accountability and transparency are far from ideal.

The importance of the above discourse is that **conventional CSR** must be refocused as **developmental CSR** to empower disadvantaged entrepreneurs and small business owners suffocating in an unhealthy macro-economic environment. Former British Chancellor of the Exchequer, Gordon Brown, is one of the proponents of a developmental CSR, he argued:

*“Today, corporate social responsibility goes far beyond the old philanthropy of the past – donating money to good causes at the end of the financial year – and is instead an all year round responsibility that companies accept for the environment around them, for the best working practices, for their engagement in their local communities and for their recognition that brand names depend not only on quality, price and uniqueness but on how, cumulatively, they interact with companies’ workforce, community and environment. Now we need to move towards a challenging measure of corporate responsibility, where we judge results not just by the input but by its outcomes: the difference we make to the world in which we live, and the contribution we make to poverty reduction” (Horriggan, 2010:229).*

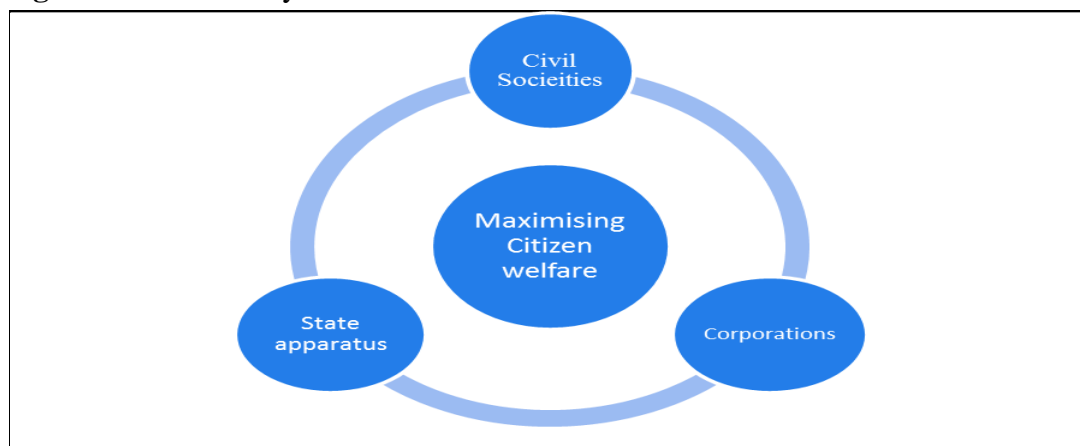
Developmental CSR embeds social goals with pure economic goals without conflict as enunciated by Gordon Brown above. The economic goal of profit maximisation and social goals are mutually reinforcing within this new thinking when effectively harmonised by corporations using the blended values proposition (BVP). BVP guarantees dual benefits or ‘Blended Return on Investment (BROI)’, a situation where economic returns on investment

and social returns on volunteering services coexist in a win-win situation for businesses (Emerson, 2003).

Another justification for the study is the failure of public-sector led interventions for entrepreneurship and poverty alleviation in Nigeria. The international community realised this fact, hence the United Nations passed a resolution on the millennium development goals (MDGs) in 2000, as a viable strategy for tackling poverty head on and other social malaises stifling development by 2015 (United Nations, 2000; Visser, 2008). In spite of the MDGs, Nigeria manifests worsening indicators of poverty, unemployment and debts as well as the weak track records of implementations of the eight (8) MDGs (Haines and Cassels, 2004; Visser, 2008). There is therefore a need for an alternative private-sector intervention mechanism that can complement national policy on development and MDGs in Nigeria. A novel CSR-Entrepreneurship framework would meet this challenge by promoting SMEs and create better economic opportunities. In other words, there is a link between CSR and MDGs in pursuit of sustainable economic development in developing poverty-ridden nations.

Finally, CSRE is justified because of the changing role of the public sector re-defined by globalisation under the framework of inclusiveness. The concept of inclusiveness allows for role-sharing among three key actors in the economy: the state, civil society and corporation. Kobrin (2009) noted that the principle of inclusiveness in governance demands “fragmentation of authority, the increasing ambiguity of borders and jurisdictions; and the blurring of the lines between the public and private sphere” (p. 350). Nigeria as a developing country has no option than to embrace the principle of inclusiveness in the face of increasing governance challenges and dwindling economic resources.

**Figure 1.2:** Three Key Actors in Inclusive Governance



**Source:** Adapted from views of Kobrin (2009)

To drive the CSRE framework, the Nigerian telecommunication industry was chosen as a reference private sector in this research because of its record of performance relative to other sectors of the economy. The Nigerian telecommunication industry after its deregulation has engendered accelerated development in Nigeria (NCC, 2004). It changed the landscape of the industry within a short period of time, improving the infrastructural facilities, fair pricing regime, growth in national/international telecommunication traffic, generation of direct and indirect employment for many Nigerians of diverse skills and dexterities (Adegbemile, 2007) as well as positioning itself as a potential engine of growth for the Nigerian economy (Ndukwe, 2004).

### **1.3 Problem statement**

Globalisation has made it expedient for MNCs to promote entrepreneurship to solve social problems in the developing countries where they are domicile. This social responsibility is necessary for long-term business interests and global competitiveness (Samuelsson, 1971; Jenkins, 2007; Haskins, 2009). The above assertion finds relevance in Nigeria, where entrepreneurial activity has witnessed setbacks because of institutional corruption, weak commitment to development plans and the domineering role of the public sector in the economy since independence (Ukah, 2007; Young, 1999; Raimi et al., 2014). The state of entrepreneurship in Nigeria is precarious: about 80% of the graduates from Nigerian universities annually cannot secure employment (Amuseghan and Tayo-Olajubutu, 2009).

Furthermore, the country faces a rising unemployment rate, growing incidences of criminal activities, armed robbery, religious insurgency and hostage taking/kidnapping in the Niger Delta (Chiedu, 2012; Raimi and Adeleke, 2010). Former President Olusegun Obasanjo linked the poor performance of development policies in Nigeria to mere pursuit of economic growth in statistical terms by policy makers, but failure to practically impact on the lives of the people and the economy (IMF, 2004).

To revamp the Nigerian economy, and put it back on the path of sustainable development, entrepreneurship through small business promotion was identified as a potential driver (Baba, 2013) and a catalyst for self-employment (Lawal et al., 2014; Owualah and Obokoh, 2008). In spite of the lofty role of entrepreneurship at formal and informal levels in Nigeria, it became immersed in crisis caused by operational constraints (Oyelola et al., 2012). But, lack of support aid as venture capital for entrepreneurship has been identified as a major operational constraint hindering entrepreneurship in Nigeria (Ayodele, 2006; Arogundade, 2011).

At different periods, the government had responded to the needs of entrepreneurs and small businesses through a number of entrepreneurship intervention programmes (EIPs), but these initiatives witnessed massive failure (Akhuemonkhan et al., 2013; Raimi et al., 2014). To bridge the constraints facing entrepreneurship including finance, the scholars proposed the need for an enabling environment and infrastructural enhancement through a private-sector-led investment (Ihugba, Odii and Njoku, 2014). The new intervention model which this research proposes is exploring the developmental side of CSR or developmental CSR. It is an emerging area (Jamali and Mirshak, 2007). Considering the fact that there is limited insight on developmental CSR from developing countries, Sharp (2006), Newell and Frynas (2007), Frynas (2008) and Idemudia (2010) justified the need for theoretical and empirical studies on developmental CSR. The developmental side of CSR has potential for supporting international development goals like MDGs in the areas of poverty alleviation, wealth creation, value creation and health improvements (Jenkins, 2005). Frynas (2005) justified the need for a developmental CSR (although a false promise) stating that “the advantage of this is that it allows poverty to be presented to business as something undesirable and solvable on a par with, for instance, a malfunctioning valve or a quality control problem” (p.511).

Using CSR for entrepreneurship development could be a sustainable mechanism for economic development, unemployment reduction, wealth creation and poverty reduction. But its viability requires empirical and theoretical justification. In view of this, the overarching problem that this research concentrated on is refocusing CSR as a ‘support aid’ for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria. Could CSR be a potential support aid for entrepreneurship development? What are the potentials of CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship development? While conventional CSR discourses have focused on mainstream issues like labour relations, charities, and reputational building, few studies have looked at the plausibility of refocusing CSR as a ‘support aid’ for entrepreneurship development in developing. The viability of a CSR-Entrepreneurship synergy requires in-depth theoretical and empirical investigations.

#### **1.4: Aim and Research Objectives**

Guided by the problem statement, the following are the aim and research objectives of this study. The aim of this study is to explore entrepreneurship development through corporate social responsibility – A study of the Nigerian telecommunication industry. In specific terms, the research objectives are:

- i. To examine stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry;
- ii. To examine stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry;
- iii. To examine the future entrepreneurship activities that CSR could potentially support in the Nigeria Telecommunication industry;
- iv. To examine the relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

### **1.5: Research Questions**

In furtherance of the research, a total of four (4) research questions were developed from the research objectives as stated below.

1. What is the stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
2. What is the stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
3. What are the future entrepreneurial activities that CSR could potentially support in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
4. Is there a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

In the subsequent chapters 3 and 4, the research questions above have been fortified with appropriate propositions and hypotheses.

### **1.6: Contributions of the Study to Knowledge**

Firstly, this study has provided an enhanced understanding of CSR and entrepreneurship from the Nigerian stakeholders' perspectives. CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication context is largely a philanthropic perspective, while entrepreneurship is perceived as attempt to set up small businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

Secondly, the study has modestly bridged the theoretical and empirical gap in the literature on the developmental-oriented CSR. The research has therefore filled the "methodological shortcomings and the lack of empirical evidence on the impact of CSR" (Frynas, 2008: 276). In theory and practice, CSR-Entrepreneurship model justified the plausibility of refocusing CSR investment for stimulating entrepreneurship in Nigeria, where small businesses face a number of environmental challenges. The model also responds to Roy's (2010) prescription

for the enhancement of Africa's CSR investments. CSR-Entrepreneurship model has therefore provided the theoretical and empirical possibility of Roy's (2010) call for action and highlighted potentials of CSR investments when used for developmental purposes.

Thirdly, the study contributed to research methodology literature. The development of a replicable 87-item structured questionnaire entitled the Corporate Social Responsibility and Entrepreneurship Questionnaire (CSREQ) for measuring CSR and Entrepreneurship constructs. The contributions of the instrument are threefold.

- ⇔ 1: *the CSREQ instrument is a useful metric for measuring the impact of five CSR dimensions (environmental, national, communal, social, and economic, issues) on entrepreneurship development thereby guiding corporate policy-makers on which dimension of CSR to focus on to grow/develop entrepreneurship in their operational environment.*
- ⇔ 2: *the CSR aspect of the CSREQ instrument is useful for measuring corporations' social, economic and environmental compliance.*
- ⇔ 3: *the 'E' aspect of the CSREQ instrument is useful for measuring corporations' degree of entrepreneurial innovativeness, proactiveness, altruism, autonomy, shared-vision and socialisation in their operating environment.*

Another methodological contribution relates to the use of structural equation modelling (SEM) for validating conceptual CSR-Entrepreneurship model, and Multiple Regression Analysis for ascertaining the model's measurement effectiveness and predictability; both are novel in CSR and entrepreneurship research from developing countries. Thirdly, the creative use of purposive sampling (for interview-based survey) and snowballing sampling in the absence of sample frame (for questionnaire-based survey) provided new insight into sampling techniques in the fields of CSR and Entrepreneurship research in the absence of sound and reliable sampling frame. More importantly, the prospects of academic research leveraging on free web-survey facilities on Google was unveiled and utilised.

Further contribution relates to philosophical standpoints of this multidisciplinary research. Several studies in the field of CSR and entrepreneurship have adopted either interpretivist or positivist paradigms (qualitative research method or quantitative research method respectively) in providing insights into either of these constructs. The current study contributes to the philosophical perspective of both fields by adopting a pragmatist paradigm which in theory and practice allows for triangulation and comparative analysis of the findings from the two dominant paradigms. Secondly, the qualitative aspect of the research built on

the interpretivist paradigm serves as exploratory work for the quantitative method that followed later. Besides, pragmatism is a means for validating one method by the other. Finally, pragmatism provides the basis for extrapolating on findings and fortifies the researcher's ability to make generalisation beyond the sample size, industry and country context.

In the realm of theory and practice, the study has made significant contributions. It has demonstrated the empirical plausibility of refocusing CSR as a private-sector development model (PSDM) for entrepreneurship development within and outside the value chain of the Nigerian telecommunication industry. The study has employed a meta-theoretical analysis to provide sound grounding for the CSR-Entrepreneurship (CSRE) model. The marriage of dominant theories from the fields of CSR and entrepreneurship is another contribution to theory building and adaptation in research. Related to the PSDM contribution, this research has justified the potentials of CSRE as an enduring tool for dousing conflicts in host communities. In other words, CSRE is a more enduring political risk mitigation mechanism in hostile communities with multiple stakeholders' interests when complemented with other policy measures.

Finally, the study has contributed to knowledge through publication of the developmental perspective of CSRE in the Social Responsibility Journal (SRJ) and the Greenleaf's Chapter Book publication on the developmental-oriented CSR. Another paper entitled 'Corporate social responsibility, Waqf system and Zakat system as faith-based model for poverty reduction' was adjudged as a 'Highly Commended Paper' throughout 2014 by the World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development, Emerald Group Publishing Limited. They have all been peer-reviewed and published.

### **1.7: Research Methodology**

In order to provide answers to the four (4) research questions above, the researcher adopted a pragmatic philosophical standpoint (an amalgam of interpretivism and positivism). The qualitative aspect of the research aligns with interpretivism, while the quantitative aspect of the research adopts positivism. For the research method, the study found mixed methods suitable due to the nature of the research objectives. The preferred research approach is therefore a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Saunders et al., 2012), while relying on the survey strategy as the primary source of data collection for both strategies (Borrego et al., 2009; Horn, 2010).

The survey strategy was preferred because it has several advantages in the methodology literature. In the first place, survey finds acceptability in the management science domain for studying CSR, Entrepreneurship and other emerging issues (Abreu, David and Crowther, 2005; Sweeney, 2009 and Claudy, 2011; Saunders, 2012). Similarly, survey strategy in research is functionally appropriate for problem identification, unveiling academic mysteries and providing objective explanations for hidden phenomena in the fields of social sciences, management and educational management (Raimi, Adebakin and Gabadeen, 2013).

The required data for the qualitative aspect of the research were sourced from nine (9) telecommunication companies in Nigeria using semi-structured interview instrument as a technique. Out of the total 25 telecommunication companies in Nigeria, 12 companies are at different stages of liquidation for poor performance while 13 companies are operating effectively. From these 13 companies, 9 were selected as samples for this research, which represents 69.2% of the functioning population. The unselected 5 companies fall outside the sample location (Lagos). The interview was conducted using a face-to-face technique, while telephone and emails were employed only for follow-up with the interviewees in the selected companies. This research design aligns with the works of Sweeney (2009) on CSR in Ireland as well as Amaeshi et al., (2006) and Hashimu and Ango, (2012) in their studies on CSR in Nigeria. The qualitative interview data were analysed using Thematic and Content Analysis as done in recent studies and seminal works (Sweeney, 2009; Adenowo, 2012; Abiola, 2013).

For the quantitative research, a structured web-enabled questionnaire instrument with 87 items was used to elicit the required data from varied subscribers from the target population. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics (Chi-square Test, Freidman Rank Test, Cronbach Alpa Test of Reliability, Exploratory Factor Analysis), while relationships among the multivariate factors were validated using Structural Equation Modelling (Adelopo, 2008; Sweeney, 2009). More importantly, Structural Equation Modelling was electronically analysed using an add-on package for SPSS called Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) made available by the Kimberly Library on request.

### **1.8: Scope of the Study**

This research focused on the Nigerian telecommunication industry with particular reference to 25 companies and their subscribers. In view of constraints in covering the entire landscape of the targeted industry, there was the need to limit the scope to a realistic sample location, sample size within the time-frame of the research and available resources. Lagos State was



chosen as the sample location for its broad-based representation of Nigeria; it is a replica of the entirety of Nigeria. According to Ajayi (2007), Lagos State has historical relevance as the commercial backbone of Nigeria, the seat of financial, commercial and manufacturing activities in the country. The desired sample size is limited to 9 telecommunication companies and 384 stakeholders/respondents. The thesis examines the perceptions of the stakeholders on CSR and entrepreneurship, dominant CSR activities, issues targeted and potentials of CSR stimulating entrepreneurship. Telephone users were requested to express their views on the above-highlighted issues through web-enabled structured questionnaire. With regards to the level of analysis, there are four levels of analysis open to researchers depending on the goals and depth of their investigation: micro goals (individual level), meso goals (organisational level), macro goals (national level) and supra goals (global level) analyses (Aguilera et al., 2007). Researchers are therefore at liberty to adopt the level of analysis that fits the scope of enquiry being carried out. For this thesis, the organisational level approach (meso level) is found appropriate as the focus of the study is on the Nigerian telecommunication industry. The choice is premised on the fact that this is an exploratory research which is constrained by time, resources, sample size and sample location.

### **1.9: Significance of the Study**

The significance of research is judged based on new findings, new meanings and new approaches that emerge in the final analysis. In view of this, this study is important in many respects. First, it provided a developmental approach to understanding CSR and Entrepreneurship for the academic community, civil advocacy groups, the Government and developing nations for further explorations and applications. Furthermore, the research created better understanding about the huge potential of using CSR as a private-sector development mechanism (PSDM), a plausible model that could be used to foster the growth of entrepreneurship in Nigeria.

Moreover, the academic literature is enriched with the meanings of entrepreneurship and CSR in the Nigerian context. Besides this, the study provided corporations operating in the telecommunication industry and other sectors with new dimensions on the applicability of CSR for stimulating growth of SMEs. This novel understanding of CSR and Entrepreneurship from a Nigerian-African perspective would drive entrepreneurship, improve quality of lives of the host communities, reduce unemployment, curb social malaise and enhance economic growth. In the same vein, non-governmental organisations will find the

study helpful in their advocacy projects, as it provides a strong basis for collaborative approaches to economic development through entrepreneurship and CSR synergy.

Other countries in the West African sub-region could find this exploratory work on the developmental side of CSR useful and helpful in sustaining growth of entrepreneurship and associated issues. The framework developed by this research is adaptable, suitable and replicable for similar research in the developing nations with similar socio-economic backgrounds to Nigeria. Finally, the study contributes to raging debates, existing theories, current CSR and entrepreneurship best practices. By and large, the study explains the gap between theory and practice of these key concepts and recommends an innovative approach. In essence, it suggests that the developmental side of CSR should be exploited for bridging the public sector inadequacies in the areas of poverty reduction, wealth creation, unemployment reduction, human capital development and developmental support services to the disadvantaged.

#### **1.10: The Structure of the Thesis**

Chapter 1 provided a concise introduction about the research and serves as a springboard for discussions in subsequent chapters. The following were discussed in the chapter: emerging issues that have brought CSR and entrepreneurship to the limelight, justifications for the study, the problem, the general and specific research objectives, research questions, contributions of the study to knowledge, research methodology, scope & limitations of the study, the significance of the study and structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 provides background information on the Nigerian socio-economic profiles, extant laws/regulatory agencies, performance of the telecommunication industry and the CSR programmes.

Chapter 3 explores the literature for scholarly insights on the nature, evolution and dynamics of CSR. The review highlights major definitional constructs of CSR from academic and organisational viewpoints, as well as articulating the diverse perspectives of CSR, the argument for and against CSR, prevalent theories and drivers of CSR, without forgetting the barriers limiting compliance.

Chapter 4 is a continuation of the earlier literature review, but focuses on entrepreneurship. The chapter looks at the definitions of entrepreneurship, its typologies and measurements, theories of entrepreneurship and emerging issues in CSR-Entrepreneurship (CSRE) synergy.

Chapter 5 develops a meta-theoretical framework after a critique of dominant CSR and Entrepreneurship theories, which provides a coherent underpinning for the investigation. The meta-theories that support the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework are Stakeholder Theory (SHT) and Human Capital Theory (HCT).

Chapter 6 unveils the research methodology employed for conducting the empirical research. The methodological issues like ontology (viewpoint on reality), epistemology (source of knowledge and how), research paradigm, methods/design/strategies/techniques and ethical issues are discussed. The philosophical standpoint of the thesis is pragmatism.

Chapter 7 is the qualitative data analysis segment of the research. The analysis of the interview responses is done using content and thematic analyses (CTA).

Chapter 8 is the quantitative data analysis segment of the research. The analysis of the questionnaire responses is done using descriptive and inferential statistics (Friedman Rank Test Statistics, Chi-Square Test Statistics and Multiple Linear Regression), with further validation with structural equation modelling (SEM).

Chapter 9 as the concluding chapter gave an overview of the study, summary of the chapter, discussion of findings, conclusions, contributions to knowledge, research implication of the research, limitations/generaliseability of the research, plan for publication and dissemination of knowledge.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THE NIGERIAN BUSINESS, REGULATORY AND TELECOMMUNICATION ENVIRONMENT

*Samuel Huntington: "Money becomes evil not when it is used to buy goods but when it is used to buy power... economic inequalities become evil when they are translated into political inequalities"*  
(Vogel, 2003:3)

#### 2.0: Introduction

The last chapter gave a summary of the research. Chapter two provides information on Nigeria's socio-economic profile, enabling laws, regulatory agencies and environmental challenges which are relevant to this research. There are five (5) sections in all. Section 2.1 discusses Nigeria's socio-economic profile with supporting data, tables and figures. Section 2.2 evaluates deregulation policy and the reported performance of the telecommunication industry from 1999-2012, which justifies its adoption as the reference industry in this research. Section 2.3 provides a concise discussion on the CSR of the Nigerian telecommunication industry. Section 2.4 highlights the role of the regulatory agencies and extant laws with regards to social, economic and environmental obligations. Section 2.5 concludes with a summary of the whole discourse.

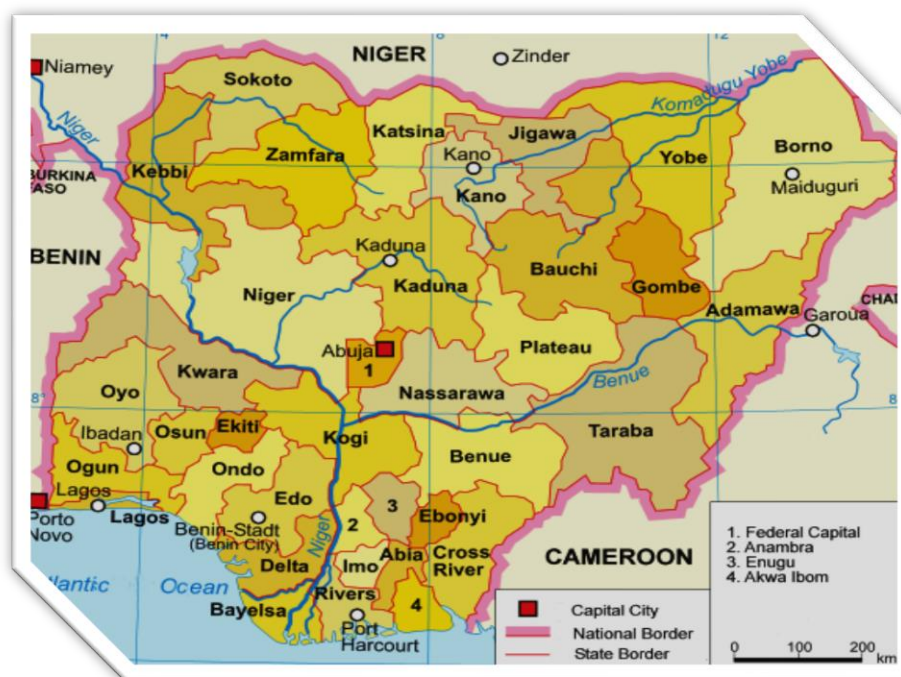
#### 2.1: Nigeria's Socio-Economic Profile

The name Nigeria is a creative combination of two words, 'Niger' and 'Area' (Omoruyi, 2002; Helly and Callaway, 2004). At present, it has thirty-six (36) states and a federal capital territory (Alkali, 2008; Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012). Its population presently stands at 174.5 million (CIA Factbook, 2013). Nigeria is strategically located in western Africa on the Gulf of Guinea with a total area of 923,768 km<sup>2</sup>. It shares a 4,047 kilometre border with Benin (773 km to the West), Chad (87 km to the East), Cameroon (1690 km to the East), Niger (1497 km to the North) and maintains a coastline of at least 853 km on the Gulf of Guinea on the Atlantic Ocean (Central Intelligence Agency Factbook, 2011).

Analysts described Nigeria as part of the SANE countries; an acronym that describes countries such as South Africa, Algeria, Nigeria and Egypt viewed as countries with a combined nominal gross domestic product (GDP) of USD613 billion (Kasekende et al., 2006; Oshikoya, 2007; Alessandrini and Batuo, 2008). However, Nigeria alone has a nominal GDP of USD120 billion (Kasekende et al., 2006). It is also part of the NEKS countries (Nigeria, Egypt, Kenya and South Africa), which are nations described as having large untapped domestic markets for foreign investment (Alkali, 2008; Mahajan, 2009). With regards to

economic growth indices, Nigeria has a nominal GDP of \$272.6 billion and per capita income of \$2,700, which positions it as 176<sup>th</sup> among over 228 countries rated (CIA Factbook, 2013).

**Figure 2.1: Map of the Federal Republic of Nigeria**

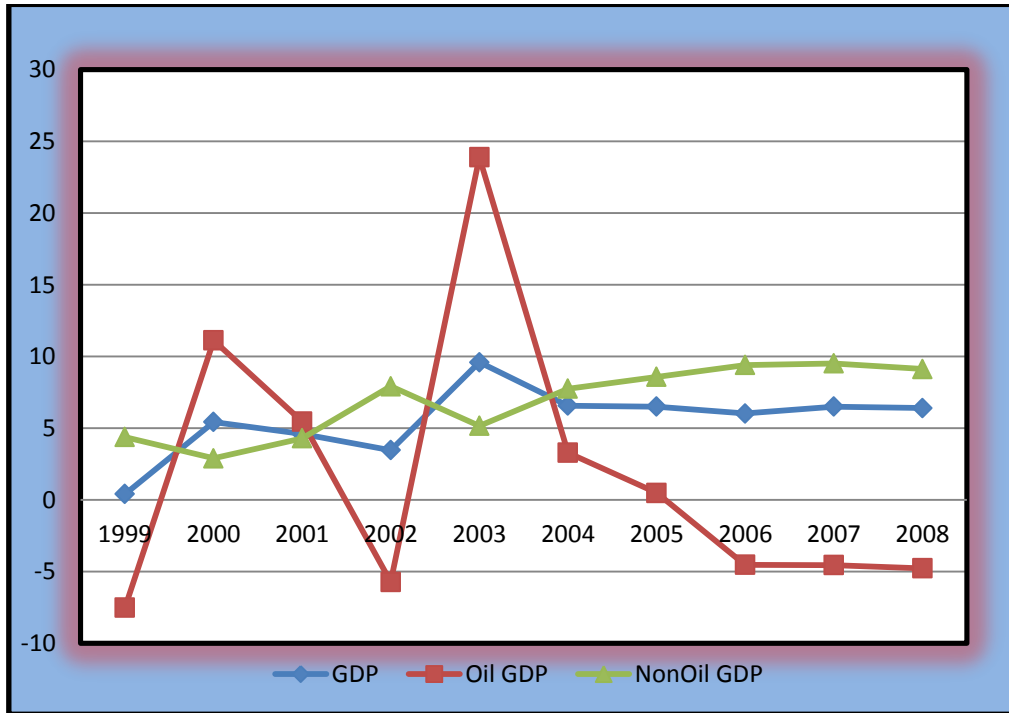


**Source:** European Commission (2010:6)

An official report notes that investment thrives in Nigeria judging by the nation’s rising Gross Domestic Product (NBS, 2011). There are also reassuring promises of an array of incentives and opportunities for prospective local and foreign investors (Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission, 2013). Official data indicate that average return on investment (ROI) in Nigeria stands at 20% per annum, and the micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) sub-sector constitutes over 95% of the nation’s enterprises and proudly accounts for over 50% of formal employment (Alkali, 2008:72).

The Nigerian economy is classified into oil and non-oil sectors. The non-oil sector has prospects, but presently the nation depends heavily on the oil sector for its foreign exchange earnings. Figure 2.2 below shows a graphic comparison between GDP, oil sector contributions and non-oil sector contributions (Nigeria Vision 2020 Blueprint, 2009). It is evident that the oil sector drove the Nigerian economy until 2004 when it nose-dived, while the non-oil sector of the economy only complements.

**Figure 2.2:** GDP, Oil and Non-Oil Growth Rates



**Source:** Nigeria Vision 2020 Blueprint (2009:26)

Neglect of the promising non-oil sector triggered unemployment and dwindling growth of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria. The oil option paid off, as the nation witnessed appreciable growth in its oil gross domestic product (Oil GDP) at different periods before relative stagnation from 2004 to 2008. The increased oil wealth that accrued to the nation could not translate into sustainable economic development due to institutional corruption, oil theft, profligacy and bad governance leading to mismanagement of oil resources with impunity by the political elites (Young, 1999; Watts, 2009; McLoughlin and Bouchat, 2013)

In spite of the unpleasant socio-economic statistics in Table 2.1 below, Nigeria remains “a major source of energy resources, a potentially large commercial market, and a stabilizing presence” in the entire Sub-Saharan African continent (McLoughlin and Bouchat, 2013:4). Table 2.1 indicates that Nigeria recorded an upsurge in poverty and unemployment rates, despite rising GDP figures. The poverty and unemployment rates as at 2012 rose to 64.2% and 23.9% respectively. The industrial growth rates fluctuated over time, a situation caused by poor access to finance, rising cost of electricity/energy, transport, infrastructural neglect, multiple taxes, poor incentives, crime, insecurity, corruption and bad governance (BEEP, 2007; Raimi et al., 2011; Oyelola et al., 2013).

**Table 2.1: Performance of the Economy, 1990 – 2012**

Year	Industrial Index	Unemployment	Poverty Rate	Gross Domestic Product (N Billion)
1990	130.6	3.38	38.0	267,549
1995	128.8	1.90	59.3	1,934,831
1996	132.5	3.80	64.6	2,703,809
1997	140.6	2.60	54.1	2,801,973
1998	133.9	3.90	41.6	2,721,178
1999	129.1	13.7	41.6	3,313,563
2000	138.9	13.1	65.6	4,727,523
2001	144.1	13.6	65.6	5,374,335
2002	145.2	12.6	65.6	6,232,244
2003	147.0	14.8	65.5	6,061,700
2004	151.2	13.4	54.4	11,411,067
2005	158.8	11.9	54.4	15,610,882
2006	120.8	12.3	54.4	18,564,595
2007	118.6	12.7	70.0	20,657,317
2008	117.2	14.9	51.6	24,296,329
2009	119.0	19.7	55.0	24,794,238
2010	126.9	21.1	69.0	34,494,580
2011	137.5	23.9	72.0	38,061,970
2012	137.6	23.9	64.2	40,115,340

**Sources:** National Bureau of Statistics (2011), CBN (2011), UNDP (2011), CIA Factbook (2011), World Bank (2013)

In spite of the challenging business environment, Nigeria is described as maintaining an encouraging growth rate of 7% among the comity of nations (World Economic Forum, 2012; Yuguda, 2013). However, this growth profile has not translated into economic and welfare benefits for Nigerians as evidenced by the rising unemployment rate. The unemployment rates in Table 2.1 above show an upward trend in joblessness and hopelessness, a phenomenon begging for attention. Majority of those identified as structurally unemployed are able-bodied youth within the age brackets of 15-24 years and 25-44 years (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

Unemployment appears to be prevalent among educated Nigerians because of what analysts described as a glaring mismatch between the needs of the world of work and the stock of human capital produced by conventional educational institutions like universities, polytechnics and colleges of education (Simkovic, 2012; Sofoluwe et al., 2013).

The need to bridge the proficiency gap between the needs of workplaces and products of training institutions led to more emphasis on practical skills acquisition programmes for the artisans, who are outside the formal school settings and the introduction of Entrepreneurship Education and Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) into the curricula of higher institutions and other levels of formal education (Gabadeen and Raimi, 2012; Ladipo et al., 2013). From the policymakers' perspective, entrepreneurship education is an

intervention tool designed to redress the scourge of unemployment and white collar syndrome among graduates (Yahya, 2011). Apart from unemployment, the nation failed to boost investment in human capital development over the years. This led to poor performance in the HDI report of UNDP (2011).

**Table 2.2:** Nigeria’s Human Development Index from 2005 – 2011

Year	Nigeria Low HDI	South Africa Medium HDI	Uganda Low HDI	Ghana Low HDI	Sub- Saharan Africa	World
2011	0.459	0.619	0.446	0.541	0.463	0.682
2010	0.454	0.615	0.442	0.533	0.460	0.679
2009	0.449	0.610	0.438	0.527	0.456	0.676
2008	0.446	0.608	0.430	0.519	0.451	0.674
2007	0.441	0.604	0.420	0.508	0.445	0.670
2006	0.438	0.601	0.410	0.494	0.438	0.664
2005	0.429	0.599	0.401	0.484	0.431	0.660

**Source:** UNDP (2011) Report on Human Development Index (HDI).

From Table 2.2 above, it is evident that Nigeria’s HDI suffers a downward trend because of what analysts describe as “unplanned efforts towards the development of human capital through education and training” across the three levels of education (Awopegba, 2001:157). Nigeria’s HDI for 2011 was 0.459; the estimate puts the country in 156<sup>th</sup> position out of 187 nations with comparable data (UNDP, 2011), whereas, the HDIs of South Africa, Uganda, Ghana, Sub-Saharan Africa and average for the World for 2011 are 0.619, 0.446, 0.541, 0.463 and 0.682 respectively. From the data above, it is clear that Nigeria’s human capital is deteriorating in quality, efficiency and competitiveness relative to South Africa, Uganda, Ghana, Sub-Saharan Africa and average HDI in other parts the World; hence there is a need for urgent intervention (Sofoluwe et al., 2013).

Another worrying hindrance to economic development in Nigeria is political corruption, a phenomenon viewed as an anti-social behaviour that allows fraudulent benefits to be conferred on perpetrators as well as subversion and diversion of economic resources to the personal coffers of privileged individuals, thereby reducing the capacity of the public authorities to meet adequately and equitably the socio-economic needs of members of society (Osoba, 2000, Agara et al., 2009).

Moreover, Agbu (2003) identified four (4) implications of corruption at governmental level. Firstly, the corruption phenomenon negatively affects the quality of governance and social structure. Secondly, it erodes government’s ability and capacity to provide vital social



amenities like water, sanitation, healthcare, education etc. required by the citizens. Thirdly, corrupt practices retard economic development and precipitate the deterioration of public infrastructure. Furthermore, corruption entrenches bad governance. To curb financial corruption and corrupt practices in Nigeria, the Federal Government established: (a) the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC), and (b) the Independent Corrupt Practices & Other Related Offences Commission to serve as anti-corruption watchdogs. The inability of the EFCC and ICPC to check governance corruption, the subversion of national policies and diversion of funds meant for development, and poor performance of the eight (8) millennium development goals (MDGs) are factors which aggravated Nigeria's poverty (Haines and Cassels, 2004; Visser, 2008 and Raimi et al., 2013).

**Table 2.3:** Mid-Point Assessment of Nigeria's Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

Year	Poverty Index MDG 1	Child Mortality MDG 4	Maternal Health MDG 5	Gender Index MDG 3	UBE MDG 2	HIV MDG 6	Environmental Sustainability MDG 7	Global Partnership MDG8
2000	65.6	81.38	704	66	95	5.4	54	1.47
2001	65.6	80.09	704	68	95	5.8	62.11	1.39
2002	65.6	78.8	704	87	95	5	64.21	2.38
2003	65.5	100	800	72	95	4.3	66.25	2.44
2004	54.4	100	800	75.5	81.1	4.3	57	4.49
2005	54.4	110	800	70.1	84.6	4.3	60	48.94
2006	54.4	110	800	69.0	87.9	4.3	50.9	81.67
2007	51.55	86	800	66.4	89.6	4.3	49.1	NA
2008	51.55	75	800	66.8	89.6	4.3	55.8	NA
2009	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	4.3	58.9	NA

Sources: Office of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria (2000-2009)

From the discourse on the socio-economic profile of Nigeria, it is obvious that Nigeria's economy needs an enabling environment.

## **2.2: Deregulation Policy in the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry**

Two related constructs informed the adoption of deregulation in Nigeria, viz: the governance gap and neoliberalism. The governance gap refers to a precarious and backward socio-economic situation prevailing in developing nations characterised by infrastructural neglect and a dysfunctional economy caused "by weak, corrupt, or under-resourced governments (or its publicly-owned enterprises) that fail to adequately provide various social services – housing, roads, electricity, health care, education..." for the citizens (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011:131). Private sector participation is preferred in a democratic milieu because of its effectiveness and efficiency in the delivery of products/services, and because it offers flexible and workable 'sets of ideas' as well as 'approaches' for tackling socio-

economic challenges hindering sustainable development (Mitlin et al., 2007; Hassan, 2011). By deregulating the telecommunication industry, Nigeria has imbibed the neoliberal philosophy. According to Harvey (2005: 2),

*“[Neoliberalism] is a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets and free trade.”*

The term used by policymakers for describing neoliberalism is deregulation. Within the Nigerian telecommunication context, therefore, the neoliberal term deregulation means the replacement of inefficient monopoly with competition (Hassan, 2011:11) with a view to making the sector more robust, vibrant and efficient to offer innovative products as well as deliver value-added services to the public; other synonyms for deregulation are liberalisation and demonopolisation. Dappa and Daminabo (2011) defined deregulation as a policy that accords greater importance to the organised private sector as opposed to exclusive dominance and control of the economy by the government and its agencies.

In specific terms, the deregulation of the telecommunication industry took three dimensions, viz: privatisation, deregulation and liberalisation. The privatisation dimension entails deliberate transfer of “60% share of NITEL and M-Tel to private individuals and organisations” through equity restructuring or trading. The deregulation dimension, however, entails conscious removal of NITEL’s monopoly in the telecommunication sector thereby allowing for healthy competition and interaction among old and new players in the industry. Deregulation allows licensed “private investors ... to operate side by side with NITEL”, the only national telephone service provider. The liberalisation dimension, however, “[allows] foreign participation in the emerging competition” in the deregulated telecommunication industry in Nigeria (Hassan, 2011:11).

Deregulation of the telecommunication sector has tremendous positive impact on the economy at large because prior to 1999, the whole of Nigeria had only 400,000 connected telephone lines supported by another 25,000 analogue lines to cater for the entire population. The total teledensity then stood at 0.4 lines per 100 inhabitants.

The pre-deregulation epoch was horrifying because the average Nigerian could not afford phones because the connection costs were prohibitively high and beyond the reach of the majority – as much as N60, 000 (approximately \$383) was required to purchase an analogue mobile telephone line, while the waiting times for fixed lines were unnecessarily long (Ndukwe, 2004). The scene painted above changed after deregulation and the restructuring

of Nigerian telecommunication in 1992. The country is currently a hive of telecommunication activity as several multinational telecommunications firms rushed in to grab the opportunities (Jerome, 2002).

In the same vein, Hassan (2011:11) reports that the deregulation of the telecommunication industry led to “a tremendous growth of subscription base in the country from 508,316 in 1999 to 81,931,223 in 2010 representing over 16000% growth...teledensity (telephone penetration) rose from 0.45 in 1999 to 58.52 in 2010.”

Furthermore, deregulation of the telecommunication industry created 5000 new jobs (as direct employment) in the licensed telecommunication companies. There was also encouraging indirect employment in the form of dealerships, retail outlets for GSM handsets and accessories, as well as one-man phone boot operations during the same period estimated at 400,000 new jobs (NCC, 2004), which has risen to millions in recent times (Osemene, 2012).

Other documented records of performance in the sector include the injection of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) valued at US\$4 billion, from which the financial sector profited immensely, as providers of channels for funds transfer (NCC, 2004). The above positive trends when combined have assisted the growth and development of telecommunication in Nigeria with significant impact on the economy, as can be observed in the growth in real GDP rate from 3.8% in 2000 to 6.8 % in 2010 (The Central Bank of Nigeria, 2010).

Considering the level of employment, FDI, dealership and auxiliary services stimulated by the Nigerian telecommunication industry as reported by NCC (2004), there is a need to sustain the impressive trend through a synergy of CSR and entrepreneurship in the industry. CSR-Entrepreneurship synergy is expedient for the long-term business interest of the telecommunications industry and the interest of other stakeholders.

With regards to reported performance, the telecommunication industry after deregulation has become highly competitive, vibrant, efficient and robust compared with other sectors of the economy (Jerome, 2002; NCC, 2004; CBN, 2010; Hassan, 2011). Industry statistics indicate that by December 2011, the country had a total of 95,886,714 mobile and fixed telephone lines (Amaefule, 2012), which rose to 99,145,013 in 2012 (NCC, 2012).

In the Nigerian telecommunication landscape, there are officially 25 licensed telephone companies (excluding two with dual licences, see Table 2.4 below).

**Table 2.4: Telecommunication Firms & Number of Subscribers in Nigeria**

<b>SN</b>	<b>Mobile GSM Operators</b>	<b>Jun 2011</b>	<b>Sep 2011</b>	<b>Dec 2011</b>	<b>Mar 2012</b>
1	MTN Nigeria Communications	40,540,281	41,107,494	41,641,089	42,898,581
2	Globacom Limited	19,488,756	19,854,111	19,886,014	20,846,604
3	Airtel	15,969,943	16,683,946	18,028,385	18,600,435
4	MTEL Limited	258,520	258,520	258,520	258,520
5	EMTS Limited (Etisalat)	7,835,673	9,513,437	10,752,230	11,927,840
	<b>Sub-Total (GSM)</b>	<b>84,093,173</b>	<b>87,417,508</b>	<b>90,566,238</b>	<b>94,531,980</b>
<b>SN</b>	<b>Mobile CDMA Operators</b>				
1	Starcomms Limited	1,154,837	1,083,498	980,109	725,871
2	Visafone Limited	2,596,401	2,636,155	2,604,038	2,495,790
3	Multilinks Telkom	974,076	1,050,161	701,304	680,960
4.	Zoom	833,298	445,317	315,619	111,077
	<b>Sub-Total (CDMA)</b>	<b>5,558,612</b>	<b>5,215,131</b>	<b>4,601,070</b>	<b>4,013,661</b>
<b>SN</b>	<b>Fixed Wired and Wireless</b>				
1.	Starcomms Limited	469,543	422,822	367,367	259,871
2.	Visafone Limited	27,107	26,865	26,393	25,648
3.	Multilinks Telkom	91,952	101,581	70,795	82,742
4.	Reliance Telecoms (Zoom)	89,346	64,716	43,784	10,849
5.	Intercellular Nigeria Limited	1,068	1,696	1,115	999
6.	VGC/MTN	10,003	10,944	10,383	19,791
7.	MTS 1st Communications	19,744	19,744	19,744	19,744
8.	21st Century Technologies	62,905	70,691	70,087	70,133
9.	disc Communications	176	176	176	176
10.	WiTEL	80	80	80	80
11.	O'Net (Odua Telecom)	35,421	35,421	35,421	35,421
12.	Rainbownet Limited	14,169	14,169	14,169	14,169
13.	Monarch Communications	500	513	513	513
14.	XS BROADBAND	329	329	329	329
15.	Webcom	300	300	300	120
16.	NITEL	58,750	58,750	58,750	58,750
	<b>Sub-Total (Fixed Wireless)</b>	<b>881,393</b>	<b>828,797</b>	<b>719,406</b>	<b>599,335</b>
	<b>TOTAL Subscribers</b>	<b>90,533,178</b>	<b>93,461,436</b>	<b>95,886,714</b>	<b>99,145,013</b>
	% of Mobile (GSM)	92.89	93.53	94.45	95.35

**Source:** Nigerian Communication Commission (2012]

From Table 2.4, the 25 registered telecommunication companies have been categorised into three, viz: (a) Mobile GSM operators, (b) Mobile CDMA operators, and (c) Fixed Wired and Wireless (NCC, 2012).

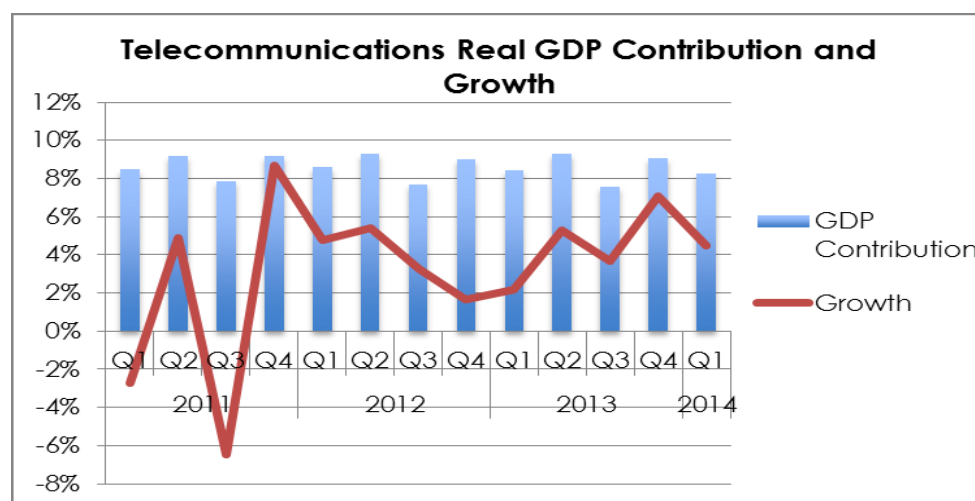
**Table 2.5:** Number of Subscribers in Nigeria and other countries

Year	Subscribers in Nigeria	Subscribers in Egypt	Subscribers in China	Subscriber in United States
2000	30,000	1,359,900	85,260,000	109,478,031
2001	266,461	2,793,800	144,820,000	128,500,000
2002	1,569,050	4,494,700	206,005,000	141,800,000
2003	3,149,473	5,797,530	269,953,000	160,637,000
2004	9,147,209	7,643,060	334,824,000	184,819,000
2005	18,587,000	13,629,602	393,406,000	203,700,000
2006	32,322,202	18,001,106	461,058,000	229,600,000
2007	40,395,611	30,093,673	547,306,000	249,300,000
2008	62,988,492	41,286,662	641,245,000	261,300,000
2009	74,518,264	55,352,233	747,214,000	274,300,000
2010	87,297,789	70,661,005	859,003,000	278,900,000

**Source:** Nigerian Communication Commission (2012]

Table 2.5 above, on the other hand, shows that the growth of telephone subscribers in Nigeria is encouraging relative to growth rates in other parts of the world, an indication that the Nigerian market is vibrant, hence the rush by foreign firms like Etisalat, Airtel and MTN to register their presence in Nigeria. In 2000, the subscriber base was 30,000. Within one year, the figure increased to 266,261 (787.5%). By 2010, the subscriber base had risen to 87,297,789 within a period of 10 years. This phenomenal growth rate is unprecedented in all countries of the world as evidenced by the comparison of Nigeria’s subscriber base with Egypt, China and the United States.

**Figure 2.3:** Telecoms contributions to real GDP and growth



**Source:** NBS (2014)

The National Planning Commission (2012) noted that Nigerian telecommunication made commendable contributions to economic growth from 2008, 2009 and 2010, with growth rates of 34.67%, 34.73% and 34.83% respectively. Additional data from NCC (2012) indicates that the mobile sub-sector controls 95.35% of the entire industry. NBS (2014)

reports as shown above indicate that the telecommunication industry again contributed 8.27% to total GDP in the first quarter of 2014. Besides, Osemene (2012) identified MTN, Airtel, Globacom, Etisalat, Multilinks, Starcomms, Vodafone, Zoom and Visafone as the nine most formidable telecommunication companies in Nigeria. More importantly, the positive performance of the Nigerian telecommunication industry has been attested to by the Federal government and its agencies. The National Planning Commission (2011:29) reports that for 2008, 2009 and 2010, the growth rates of the telecommunication sector were 34.67%, 34.73% and 34.83% respectively. For the same period (2008-2010), the contributions of telecommunication to overall GDP growth were 13.00%, 14.22% and 15.68%. All these commendable records of performance informed the choice of telecommunication industry as the testing ground for investigating the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework.

### **2.3: CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry**

The following are the CSR programmes reported by the Nigerian telecommunication companies in their respective websites and databases.

#### **2.3.1: Airtel Nigeria Limited and CSR**

Airtel Nigeria Limited is one of the licensed telecommunication firms in Nigeria. It provides mobile telephony and other value-added services including access to the internet. An official report indicated that Airtel Nigeria was incorporated on March 26, 2002 as a limited company (Airtel, 2012). The telecommunication company has a clearly defined policy on CSR with focus on education, health and environmental sustainability of the host community. The company has received several commendations such as the CSR Award for Excellence and Exhibition for its philanthropic support for education, especially the underprivileged students under the 'Adopt-a-School initiative' in Lagos State and several other community initiatives (Owonibi, 2012). The CSR programme of Airtel Nigeria in the education sector is "designed to promote good hygiene and sanitation in addition to the de-worming and screening of pupils and staff of public school. The programme also provides school uniforms, furniture, books and school bags as support services to children periodically as well conducts general health check, eye screening, cardiovascular checks and weight check for both teachers and the pupils" in the host communities (Ibe, 2012). The company helped the host communities by providing furniture to a number of neglected schools in the turbulent Niger Delta region as well as sponsoring a variety of health intervention initiatives like the breast cancer project and National Action Committee against Aids (NACA) because all these programmes fall within the company's CSR policy (Osemene, 2011).

### **2.3.2: Etisalat Nigeria and CSR**

The trading name of Etisalat Nigeria is Emerging Markets Telecommunication Services (EMTS). Etisalat Nigeria acquired the Unified Access License from the NCC, a Federal Government regulator, on January 2007, but formally commenced business on 13th March 2008. An official report from its website on CSR vision reads: “We envision a future of sustainable economic and social impact through limitless reach, and are committed to using our CSR policy, strategy and initiatives to create this future”, while the CSR mission is “We extend the reach of the Nigerian people...by providing socially responsible products and services, enabling sustainable growth through our projects in areas of Education, Health and Environment and building meaningful relationships with our stakeholders through engagement – an indication that with optimism and a caring attitude, we can all surpass boundaries” (Etisalat CSR Report, 2010:10).

Etisalat engages its stakeholders via top-bottom and bottom-up approaches and its CSR programmes are focused on three core areas, viz: Education, Health and Environment (Etisalat CSR Report, 2010). The CSR activities of Etisalat on Education, Health and Environment are designed around the following community-oriented programmes: the Adopt-a-School Programme; Career Counselling for Students; the Etisalat Scholarship Awards; the Teacher Training Programme; the Etisalat Centre for CSR; the Fight Malaria Initiative; ECO-SIM cards that do not pose a risk to humans or the environment (Etisalat CSR Report, 2010). The various CSR programmes highlighted above have earned Etisalat several accolades and awards, these include: Nigeria’s best network on service quality, Brand of the Year, Fastest Growing GSM Company of the Year, Best Marketing Company, Most Innovative Corporate Social Responsibility Company, Friendliest Tariff Mobile Operator, Best Telecoms Customer Service and Most Innovative Mobile Operator (Etisalat, 2013).

### **2.3.3: MTN Nigeria and CSR**

MTN Nigeria Communications Limited was the first Global System for Mobile Telecommunications (GSM) firm licensed by the Nigerian Communications Commission (NCC), on February 9, 2001, but began operations on August 2000 in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt. Apart from prompt tax payments, the company claimed to be socially responsible. Its CSR programmes as published on its website cover: health, economic empowerment, education and environment. The performance of MTN with respect to CSR has earned it a good reputation as “*The No.1 CSR Telecoms Company*” in Nigeria. With regards to environmental sustainability, MTN claims that its recharge cards are bio-degradable and do

not pose a danger to the ecosystem. In sustaining its environmentally friendly policy on waste, it created *MTN E-charge*, an online technique of loading airtime directly to subscribers' phones with ease. It is designed to replace paper recharge cards that are currently in use, thereby reducing paper waste and embedding environmentally friendly products in Nigeria (MTN, 2012).

#### **2.3.4: Globacom Nigeria Limited and CSR**

Globacom Nigeria Limited popularly called, Globacom, is one of the mobile service providers established in 2003. Of all the licensed mobile operators, it is the only operator whose equity is 100% owned by Nigerians. With specific reference to CSR, Globacom Nigeria Limited loves giving back to the host community through sponsoring of cultural activities, historical events and sporting events. Specifically, Globacom Nigeria has for several years directed its CSR initiatives towards sponsoring of the activities of the Nigerian National Football Teams, the FIFA U-17 World Cup, Supporters Club Sponsorship, Manchester United Football Club Sponsorship, Glo Ambassadors, GLO Naija Sings, African Handball Championship, Glo-CAF Awards, GLO International Half Marathon, Funds Glo People Police Marathon, the Nigerian Premier League, the Nigeria Football Federation, Eyo Festival, Glo Sponsors African Voices On CNN, Ojude Oba Festival, the Ghana National Football Teams, the Ghana Premier League, the Confederation of African Football African Player of the year award and a host of other programmes (TechTalkAfrica.com, 2013; Gloworld.com/events\_sponsorships.asp, 2013). From the above, it is evident that Globacom's CSR is tailored more toward sports and entertainments.

#### **2.3.5: Visafone Nigeria and CSR**

Visafone Communications Limited was officially "incorporated in Nigeria on June 20, 2007 following the acquisition of Cellcom" which was on the verge of collapse. As part of its social involvement, the company has cheap packages for corporate organisations as well as SMEs. The company has over 3 million subscribers (Visafone Communication Limited, 2013). Visafone as part of its CSR initiative donated to motorcyclists (popularly called Okada) over 200 protective helmets and reflective jackets in Lagos metropolis. The company also partnered with a notable NGO – Arrive Alive – to create maximum awareness on safety and responsible driving on the highways by motorcyclists. The initiative was designed to contribute to the safety of Nigerian road users and to provide motorcyclists with safety helmets with the ultimate objective of reducing fatalities on roads and highways (Nigeria Bulletin, 2008).



### **2.3.6: Starcomms Nigeria Limited and CSR**

Starcomms was granted a license by the Nigerian Communication Commission in 1999 and has remained “the largest Fixed Wireless Telecommunications service provider in West Africa” operating on a world class CDMA technology (Starcomms.com/history, 2013). Although Starcomms is not a licensed GSM mobile telecommunication company, it has a Unified Licence, which allows it to provide mobile telephony as well as other innovative Value added services. Starcomms assert its commitment to long-term business sustainability, and accords recognition to a healthy relationship with its diverse stakeholders, who include customers, employees, investors, neighbours, commercial partners and the host community (Starcomms.com/csr, 2013). The company’s philosophy of CSR is both corporate citizenship and developmental partner (Starcomms.com/csr, 2013).

Notable CSR activities of Starcomms reported on its official website include: (a) Co-sponsorship of the Nigerian Society for the Blind’s SME Project, (b) Sponsorship support for the Professor Wole Soyinka’s Award for Investigative Reporting (Print Category), (c) Sponsorship of the African Telecomm Development Lecture, (d) Sponsorship of Senator Ita-Giwa Band (Seegul) at the 2007 Calabar Carnival, (e) Co-sponsorship of the Nigerian Institute of Public Relations (NIPR), Lagos branch, (f) Happy Hour at the Cubes Bar, Silverbird Galleria, Lagos, (g) Sponsorship of the Lagos Lawn Tennis Club 2007 Gala Night, (h) Lead Sponsorship in the Stars-on-the-runway Fashion show (for charity), (i) 2007 Red Ribbon Awards on HIV/AIDS (JAAIDS), (j) Co-Sponsorship of the HP SME Lecture/Exhibition, (k) Bronze Sponsorship of NICOMM 2007 Securetech Exhibition, (l) Entrepreneurship scheme called ‘Be On Your Own’ (BOYO), (m) Sponsorship of Columbia Business School gathering in Lagos, 1,000 brand new highly subsidized Virtual Private Network (VFN) lines for crime fighting efforts of the Nigerian Police, (n) Lagos state boxing event, (o) Donation of a computer set with one year internet access to the Public Relations unit of the Nigerian Police, (p) Terraculture Art exhibition, (r) Starcomms empowered 100 indigent Nigerians, 50 in Benin and 50 in Lagos, by providing them with smart centre phones to enable them start businesses on their own (Starcomms.com/csr, 2013). Starcomms’s CSR covers diverse areas of philanthropy such as the environment, education, health, poverty, SMEs development, charities etc.

### **2.3.7: CSR of Multilinks Telkom**

Multi-Links Telecommunications is a CDMA telephone service provider incorporated in 1994 to provide telecommunication services to Nigerians. It was issued a Unified Access

Service licence by NCC in 2006 to provide digital mobile & fixed telephony and other value-added services (Multi-links, 2013). With respect to CSR, which is the concern of this review, Osemene (2012:153) states that CSR initiatives of Multilinks include “distribution of wheelchairs to the physically challenged; silver sponsor of West African ICT congress (2009); scholarship to students and various sales promotion efforts whereby lucky Nigerians win items such as cars, television sets, among others.” Similarly, the company intervenes in the health care delivery system donating medical equipment valued at about N6 million to the Pediatrics Department of the University of Ilorin Teaching Hospital. Some of the items include: Oxygen Concentrator, Laryngoscopes with endotracheal tubes, Pulse Oximeter, Pulse Oximeter (Disk stand charger), Ventilator, Haematocrit Centrifuge (Hawsley) and Nebuliser machine”, for the purpose of saving the lives of Nigerians as well as a way of giving something back to society (Aginam, 2010). Multi-Links’s CSR programmes are directed at health, education, and donations through sales promotion.

#### **2.3.8: Zoom Nigeria Limited and CSR**

Zoom Mobile is another active player in the fixed wired and wireless segment of the Nigerian telecommunication industry. It attained formal incorporation on August 25, 1998, as Reliance Telecommunications Limited (Reltel Wireless) but kick-started business operation effective from November 2001. It later applied and got a Zoom Unified Access Service License, which gave it the opportunity of roaming services in all its areas of coverage (ZoomMobile, 2012). There is no significant mention of the CSR initiatives of ZoomMobile on its website and available archives. It could thus be inferred that the company has poor reporting of its CSR programmes.

#### **2.4: Legal and Regulatory Environment in Nigeria**

Nigeria’s legal framework and regulatory agencies that are relevant to CSR include:

##### **2.4.1: National Communication Commission/Nigerian Communications Act 2003**

According to the National Communication Commission (2013), the extant law approved to guide the Nigerian telecommunication industry is the Nigerian Communications Act 2003. The Act strengthens the capacity of the NCC to carry out its regulatory mandates. Aspects of the NCC Act (2003) that are relevant to CSR are contained in Chap. 1, Section 1, Sub-section (e, g h):

“(e). ensure fair competition in all sectors of the Nigerian communications industry and also encourage participation of Nigerians in the ownership, control and management of communications companies and organisations;

- (g). protect the rights and interest of service providers and consumers within Nigeria;
- (h). ensure that the needs of the disabled and elderly persons are taken into consideration in the provision of communications services” (NCC ACT, 2003 No. 19: A293).

#### **2.4.2: Consumer Protection Council/Consumer Protection Council Act 1992**

To safeguard consumers’ rights, tastes and preferences with regards to consumption of physical products and intangible services, the Federal Government of Nigeria promulgated the Consumer Protection Council Act, Chapter C25 (Decree No. 66 of 1992), Laws of the Federation of Nigeria. For full implementation of the CPC Act, the government established the Consumer Protection Council (CPC) as a regulatory authority empowered to protect the rights of consumers. Specific provisions of the CPC Act give protection to consumers, impose fines on defaulting manufacturers, empower consumer groups and guide the public by publishing a list of harmful/hazardous products in Nigeria (CPC Act 1992, Chapter C25:2). The law identified members of the public as key stakeholders, whose interests, rights, likes and preferences should be recognised and protected.

#### **2.4.3: National Environmental Standards and Regulations Enforcement Agency (NESREA) Act of 2007**

This is the regulatory agency in charge of the environment in Nigeria, a role hitherto performed by the Federal Environmental Protection Agency (FEPA) before it was disbanded. The mandate of the agency as contained in the NESREA (Establishment) Act 2007, Part II, Section 7, Sub-section (a) to (m) is to enforce all extant environmental laws, guidelines, policies, standards and regulations in the country, as well as ensuring compliance by all concerned with the provisions of all international agreements, protocols, conventions and treaties on the environment to which Nigeria is a signatory. The NESREA (Establishment) Act, 2007 replaced the Federal Environmental Protection Agency Act Cap F 10 LFN 2004 (Environmental Law Research Institute, 2011; Ogbonna, 2012).

The NESREA Act 2007 underscored the significance of rights to a healthy environment, avoidance of harm to people and sustainable use of environmental resources. The implication of these laws is that the unethical activities of corporations found inimical to a healthy environment, lives of humans, animals, flora and fauna, as well as unsustainable utilization of environmental resources could be challenged in the courts, and appropriate punitive measures could be invoked in line with the relevant laws, or compensation awarded to the litigants (Olong, 2012) in line with the popular “polluter pays principle” often deployed as a punitive sanction on defaulters (Jerome, 2012:92).

#### **2.4.4: Telecom Consumer Parliament (TCP)**

The Telecom Consumer Parliament (TCP) is not an autonomous regulatory body, rather it is a conflict resolution parliament formed in August 2003, as part of the strategic initiatives of the Consumer Affairs Bureau, an organ of the Nigerian Communications Commissions (NCC). The Bureau was charged with the responsibility with the acronym PIE (Protect, Inform and Educate Nigerian telecoms consumers). TCP brings together representatives of the telephone companies and members of the public who are aggrieved to a round-table to resolve contention issues related to pricing/service charges, quality of services, resentment on promotional issues, audibility of networks etc. The NCC as the regulator does the moderation of the proceedings and tries to come to amicable resolutions (Balancing Act, 2013; NCC, 2013). At the quasi parliament, contending issues among the parties are articulated “without compromising the rights of every party to fair and dignified treatment” (NCC, 2003). The Commission notes that TCP “helped in no small measure in creating awareness of the rights of consumers and the obligations of the service providers in the resolution of their problems and concerns. It has enabled operators to clarify issues pertaining to service delivery for the benefit of their subscribers and also to publicly give account of their stewardship to the people.” (NCC, 2013:4). Nigerian Communications Commissions (2008) further reported that issues and feedback from the TCP help the regulatory authority to formulate relevant policies and programmes to redress operational problems in the industry.

#### **2.4.5: Standards Organisation of Nigeria (SON)/SON Act 1990**

In line with international best practices, Nigeria demonstrated its commitment to quality assurance and standards with the enactment of the Standards Organisation of Nigeria Act, Chapter 412, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 1990. The legislation made SON the sole regulatory agency vested with the mandate to standardise, regulate and certify the quality of all manufactured products in Nigeria. SON is empowered to protect consumer rights, tastes and wellbeing. The Act considers the quality of manufactured products as sacrosanct rights of local and international buyers and flagrant violation is treated with heavy penalties. This explains the rationale for SON’s membership of the International Organisation for Standardization (ISO), a global watchdog body that ensures all standard guidelines, protocols and conventions of ISO that relate to quality control, quality code, best practices in processes and methods are followed by manufacturers and service providers.

#### **2.4.6: Corporate Social Responsibility Commission/Proposed CRS Bill 2008**

To ensure corporations operating in Nigeria are environmentally and socially responsible, the National Assembly attempted to pass a Bill on CSR to check operational excesses of corporations in Nigeria. According to the National Assembly Journal (2008:1244), “[the CSR] bill seeks to provide for comprehensive adequate relief to communities which suffer the negative consequences of the industrial and commercial activities of companies operating in their areas. The Bill seeks to create a specific body for the execution of this highly important social responsibility. It also provides for penalty for any breaches of corporate social responsibility.” The bill generated serious controversy because of its ambitious provisions; it was therefore rejected by the business community under the aegis of the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA) and Organised Private Sector (OPS) groups on the grounds that globally CSR is a voluntary obligation and self-regulation as opposed to coerced provision of the proposed CSR bill. Secondly, they described the CSR bill as an additional imposition of tax on corporations which would increase the cost of doing business in Nigeria coupled with the challenges of infrastructural decay facing businesses (Uba, 2009). The Draft Bill on CSR, Part III, Section 1, Sub-sections (a-i) outlines the following as functions:

- a) “create a standard for social responsibility of corporate organizations that is consistent with international standards;
- b) integrate social responsibility in Nigeria trade policies while respecting WTO rules and not creating unjustified trade barriers by seeking to introduce provisions in bilateral regional or multilateral agreements;
- c) conduct research and investigation of needs of host communities of Corporate Organizations;
- d) serve notices of social responsibility requests to organizations;
- e) identify socially responsible behaviour in compliance with National and Community legislation on equality and non-discrimination in all activities of companies;
- f) implement social and environmental regulation consistent with convention and serve as inspection regime of these agreements;
- g) carry out classification of corporate organizations, ranking them according to organizational size and magnitude of investment, which shall determine the nature of corporate social responsibility expected of them;
- h) publish annual reports on social and environmental impacts of company’s direct activities on communities; develop policies to encourage corporate organizations to

undertake community engagements as part of corporate social responsibility, and ensure that companies sponsor cultural and educational activities that offer added value to Nigeria's socio-political and technological development. Provided the cost of a company's total corporate social responsibility for a given year is not less than 3.5% of its gross annual profit for that year;

- i) promote statutory labour standards and collective social governance in the context of globalization" (Paragraph 5).

The CSR Bill was a radical attempt to embed CSR in the Nigerian business environment, but the contents of the Bill were compelling, hence was rejected. These weaknesses accounted for its rejection despite its laudable intentions.

#### **2.4.7: Companies and Allied Matters Act Chapter 59, 1990 LFN/Corporate Affairs Commission**

In Nigeria, formal approval of registration and incorporation of companies rests with the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) in line with Part I, Section 1(1) CAMA Act 1990. With regards to social reporting and obligations to owners and regulatory agencies, Part XI and XII of the Act demand Financial Statement of Audit and Annual Returns respectively. Part XI (Accounting records), Provision 331 states:

- (1) "Every company shall cause accounting records to be kept in accordance with this section.
- (2) The accounting records shall be sufficient to show and explain the transactions of the company and shall be such as to (a) disclose with reasonable accuracy, at any time, the financial position of the company; and (b) enable the directors to ensure that any financial statements prepared under this Part comply with the requirements of this Act as to the form and content of the company's statements. Part XII (Annual returns), Provision 370 states: "Every company shall, once at least in every year, make and deliver to the Commission an annual return in the form, and containing the matters specified in sections 371, 372 or 373 of this Decree as may be applicable". For non-compliance, the extant law imposes strict reprimand on defaulters in Provision 333, Section (1) which states: "If a company fails to comply with any provision of section 331 or 332(1) of this Act, every officer of the company who is in default shall be guilty of an offence unless he shows that he acted honestly and that in the circumstances in which the business of the company was carried on, the default was excusable".

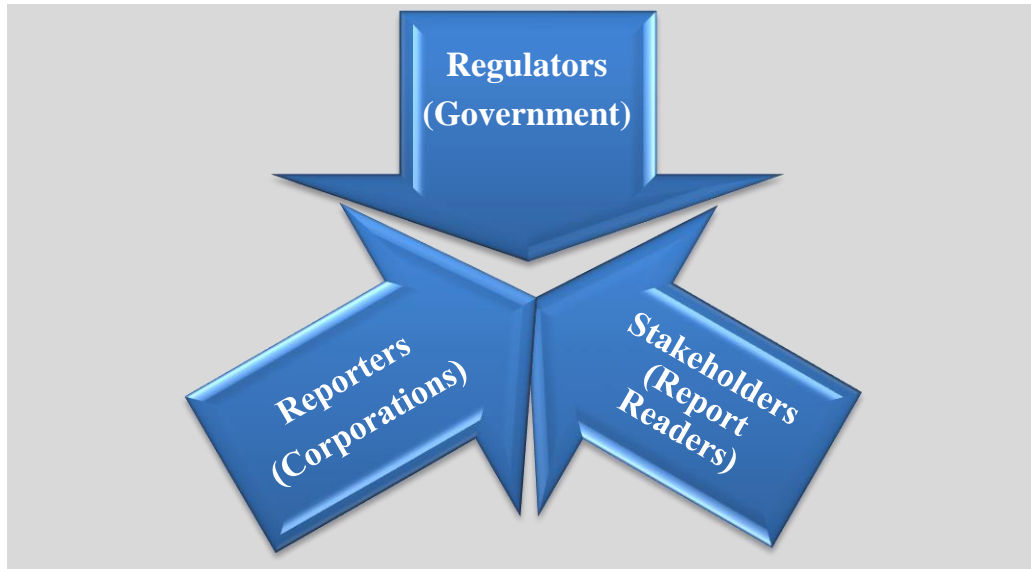
#### **2.4.8: Investments and Securities Decree No 45 of 1999/Securities and Exchange Commission**

Regulations relating to CSR Ethics and Social Reporting are contained in Part II, Provision 8, Sections j and n, and Part X, which gave the mandate to monitor sales of companies' shares and securities dealings to the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC). With regards to public wellbeing, Part II, 8(j) states: “[The Commission shall] act in the public interest having regard to the protection of investors and the maintenance of fair and orderly markets and to this end to establish a nationwide trust scheme to Compensate investors whose losses are not covered under the investors' protection funds administered by Securities Exchanges and Capital Trade Points”. It is further reinforced by Section (n) which reads: “[The Commission shall] act as a regulatory apex organisation for the Nigerian Capital market including the promotion and registration of self-regulatory organisations and capital market trade associations to which it may delegate its powers”.

On social reporting and transparent disclosures, Part X (Trading in Security), Section 83 states “No person shall make a statement, or disseminate information, which is false or misleading in a material particular and is likely to induce the sale or purchase of the securities by other persons or is likely to have the effect of raising, lowering, maintaining or stabilising the market price of securities if, when he makes the statement or disseminates the information.”

From the list of regulatory agencies and extant legislations discussed above, it is evident that there are enough laws and adequate regulatory agencies established to ensure that the principles of CSR are imbibed by the corporations operating in Nigeria (Raimi et al., 2014). The concepts of social reporting, accounting reporting and environmental reporting are based on theory of responsive regulations (Shamir, 2010), which has systematically turned the corporations and stakeholders into “reporters and report readers” respectively in the global community as depicted by Figure 2.3 below (Global Reporting Initiative, 2013:5).

**Figure 2.4:** Relationship between CSR Reporters, Readers and Regulators



### **2.5: Chapter Summary**

Chapter 2 provided useful information on the strengths and weaknesses of the Nigerian business environment. It has highlighted the impact of deregulation of the telecommunication industry on services, economic growth and employment. The chapter also discussed the different CSR programmes reported by the leading service providers. In addition, relevant laws, which provide legal and sound regulatory backing for CSR, were examined. The chapter concludes that Nigeria has enough regulations of social responsibility, therefore the telecommunication industry is at a vantage position to utilise its CSR investments as support aid for entrepreneurship development.



## CHAPTER THREE

### CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

*“A large corporation these days not only may engage in social responsibility, it had damn well better try to do so” (Samuelson, 1971:24).*

#### **3.0: Introduction**

The last chapter discussed Nigeria’s business, regulatory and telecommunication environment, at the end of which the adoption of the telecommunication industry as a reference point for this research was justified. Chapter three builds on this by exploring the literature for scholarly insights on CSR and its various dimensions. The chapter is organised into twelve sections. Section 3.1 gives an overview of CSR as a contemporary issue of importance. Section 3.2 examines the literature for deeper understanding of the meaning, origin and evolution of CSR. Section 3.3 discusses the two dominant perspectives of CSR (American and European-UK) and modes of social involvement. Section 3.4 critiques the varied definitions of CSR and reclassifies the gamut of CSR definitions into six (6) broad classifications. Section 3.5 discusses the arguments for and against CSR within the purview of two schools of thought. Section 3.6 examines the distinction between CSR and Sustainable Development, and the point of convergence. Section 3.7 discusses CSR through the lenses of Islam, Judeo-Christianity and Traditional African worldviews. Section 3.8 discusses different metrics and measurements of CSR. Section 3.9 examines the common drivers of CSR, and identifies the barriers militating against compliance; while Section 3.10 concludes with a summary of the literature reviewed.

#### **3.1: Overview of CSR**

For meaningful review of literature, two types of literature are essential namely: conceptual work and research work. The former is vital because “it offers opinions, ideas, theories or experiences” of experts in the field being researched, while the latter “gives accounts and results of research which has been undertaken on the subject, and is presented in the form of papers and reports” (Brown, 2006:78). According to the literature explored, the term CSR is a widely debated issue in business management (Blowfield and Frynas, 2005; Smith, 2011). The depth of discussion on CSR can be described as a “motherhood issue” of contemporary times (Ryan, 2002:302); “the talk of the town in corporate circles” (Mees and Bonham, 2004:11) and “the hot business issue of the noughties” among the scholars and practitioners (Blyth, 2005:30). The descriptions of CSR are endless, hence “there seems to be an infinite number of definitions of CSR” in both business and intellectual circles (Thomas and Nowak,

2006:3). CSR got all these descriptions because of the growing demand from diverse interest groups that corporations should be more responsive in fulfilling “economic, social and environmental bottom-line wellness” of their stakeholders (Said, 2011:3), otherwise called triple-bottom line obligations (Haskins, 2009).

In the 1970s, Elbing (1970) described the extensive discourse on CSR as a significant development. With specific reference to Nigeria, the rising interest in CSR is propelled by the concerns for public wellbeing, social exclusion and the threat to the environment posed by flagrant abuse of the ecosystem by multinational oil corporations (MNOCs) operating in the Niger Delta region (Amaeshi et al., 2006; Raimi and Adeleke, 2010). In several oil communities in Nigeria, there are unending oil spillages, pollution, chemical diffusion, gas-flaring and emissions of carbon monoxide into the air, water, onto the land as well as environmentally degrading activities (Olowu, 2010; George and Kuye, 2012, Moen, 2012).

The MNOCs pinpointed as prime culprits of non-compliance with CSR practices profited immensely from the exploitation of energy resources in the abused regions, but left their host communities, animals, flora and fauna in serious environmental danger (Friends of the Earth, 2004; George and Kuye and Onokala, 2012). The phenomenon of insensitivity to the plight of the host communities and environment has been described as Corporate Social Irresponsibility by George et al. (2012) in their exploratory study on conflict in the Niger Delta.

Compliance with CSR, it is widely believed, would douse the turbulence and make the Niger Delta region business friendly (Worika, 2004; Olong, 2012; Jerome, 2012). Other research works (Natufe, 2001; Watts, 2010; Natufe, 2011) confirmed that conflict, vandalism and hostage-taking endured in Nigeria because of lack of concern for the environment by MNCs. Shamir (2005) underscores the importance of CSR in the host community because assisting the community therefore is akin to satisfying all stakeholders. Wilmshurst and Frost (2000) explain that corporations need to be proactive with regards to CSR because neglected host communities have become more aware about their rights and often mount pressure on corporations to be more transparent and open through periodic disclosures in annual reports. Tausif (2012:36) corroborates the need to support the host community for “growth and development of the society” and the attainment of a “higher standard of living” by the stakeholders.

Apart from engendering peace (Nelson, 2000), happenings in the contemporary business world reveal that CSR is beneficial and impactful on long-term sustainability (Sweeney, 2009; Cheung et al., 2009; Said, 2011). Scholars have therefore argued that economic benefits motivated transnational corporations (TNCs) like Chevron, General Electric, Motorola, Microsoft, Vodacom and big indigenous corporations to be actively involved in CSR initiatives in their operational bases, because community engagement (CE) has become a front burner issue (Kotler and Lee, 2005; Jenkins, 2007). The phenomenon of CE through CSR – termed building business linkages (BBLs) – has several benefits, viz: (a) increased employment and wealth creation for local firms and communities; (b) enhanced skills, standards and capacity; (c) access to foreign markets; (d) diversified clients in the market; (e) facilitation of access to credit; (f) risk-sharing through joint funding among other SMEs in the cluster (Jenkins, 2007).

The benefits of CSR as highlighted above were possibly what motivated Bowen (1953) and Frederick (1960) to describe the role of corporations in the society as social responsibilities. Since CSR is a genuine obligation that corporations owe the society, Mordi et al. (2012) identified three modes of expressing social responsibility initiatives, viz: (a) Philanthropic, (b) Economic Support and (c) Compensatory. Operation-wise, the philanthropic mode focuses mainly on “humanitarian and charitable service”; economic support entails provision of amenities and infrastructural facilities for the public; while the compensatory CSR mode is designed as palliatives to compensate and appease host communities that suffer the impact of environmentally-degrading activities of corporations.

### **3.2: Evolutionary Origin of CSR**

For a deeper understanding of the evolutionary origin of CSR, this thesis relies heavily on the article of Carroll (1999) and the exploratory research of Tounés et al., (2011). Both publications demystified the evolutionary origin of CSR. According to Carroll (1999), CSR possesses a “long and varied history”, which could be linked to centuries of noticeable unethical behaviours and misconducts of corporations, leading to agitations and repeated call on the businessmen/industrialists to show more empathy and concerns towards the society. There are different perspectives to the origin of CSR in the literature. This realisation informed Carroll’s (1999: 268) remark that: “...although it is possible to see footprints of CSR thought throughout the world (mostly in developed countries), formal writings have been most evident in the United States, where a sizable body of literature has been accumulated.”

The origin of CSR dated back to the pre-1950s, when activists and proponents articulated the need for corporations to show concern towards society and especially the vulnerable. However, the agitation in favour of CSR became more pronounced in the 1950s through a widely celebrated treatise titled “*Social Responsibilities of the Businessmen*” written by the United States economist Howard Bowen (Carroll, 1999; Ismail, 2009; Roy, 2010; Tounés, et al., 2011).

Having observed the deplorable socio-economic situation in his milieu, Bowen (1953) was of the view that businesses could impact positively on the lives of the society through philanthropic initiatives and social-welfare projects. His historic definition of what he called social responsibilities (SR) reads: “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” (Bowen 1953: 6). For being the most articulate proponent of CSR, Howard Bowen got the appellation “the Father of Corporate Social Responsibility” (Carroll, 1999:270) because of his unique contributions to the refinement and articulation of the concept. Subsequently, Bowen’s (1953) masterpiece aroused the interests of many other theorists and thinkers. One such contributor a few years later was Frederick (1960), who contended that CSR means:

*“...businessmen should oversee the operation of an economic system that fulfils the expectations of the public. And this means in turn that the economy’s means of production should be employed in such a way that production and distribution should enhance total socio-economic welfare. Social responsibility in the final analysis implies a public posture toward society’s economic and human resources and a willingness to see that those resources are used for broad social ends and not simply for the narrowly circumscribed interests”* (Carroll, 1999:60)

The concept grew by the day with contributions from several well-meaning individuals. Epstein<sup>1</sup> (1987) impacted on the development of CSR from the perspective of ethics. He viewed social responsibility as an aspect of business ethics, which kind-hearted businessmen of the nineteenth century described as “private business is a public trust”.

Another perspective to the origin of CSR emanated from Tounés et al. (2011) who established that the Protestant and Catholic groups were instrumental in the emergence of CSR through their philosophies of ‘public service’ and ‘stewardship’. The Catholic group preached to their members, particularly the property owners in industrial society, to imbibe the spirit of selfless service, empathy and contribution to support the society. It was the

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

church's philosophy as enunciated above that inspired ethical consciousness and led to the adoption of social responsibility (Argandona, 2010; Tounés et al., 2011).

For Mintzberg (1983), CSR had long existed as a consciousness to show concern for others in the society, a term widely known among Europeans as 'noblesse oblige', which literarily connotes 'nobility obliges'. The lexicon meaning and root of 'noblesse oblige' indicates that it was a common French notion, used for describing ethical traits and worthy character displayed by a typical country gentleman, especially one who fulfils social obligations to the community (Oxford Dictionary, 2012). The submission from the above discourse is that CSR predated Bowen, rather it has been a noble English value practised by responsive individuals for ages. Bowen got credit for articulating CSR within the business context.

Further exploration of CSR's origin by Ismail (2009) indicates that CSR is an age-long practice traced to the early twentieth century writer Oliver Sheldon (1923) who wrote on the social performance of businesses, by identifying a strong link between social performances of business in the communities and their market performances. Ismail (2009:199) writes: "The pioneer of this view (social performance of businesses), Oliver Sheldon (1923) ...encouraged management to take the initiative in raising both ethical standards and justice in society through the ethic of economizing, i.e. economize the use of resources under the name of efficient resource mobilization and usage. By doing so, business creates wealth in society and provides better standards of living."

Roy (2010:53) remarked that prior to the discovery of CSR in Europe and America; there had existed well developed and established charitable models of giving back to, and showing concerns for, the society. He asserts:

*"The Muslim world had the zakat, a form of religious tax designed to help the poor, long before the U.S. or Europe developed systemic philanthropic responses."*

According to Tounés et al. (2011), opinions differ on the origin of CSR. There are write-ups that traced the earliest proponents of CSR to the Protestants in the United States of America. Other views indicated that Protestantism and Catholicism were instrumental to the emergence of CSR. It was the church's philosophy of public service as taught by the Protestants and Catholics that inspired ethical consciousness and a personal sense of responsibility, which was later called social responsibility. The old doctrine of social responsibility in American society thus started as paternalism among the religious group (Bowen, 1953; Tounés, et al., 2011).

At a stage in the evolution of CSR, some international organisations and rating agencies such as the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Dow Jones Sustainability Indexes (DJSI) and United Nations (UN Global Compact) contributed to the promotion of the ideals of CSR. These organisations joined the debates in a bid to redress the ‘Governance Gap, a situation where public authority abysmally failed to meet the social, economic and environmental expectations in developing countries (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011; Hart, 2012). These international bodies joined the debates on CSR to fast-track economic development thereby closing the governance gaps observed in several nations across the globe. They provided policy direction and indices for governments and multinational corporations on the principles of sustainable development and its application globally (Natufe, 2001, Natufe, 2011).

The position of this thesis is that CSR is a philosophy rooted in ethics held by people across cultures, countries and at different times which spanned several decades (Taneja, et al., 2011). The terms used across cultures for describing CSR differ, but the philosophy remains the same, that corporations should proactively support the social needs of the society.

### **3.3: Perspectives on CSR**

There are divergent perspectives on CSR based on modes of implementation (Amaeshi et al., 2006; Amaeshi et al., 2011), the legal system guiding CSR as well as the degree of strictness with compliance in different countries (Matten and Moon, 2004). In the same vein, CSR differs on an organisational basis because the corporate governance structure differs from one corporation to another (Health and Norman, 2004; Williams and Aguilera, 2008) and there are religio-ideological issues tied to CSR (Brammer et al., 2006; Dasuki, 2008; Roy, 2010). The divergent views on CSR have been classified into two continental perspectives, namely: (a) American perspective of CSR and (b) European-UK perspective of CSR.

The American perspective of CSR is basically the philanthropic model, which entails voluntary participations by corporations in societal programmes that they are favourably disposed to. This perspective is also termed voluntarism. Key proponents of the philanthropic perspectives of CSR in the literature include Bowen (1953), Manne (1972), Carroll (1979), Wartick and Cochran (1985), Wood (1991), Clarkson (1995), Humber (2002). Their common line of thought is that corporations should show philanthropic gestures through donations to societal initiatives voluntarily without being coerced.

In contrast, the European perspective of CSR is basically a citizenship model, which is anchored on the assumption that corporations must have an inclusive policy that integrates socio-environmental concerns into their business model because they are part of the larger society. This perspective of CSR is built on the ideals that corporations apart from their primary goal of profit-maximisation have ethical obligations which include contributing towards the realisation of social welfare and environmental issues (Carroll, 1999; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Snider et al., 2003).

The American and European/UK perspectives of CSR have been re-christened by Matten and Moon (2004), as “explicit and implicit” frameworks respectively. The explicit CSR framework presupposes that corporations in the United States of America and continents that share this ideological posturing on CSR willingly partake in philanthropic initiatives or volunteering programmes like health-care provision, employees’ rights, and environmental protection as part of their CSR policies. The legal requirement for compliance with CSR is less stringent in America relative to what applies in Europe/the UK.

The implicit CSR framework on the contrary is a CSR posture of Europe/the UK, where corporations see their volunteering involvement in socio-environmental programmes as part of their legal responsibilities as a corporate citizen. Researchers contend that in the Europe-UK axis, the legal system assigns to corporations: “an agreed share of responsibility for society’s interests and concerns” (Matten and Moon, 2004: 9).

In view of the above, the issue of CSR is taken seriously in Europe. Luetkenhorst (2004) reported that Europe made CSR compliance a front-burner issue in a number of ways: one, member countries within the European Union agreed to make 2005 a year designated for sensitisation on the practices of CSR; two, the EU initiated landmark policies on CSR and implemented them passionately for the betterment of the society. On the second point, for instance, the United Kingdom appointed a substantive Minister for CSR in the Department for Trade and Industry. France followed by making CSR a binding legal obligation on companies to disclose officially the impact of their CSR programmes in annual reports. The Danish Government established the Copenhagen Centre for CSR research. The Netherlands adopted the French model, requesting corporations to comply with the principles of environmental sustainability and ensure their annual reports reflect philanthropic initiatives in line with the Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises designed by the OECD, to which Netherlands is a signatory (Luetkenhorst, 2004). The implicit framework in vogue in

Europe/the UK motivated the draft 2008 CSR Bill in Nigeria. It was rejected by the business community because of its coercive clauses. According to the National Assembly Journal (2008:1244),

*“[Nigeria’s CSR Bill]...seeks to provide for comprehensive adequate relief to communities which suffer the negative consequences of the industrial and commercial activities of companies operating in their areas. The Bill seeks to create a specific body for the execution of this highly important social responsibility. It also provides for penalty for any breaches of corporate social responsibility.”*

Part III, Section 1, Sub-sections (h) of the 2008 CSR Bill requests corporations to publish annual reports, disclose compliance with social and environmental concerns and earmark not less than 3.5% of their gross annual profit to CSR programmes. The Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA), Organised Private Sector Group (OPSG) and legal experts argued that CSR globally is a voluntary obligation, but making it compulsory through legislation is an additional burden on the business community, which has consistently faced infrastructural deficiency in Nigeria. Furthermore, a coercive CSR violates the principle of self-regulation, creates a disincentive to investment and increases the cost of doing business in Nigeria (Oserogho Associates, 2008; Uba, 2009; Mordi et al., 2012).

In Canada’s mining industry, when CSR compliance through voluntarism and self-regulation failed, the civil societies, NGOs and host communities prevailed on government to make compliance a binding and enforceable obligation like Europe through promulgation of Bill C-300. However, the organised mining industry used the power of lobby and the promise of better commitment to foil the attempt. The Bill C-300 seeks more pragmatic accountability and “punitive measures” for offending corporations (Hart, 2012:6).

### **3.4: Definitions of CSR**

Scholars have engaged in debate for decades on the appropriate definition for CSR (Dasuki, 2008; Crowther and Aras, 2012). Within the global arena, the term CSR is often used to describe business-society relationships. There exist varied nuances for describing CSR in theory and practice, namely: corporate conscience, corporate citizenship, social performance, sustainable responsible business, responsible business (Wood, 1991), triple bottom lines (Haskin, 2009), corporate responsibility (Natufe, 2001) and social responsibility (ISO 26000 Standards; Valmohammadi, 2011). In the same vein, Gholami (2011) adds nomenclatures like corporate social performance, corporate social responsiveness, stakeholder management, and corporate citizenship as synonyms for CSR.



The domain of CSR encompasses social philanthropy (Carroll, 1999; Carroll, 2004; Nelson, 2007). It extends to curtailing the impact of bio-engineering on the environment, sustainability, biodiversity, trust, and legitimacy of corporate behaviours (Crowther and Rayman-Bacchus, 2004; Ismail, 2009; Haskins, 2009). CSR can also be viewed as corporate altruism (Lantos, 2001) and consumer protection, fair trade, green marketing, climate change concerns, social responsible investments (Amaeshi et al., 2006, Natufe, 2011, George, Kuye and Onokala, 2012).

Furthermore, Valmohammadi (2011) includes compliance by corporations with the seven core elements of ISO 26000 standards, viz: organisational governance, human rights, labour practices, the environment, fair operating practices, consumer issues, community involvement and development as part of CSR. Considering the multifaceted scope of CSR as enunciated above, there is no one-style-fits-all definition for the concept, but there is a consensus that CSR connotes demonstration of commitment to the business environment by corporations (Natufe, 2011; Moen, 2012).

According to Sheldon (1923), CSR can be understood as part of the “doctrine of service” as well as the management of social problems like unemployment, industrial conflicts and distribution of prosperity because the basic motive of industry is “service to community” (p.70).

Samuelson (1971) defines CSR as a worthwhile obligation that large corporations in contemporary times should engage in for their own long-term interests. Manne (1972) defined CSR as voluntary spending on society based on the utmost sincerity and not “a conduit for individual largesse” (p.4-6). Besides, CSR has been defined within three contexts: “(a) good neighbourliness, which means to help solve neighbourhood’s problems; (b) the commitment of a business organisation to playing a positive role in solving broad social problems” (Eilbert and Paret, 1973:7). It could also mean corporate behaviour that aligns with prevailing social norms, values, and society’s expectations of performance (Sethi, 1975). To some scholars, CSR is an obligation that boosts productivity and the reputation of corporations (Moskowitz, 1972; Orlitzky, 2003) or enhances financial performance (Abbott and Monsen, 1979; Cochran and Wood, 1984). To Holmes (1976), Fitch (1976), Zenisek (1979) and several other scholars, the term CSR refers to doing business and making a profit, abiding by regulations, helping to solve social problems facing the host communities or the society at large. Social problems are diverse and varied, hence Tuzzolino and Armandi (1981) defined CSR’s diverse needs to be met by corporations, which include physiological,

safety, affiliative, esteem, and self-actualization. Summing up the definitions so far, CSR is perceived as “some actions to serve society beyond selfishness and greed” (Wan, 2006: 178). Furthermore, CSR is a range of corporate responsibilities or actions whose purpose is to meet social needs (Angelidis and Ibrahim, 1993; Balabanis et al. 1998); such corporate actions cover economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic activities (Carroll, 1991).

In spite of the wide support for CSR by scholars, some oppose the varied definitions/shades of meaning (Ismail, 2009). Friedman (1962) vehemently opposed CSR believing it is injurious to the underlining root of capitalism and free enterprise. He argued clearly that “there is one and only one social responsibility of business [...] to increase its profits” (Friedman, 1970:32). Also, Humber, (2002) argued that CSR is a prerogative of the corporation not moral laws forced on business. Therefore, business should be left alone to determine its social responsibilities without external intervention.

From the above, the first insight is that CSR has been described as a range of obligations that build strong relationships between business and society (Snider, Hill and Martin, 2003), and which ultimately confer on corporations good corporate citizenship status (Batten and Birch, 2005). Another major fact that has emerged from the earliest definitions of CSR is that the meaning has been narrowed to philanthropy, whereas the expectations of the society extend beyond mere show of empathy, but rather into sustainable development. It is this gap that prompted new reflections on CSR.

Scholars in modern times perceive CSR in the light of a commitment by corporations to social, economic and environmental wellness of the society. Consequently, their definitions reflect CSR as corporations’ commitments to the concerns of the community beyond the minimum duties prescribed by enabling laws (Enderle and Tavis, 1998; Brønn and Vrioni, 2001). Helg (2007: 7) describes CSR as “the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large”. Similarly, Kotler and Lee (2005) view CSR as a commitment by corporations to improve the wellness and wellbeing of their host communities deploying organisational resources as a discretionary business policy and practice. However, van Marrewijk (2003:236) defines CSR as a voluntary commitment of corporations to the “social and environmental concerns” of their stakeholders. Casting a critical look at the three definitions above, the word commitment is common to all; it is an indication that corporations have a social contract with the society.

They must therefore redeem it by showing greater commitment. A number of corporations reflect the word 'commitment' in their CSR policy. Three instances include:

- Lenovo, a major global PC company, states on its website: "Lenovo is committed to building exceptionally engineered PCs [...] Lenovo is committed to environmental issues [...]" (Lenovo, 2013).
- ZyXEL Communications Corporation states that: "As a member of the global village, ZyXEL is committed to fulfil its responsibility to society and the environment, as well as to supporting the best interests of its stakeholders" (ZyXEL Communications Corporation, 2014).
- The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) states: "Corporate Social Responsibility is the continuing commitment by business to contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the community and society at large" (2000:10).

With the emergence of environmentalists and sustainable development scholars, the definitions of CSR apart from commitment started manifesting in environmental issues and regards for the ecosystem. For instance, Till and Nowak (2000) define CSR as a concern for the environment, or three bottom-line (economic, social and environmental) concerns (Haskins, 1999). Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2011) perceive CSR as a means employed by corporations for managing a balance of economic, environmental and social responsibilities they owe the society. CSR through the environmental lens emphasises better corporate behaviours and extends to curtailing the impact of bio-engineering on the environment, ensuring sustainability/biodiversity, building trust, and eliciting legitimacy from the public (Crowther and Rayman-Bacchus, 2004; Ismail, 2009; Haskins, 2009). The environmental component of CSR is so vital that it forms part of the ten (10) principles of the UN Global Compact, occupying positions 7, 8 and 9. Principle 7 counsels corporations to adopt a precautionary approach to environmental challenges; Principle 8 required corporations to promote greater environmental responsibility; and Principle 9 expects corporations to deploy environmentally-friendly technologies in their operations (UN Global Compact, 2014).

From a strategic cause-related marketing perspective, CSR is a creative relational publicity mechanism for pursuing the strategic goals of enlightened self-interests, reputation enhancement, profit maximization, operational improvement while supporting the society

(Amaeshi, Osuji, and Doh, 2011). Proponents of the strategic CSR perspective place emphasis on corporate involvement that is well integrated into corporate-level strategies for sustained profitability (McWilliams, Siegel, and Wright, 2006; Amaeshi, et al., 2011). According to Baron (2001), strategic CSR represents a notion that corporations operate in a competitive business environment, and to stay afloat and compete effectively, they must strategically link their CSR programmes to sales by targeting socially responsible customers with flair for social issues.

Babiak and Wolfe (2006) view cause-related marketing CSR as a form of strategic CSR designed to enhance competitive edge, build loyalty, meet employee satisfaction, embed trust about prices, create positive reputation/counter negative publicity and lobby public officials. Cause-related marketing CSR is self-funded because corporations offer to take-up specific social causes when customers support the sales and revenue-providing activities of the corporations (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988). Strategic CSR is therefore a corporate involvement with strings attached; it has been described as a PR tool (Sweeney, 2009), smokescreen social responsibility (Mintzberg, 1983; Mintzberg, 1984), green washing/green posturing (Grant, 2007; Szuster, 2008) and a ploy to “distract public attention from other less ethical practices” (Mullerat, 2010: 101).

However, Jamali, and Mirshak (2007: 244) view CSR from a social contract viewpoint as “a set of management practices” that corporations observe in order to meet the “public expectations” beyond the boundaries of the law, while at the same time maximising positive benefits. Mordi et al. (2012:2) uphold similar posture, but from legitimacy viewpoint they view CSR as “the moral obligation to promote viable societal values for the generation of a peaceful atmosphere within a given society.”

Viewed from a stakeholder’s perspective, Sweeney (2009) defines CSR as an obligation that corporations owe all its diverse stakeholders in the business environment. It is also a principle of stakeholder engagement; a novel practice for creating long-term sustainability. This definition accommodates and aligns the rights of multiple stakeholders with business objectives on the basis of their importance, power and legitimacy. It is a common perspective widely adopted in several studies (Obalola, 2008; Smith, 2011; Yekini, 2012). The stakeholder’s perspective of CSR emerged courtesy of Freeman R. Edward and Peter Drucker (Lee, 2008), but the word stakeholder emerged from a 1963 internal document of Stanford Research Institute (Freeman, 2010). To date, academics and practitioners have formulated their CSR definition and policies with stakeholders clearly mentioned (Dahlsrud, 2006).

Several terminologies have evolved from the stakeholder perspective of CSR such as community engagement, stakeholder engagement, stakeholder management etc. A contentious issue in the stakeholder perspective is who is a stakeholder? Why are they stakeholders? And what stakes do they seek from corporations? These questions and several others are debatable issues. Yet, among all the definitions of CSR, the stakeholder perspective is the most popular and widely used (Dahlsrud, 2006; Smith, 2011).

From the developmental viewpoint, CSR is defined as an intervention mechanism for filling the governance gap caused by markets and governance failure in developing nations (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011; Amaeshi et al., 2011). On the basis of the governance gap, Visser (2008:474) defines CSR as: “the formal and informal ways in which business makes a contribution to improving the governance, social, ethical, labour and environmental conditions of the developing countries in which they operate, while remaining sensitive to prevailing religious, historical and cultural contexts.” This intervention perspective of CSR has also been described as political CSR.

Political CSR is an amplification of the private-sector role, or giving an expansive public policy role to corporations, especially MNCs (Windsor, 2006). Scherer and Palazzo (2008) contextualised political CSR as a practice where corporations and civil society groups take on certain roles assigned to the government on account of governance deficits.

Besides, Amaeshi et al. (2011) note that a political perspective on CSR presumes that corporations as private actors and corporate citizens assume some public-sector role in order to complement government efforts where governance mechanisms have failed to meet societal needs and expectations. Two leading proponents of political CSR, Scherer and Palazzo (2011: 901), assert that political CSR is “a new understanding of global politics where private actors such as corporations and civil society organizations play an active role in the democratic regulation and control of market transactions.” This definition, which summarises the previous explanations, underscores the fact that political CSR is a new paradigm (Donaldson, 2010), which has extended its influence to changing people’s attitude, traditional institutions, age long practices and norms in regions where MNCs have influence and control (Donaldson, 2010).

More importantly, emerging issues around the world revealed that corporations have embraced political CSR as a tool for reconciling interest and “conflicts (obvious or perceived) between public and private interests” in the society (Fooks, Gilmore, Collin, Holden and Lee, 2013: 283). Furthermore, some MNCs in developing nations provide

support to oppressive governments through exports of military hardware, bribe politicians or fund elections, and at times negotiate direct sales of ammunitions to governments of developing nations (Leigh and Evans, 2009; Fooks et al., 2013).

From the above discourse, a political CSR is a strategic tool for influencing the behaviour of politicians, building up corporate image, embedding better relationships and boosting the goodwill of corporations among politicians (Beckers, 2012).

The international organisations especially the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), played a frontline role in this direction. At its first stakeholders’ global summit, the WBCSD (2000: 10) came up with a definition that: “[CSR is] continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workers and their families as well as the local community and society at large.” The WBCSD’s definition was criticised as lacking global appeal and excluding the perspectives of developing nations. After consultation with developing countries, 8 new regional-wide definitions of CSR emerged as depicted in Table 3.2 below.

**Table 3.2:** WBCSD Regional-Wide Definitions of CSR

<b>SN</b>	<b>Definition and perspective of CSR</b>	<b>Country</b>
1.	“CSR is about business giving back to society.”	Philippines (Asia)
2.	“CSR is the contribution to the development of natural and human capital, in addition to just making a profit.”	Taiwan (Asia)
3.	“CSR is about taking personal responsibility for your actions and the impacts that you have on society. Companies and employees must undergo a personal transformation, re-examine their roles, their responsibilities and increase their level of accountability.”	United States (North America)
4.	“CSR is about commitment to strive for the best economic development for the community, to respect workers and build their capacities, to protect the environment and to help create frameworks where ethical business can prosper.”	Brazil (Latin America)
5.	“CSR is about a corporation’s ability to respond to social challenges. It starts with developing good relations with neighbours. Companies should make a strong commitment to education, worker rights, capacity building, and job security. CSR is stimulating the economic development of a community.”	Argentina (Latin America)
6.	“CSR is about capacity building for sustainable livelihoods. It respects cultural differences and finds business opportunities in building the skills of employees, the community and the government.”	Ghana (Africa)
7.	“CSR must be locally relevant and meaningful only if backed up by action”	Thailand (Asia)
8.	“CSR is about making a leadership commitment to core values and recognizing local and cultural differences when implementing global policies. It’s about companies endorsing the UN Convention on Human Rights and the ILO Rights at Work.”	Netherlands (Europe)

**Source:** World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2000:9-10)

A critique of the institutional definitions revealed that continental definitions reflected their socio-cultural and economic problems. For instance, corporations in Argentina perceive CSR

as the “ability to respond to social challenges [...] commitment to education, workers’ rights, capacity building, and job security.” CSR is therefore seen as catalyst for embedding economic development. Furthermore, the prevailing socio-economic situations in Africa also manifest in Ghana’s definition. The focus of CSR in Ghana (Africa) is empowerment and capacity-building for the people, the communities, the SMEs as well as obligations to governments. It stresses “business opportunities in building the skills of employees, the community and the government” as the thrust of good CSR practice (WBCSD, 2000: 9). The same view expressed in Ghana’s conceptualisation applies to Nigeria which is the reference point of this study. Nigeria manifests governance deficit caused by institutional and political corruption; abuse of power leading to delegitimisation of all governmental institutions and more importantly endemic poverty scourge (Thompson, 1995; Maier, 2000; and McLoughlin and Bouchat, 2013). The phenomenon of political corruption and fraudulent implementation of policies derailed governance as well as crippled the economy (Ukah, 2007). Based on the diversity in both earliest and modern definitions of CSR, this thesis aligns itself with the submission of Blowfield and Frynas (2005:503) that CSR is “an umbrella term for a variety of theories and practices.”

***Operational Definition:*** The operational definition of CSR as used in this research is the voluntary social investment of corporations spent periodically on social issues, economic issues, environmental management issues, community/national issues and stakeholder management issues for the purpose of enhancing the wellness of the host nations and the people. These five dimensions of CSR have the potency to stimulate development effectively and efficiently than unorganised philanthropic donations. CSR as operationalized above is the developmental-oriented CSR perspective.

The gap in the absence of a universal meaning for CSR encouraged overlapping definitions (Brei and Bohm, 2011), most of which viewed CSR from the European and North American lenses (Idemudia, 2011). In view of the lack of distinct definition and meaning of CSR, this research intends to contribute to the conceptual enrichment of CSR by providing a common meaning of CSR from the Nigerian perspective. It is therefore proposed and hypothesised as follows.

***Proposition 1:*** *The perception of CSR by the stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is large a philanthropic perspective.*

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Stakeholders’ perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication is not a philanthropic perspective.
- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Stakeholders’ perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication is a philanthropic perspective.

### **3.4.1: Classification of CSR Perspectives and Applications**

From the review so far, the understanding of CSR revolves around several perspectives and approaches. Obalola (2010) grouped all the CSR definitional constructs into three broad perspectives, viz: instrumental, normological and embedded perspectives. However, Swanson (1995), Handelman and Arnold (1999) and Hooghiemstra (2000) broadly classified the different meanings of CSR into three perspectives, namely: utilitarian, negative duty and positive duty perspectives. All these six perspectives have been observed in this present work. The six (6) definitional perspectives of CSR identified in the literature are: instrumental, normological, embedded, utilitarian, negative duty and positive duty perspectives. An instrumental perspective views CSR as a mechanism designed by corporations for pursuing economic interests, essentially shareholders' profit-maximisation/value enhancement (Obalola, 2010). Garriga and Mele (2004) describe it as instrument for creating wealth. This is the Strategic CSR.

The normological perspective of CSR is linked to legitimacy theory. It views CSR as an action guided by the prevailing social norms, rules and legal framework acceptable to the society (Obalola, 2010). In other words, corporate behaviours must be in tandem with ethics, standards and codes of conduct set by the society or "playing by the rules of the game" to avert social sanctions (Jamali and Mirshak, 2007:246), and earn "social licence" from the public (Gunningham, Kagan and Thornton, 2002: 6).

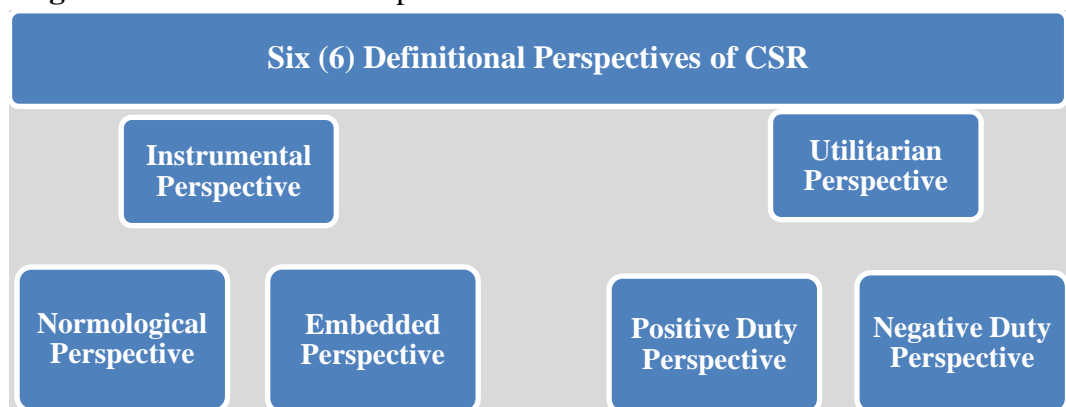
The embedded perspective of CSR attempts to synchronise the two viewpoints above in harmony without conflict (Obalola, 2010). But, Gholami (2011) describes the embedded option as a value creation approach, which entails factoring the interests of the community into business goals without conflict. Jenkins (2007:32) puts it more succinctly, as integrating profit-making business strategy with social goals as hybrid funding models. Emerson (2003) describes an embedded perspective of CSR as "the blended value proposition (BVP)", which means merging social and economic goals for blended return on investment (BROI), which means earning economic returns on investment (ROI) and social returns on investment (SROI). This is the developmental CSR.

Swanson (1995) provides the following explanations for the utilitarian, negative duty and positive duty perspectives. The utilitarian perspective views CSR as a mere instrument designed to aid the financial performance of corporations; it is measured in terms of sales turn-over, level of profitability, return on investment and other financial performance indicators. It is obvious from the explanation above that the utilitarian perspective has the



same basis as the instrumental perspective. The negative duty perspective presupposes that CSR is an obligation carried out by corporations to avoid sanction arising from violation of enabling laws, business norms and desirable societal standards. Negative duty compels corporations to become socially responsible because of fear of the laws and sanctions from the society. This is a reactive corporate behaviour designed to buy legitimacy by pretending to be law abiding (Handelman and Arnold, 1999). The positive duty perspective is a proactive behaviour and value. The perspective is built on the presumption that corporations are self-driven to be socially responsible to the needs of the society. Hooghiemstra (2000) views both the positive duty and negative duty perspectives as mechanisms for impressing the different stakeholders for different motives. Both perspectives form part of management strategy (Ismail, 2009) used as a relational instrument or PR tool (Sweeney, 2009). The six perspectives of CSR are as depicted in Figure 3.1.

**Figure 3.1:** Definitional Perspectives of CSR



With regards to the application of CSR as a corporate strategy, Zadek (2004) classified the CRS applications into a continuum with five learning approaches: defensive, compliant, managerial, strategic and civil. The meanings of these five approaches vary. The defensive approach presumes that it is not the job of corporations to fix social issues but government’s obligation; the compliant approach is a mind-set that corporations should do as much as they can to alleviate social problems of corporate citizens. The managerial approach is a focus on the core business objective; it is a mind-set is that it would not make sense to carry out CSR without making a profit from it. The strategic approach wilfully accepts CSR as an obligation because it gives corporations a competitive edge in the business environment. The civil approach views CSR in business as a worthwhile philosophy: “we need to make sure everybody does it” (Zadek, 2004: 39).

Contrary to the classification above, van Tudler and der van Zwart (2006) classified corporations' application of CSR into four (4) approaches, namely: proactive, active, reactive and inactive approaches. However, they cautioned that "these approaches emerged at different stages of societal development and they are neither mutually exclusive nor do they represent best practice models" (p.143). Table 3.2 below provides concise explanations on van Tudler and der van Zwart's (2006) four approaches.

Unlike previous scholars, Iamandi (2011:28-29) reviewed existing CSR approaches and came up with four strategies: Stakeholder, Altruistic, Reciprocal and Citizenship. The stakeholder strategy is a reactive strategy used for responding to claims of stakeholders. The altruistic strategy is a compensatory strategy used as palliatives for collateral damage done to the environment. The reciprocal strategy is a proactive strategy used as a mutually beneficial contract between business and society. The citizenship strategy is an integrative strategy used by the corporation based on the conviction that it must fulfill its obligations as a citizen in the society.

**Table 3.2.:** Four Comprehensive Approaches of CSR Applications

<b>Approach</b>	<b>Inactive</b>	<b>Reactive</b>	<b>Active</b>	<b>Proactive</b>
<b>Policy Thrust</b>	'Corporate self-responsibility'	'Corporate social responsiveness'	'Corporate social responsibility'	'Corporate societal responsibility'
<b>Programmes</b>	Inside-in	Outside-in	Inside-out	In/outside-in/out
<b>Ethics</b>	'Doing things right'	'Don't do things wrong'	'Doing the right things'	'Doing the right things right'
<b>Desired outcome</b>	'Doing well'	'Doing well and doing good'	'Doing good'	'Doing well by doing good'
<b>Mindset</b>	'Just do it'	'Just don't do it'	'Do it just'	'Just do it just'
<b>Score card</b>	Efficiency	Efficiency	Equity/Ethics	Effectiveness
<b>Motivation</b>	Utilitarian motive: profit maximisation	Negative duty approach: quarterly profits and market capitalisation	'Positive duty' or 'virtue based': values (long-term profitability)	Interactive duty approach: medium-term profitability and sustainability
<b>Attitude</b>	Indifference	Compliance	Integrity	Discourse ethics
<b>Operational model</b>	Business and Society Management	Business and Society Management	Business in Society Management	Business-Society Management
<b>Legitimacy</b>	'Trust me'	'Trust me'	'Prove it to me'	'Involve/engage me', 'join me'

**Source:** van Tulder and van der Zwart (2006: 161, 361, 366), Dudovskiy (2012)

Another study by Porter and Kramer (2011) compressed the known classifications into two, namely: Responsive CSR and Strategic CSR. Responsive CSR entails behaving as a good

corporate citizen and mitigating harm from production/value chain activities. Strategic CSR is acting to maintain a clear lead in a way that is different from the competitors with a view to having positive cost-reduction impact on the customers.

Streaming all the classifications as discussed above, there are fourteen (14) overlapping CSR applications, namely: Defensive approach, Compliant approach, Managerial approach, Strategic approach, Civil approach, Proactive Approach, Active Approach, Reactive Approach, Inactive Approach, Responsive CSR, Stakeholder Strategy, Altruistic Strategy, Reciprocal Strategy and Citizenship Strategy. The basic thrust of the various classifications is the intent of CSR. Prevalent intents for CSR include reputation-building, competitive advantage, brand loyalty, government patronage, positive rating from local and global CSR monitors, profit maximization, green washing etc.

### **3.5: Schools of Thought: Argument for and against CSR**

There are several arguments for and against social involvement within a capitalist free market system. Diverse opinions on CSR fall within two schools of thought – those who favour CSR and those who are against social involvement (Sweeney, 2009; Obalola, 2010; Yekini, 2012). According to Brønn and Vrioni (2001: 208), the debates on CSR hang within the domains of two schools of thought, viz: the free market and the socially-oriented proponents. Carroll (1999) identified Friedman (1970) as the leader of the former, while the socially-oriented group is led by Paul Samuelsson (1971). The antagonists, mostly aligned their views on Smith-Friedman's logic, that in a genuine capitalist free market economy, the primary responsibility of corporate businesses is profit maximisation and nothing more (Lantos, 2001; Kakabadse et al., 2005). This school believes that imperfections in the market economy and emerging social problems should be addressed by the governments and not corporations; and “that when business is free to pursue profits and efficiency, it eventually benefits the common good, i.e. it serves both its interests and those of society at best” (Kakabadse et al., 2005: 277).

The antagonists of CSR align with Milton Friedman's anti-CSR position that any responsibility beyond building shareholders' wealth undermines the foundation of capitalism (Friedman, 1962). And that the only social responsibility of corporations is profit-making (Friedman, 1970).

The protagonists, on the other hand, believe that emerging social problems like poverty, recession, environmental degradation, unemployment, and need for better community

relations fall within the social concerns and ethical responsibilities of corporate businesses as corporate citizens (Utting, 2005; Jenkins, 2005). The market failure arguments and inability of the states to cater for all welfare needs of the public were the key arguments of the protagonists (Bowen, 1953; Frederick, 1960; Sweeney, 2009; Charitoudi, et al., 2011; Porter and Kramer, 2011; Tausif, 2012). Further justification for intervention by the corporations is linked to the efficiency of the private sector at optimising the use of resources, better than the public sector (McFalls 2007; Blowfield and Murray, 2008).

One of the leading supporters for CSR, Samuelson (1971) advised that it is better, desirable and in the good interest of corporations to imbibe the practice of CSR for long-term sustainability. Despite the argument advanced by Samuelson, the debates raged.

Scherer (2009) sheds light on the antagonism for CSR from the governance and legal viewpoints. He noted that despite the market failure argument advanced by proponents of CSR, the issue of social involvements are outside the legal domain of corporate business, and do not in any way impact on profitability. Involvement violates the terms of their engagements under the agency theory of corporate governance. Similarly, Baker (2008) opposes social involvement on the grounds that businesses are owned by private individuals, whose motive for buying shares is good return on investments; therefore putting their funds into non-profit yielding endeavours constitutes theft and should not be condoned under any pretext. This argument aligns with the views of Friedman (1962) and Sternberg (2009) expressed above. Another resentment of the opponents against CSR in whatever form is that, corporations have contributed to development through taxes, job creation and delivery of goods and services to the society and the people asking for more through CSR is dragging businesses into responsibilities that are misplaced (Economist, 2008; Newell and Frynas, 2007).

On the other hand, Brammer et al. (2012:6) argue that CSR is desirable because “Corporations have a decisive impact on outcomes of employment, consumption, environmental quality, social inequality and a host of other issues. The influence of corporations penetrates into the very fabric of modern cultural understandings and practices.” Sternberg (2009) explains that CSR attracts antagonism because opponents view social involvement as violation of the human rights of owners of capital. To the opponents, CSR is conceptually incoherent, unworkable with the capitalist governance structure, and unjustified.

It has further been argued that CSR is a tacit cover-up of executive scandals because foremost TNCs flagging CSR initiatives have several cases of irresponsible conducts “such as deceiving customers, swindling investors, exploiting and even brutalizing employees, putting consumers at risk, poisoning the environment, cheating the government” (Campbell 2007:947). Engagement in CSR is therefore a strategy used by corporations to cover externalities, excesses and protect profits. This is the phenomenon called window dressing or green washing (Baker, 2008; Idemudia, 2008; Scherer, 2009).

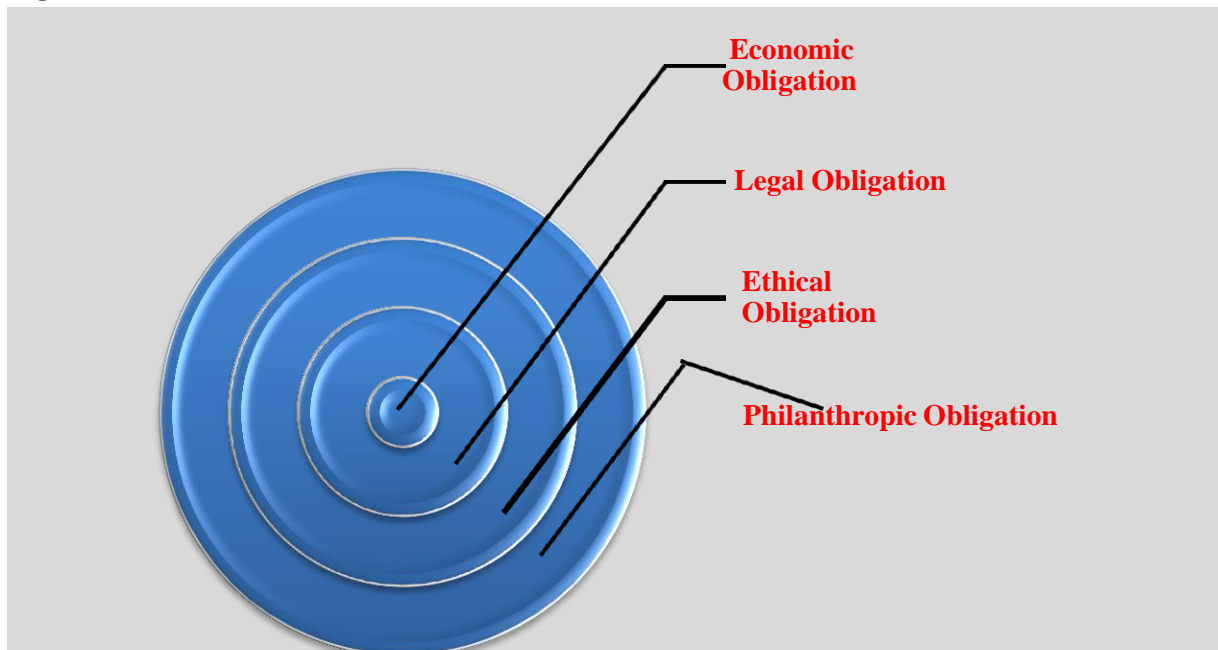
Karnani (2010) argues that the idea that it is the duty of corporations to address social ills is diversionary and flawed based on three groundings, which he termed “illusion, reality and danger”. It is an illusion to presume that because corporations act in the public interest through CSR they are corporately responsible to the society; rather the reality is that corporations take up social programmes as drivers of high profitability for their shareholders. The danger in encouraging corporations to take up social programmes is to divert government’s attention from its core functions. It is not the function of corporations to solve social problems, but government’s statutory obligation as well as politicians. Therefore there is no wisdom in spending time and money on social activities that would not boost profitability at the end of the day (Baker, 2008). The antagonists note further that CSR has become a moral obligation forced on the corporations whereas social obligations ought to be left to the voluntary discretion of every corporation (Humber, 2002).

Protagonists argued further that CSR is a potent tool that corporations can use for achieving their long-term goals and economic objectives. Similarly, Luetkenhors (2004:3) explains that CSR has proven to be “a defensive mechanism for avoiding financial losses, a tool for protecting image/reputation, a pro-active cost-benefit-calculus that ensures financial gains from productivity improvements and a potent corporate strategy that enhances brand equity, organizational learning, innovation and technology management.”

Furthermore, it is argued that CSR has become an ethical obligation that corporations discharge without being pressured because it gives legitimacy to corporations as corporate citizens. Tausif (2012) contends that CSR represents evidence of positive contributions to their host communities in line with societal rules and norms. Natufe (2011:19) notes that CSR has emerged as a norm backed by surveys from corporations which revealed that CSR is “one of the five key drivers of the Enterprise of the Future.” The inevitability of CSR prompted Carroll to frame four (4) business responsibilities, which include: economic, legal,

ethical and philanthropic” (Carroll (1999: 289). Figure 3.2 below depicts the corporation’s four responsibilities as good corporate citizens.

**Figure 3.2:** Carroll’s Four Levels of CRS



**Source:** Adapted from Carroll (1999:289)

Figure 3.2 above, highlights four (4) levels of corporate responsibilities. The first level is economic responsibility, which describes the primary motive of corporations as commercial profitability to meet owners’ expectations. The second level is legal responsibility, which presumes that corporations must act responsibly within the ambit of the enabling laws and norms in their operating environment. The third level is ethical responsibility, which states that enabling laws and ethical standards should be respected while making profit. The last level is philanthropic responsibility, which expects corporations to impact on the wellbeing of the society at large through palliatives, donations to schools, health centres, clubs, sports association etc.

### **3.6: CSR as a Sustainable Development Agenda**

There is a debate in the literature on the relationship between CSR and sustainable development (SD). The relationship between the two nuances is complementary rather than competitive (Natufe, 2011; Hart, 2012). CSR addresses triple bottom-line issues – economic, social and environmental wellness (Haskins, 2009), while the three pivotal pillars of sustainable development as contained in the guidelines on SD upheld by WBCSD, OECD and the European Commission are wealth generation, environmental improvement and social

responsibility (Natufe, 2011). Looking at the imperatives of both CSR and SD, it is apt to submit that CSR is a tool for conveying the ideals of SD to corporations. Therefore, CSR can best be conceptualised as the application of the ideals and philosophy of SD by corporations in their operational environment (Tounés, et al., 2011; Natufe, 2011).

Another argument for the integration of SD and CSR is the need to make the threats to ecosystem sustainability real, thereby eliciting sympathy and cooperation from diverse actors in the global arena, because SD is a shared responsibility (Capron and Quairel, 2004). Tounés, et al. (2011) note that CSR is deeply connected with SD on the grounds that CSR is just a process of integrating social and environmental objectives of sustainable development with economic objectives of businesses. Besides, Bardelli and Pastore (2006) capture the integration of SD and CSR better, describing the synchronisation as an indirect technique of legitimising all the socio-economic and environmental obligations embedded in the agenda of SD.

According to Salman (2005:2) the integration of SD and CSR is a restoration of legitimacy because non-compliance by corporate organisations with ideals of SD portends economic, social and ecological risks, as well as risk associated with corporate image and reputations. More explanations on SD may provide additional insights.

The term sustainable development (SD) refers to a comprehensive development strategy which addresses socio-economic and environmental needs of the present generation and, which by design would not endanger nor compromise the needs of upcoming generation (Steurer et al., 2005; Nagesha and Subrahmanya, 2006; Adebakin and Raimi, 2012). The above thoughts align with the definition of SD provided by the World Commission on Environment and Development (2000). The body asserts that SD is a “[...] development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (p.43). But, Sagay et al. (2011:17) defined sustainable development as a process where the natural resource endowment of a nation is being utilised in a manner that is free from deterioration. Another meaning of SD is a resources utilisation method that gives the people long-term tripartite progress: economic, social and environmental progress (Tounés et al., 2011)

The historical study by Tounés et al. (2011) revealed that SD has global outreach and was the first concept to emerge, while CSR which later emerged has organisational domain. SD was officially adopted in 1992 by the Rio conference as a working concept for articulating global concern on the environment, abuse and threat to the ecosystem. The abuse of the environment

continued in the workplaces (micro-economic level) in the forms of absence of health & occupational safety measures, massive pollution, diverse discrimination, poor conditions of work and terms of employment etc. It thus became necessary to transfer the ideals of SD to industrial societies, in a manner that would be acceptable and adaptable to business objectives. The refinement of SD to suite the usage of the industrial community led to the application of CSR within the organisational context unlike SD which has national and global scope (Capron and Quairel, 2004; Salmon, 2005; Bardelli and Pastore, 2006).

In line with the thought above, Steurer et al. (2005:264) made a fine synergy between SD and CSR and the contextual usage of both nuances in the business environment. They conclude that:

*“SD is a well-known societal guiding model that asks for the integration of economic, social and environmental issues in all societal spheres and levels in the short- and long-term. Consequently, the concept ought to be pursued by everybody in a variety of ways. When it comes to the corporate context, two frequently analyzed ways are environmental and social policies on one hand, and respective management systems like EMAS, ISO14001, or SA 8000 on the other.”*

The standpoint of this research is that SD and CSR are historically connected, and can be used interchangeably with caution depending on contexts. SD as advocated by international agencies, therefore, is a macro or global visioning, while the sustainability which corporations talk about is a micro construct which focuses on business sustainability. Therefore, for a nation, the term SD is applicable, while for corporations the term CSR applies.

### **3.7: CSR, Religions and Traditional African Philosophies**

This section explores CSR from religious and African philosophical angles. Exploring a nexus between CSR and religion is justified because contemporary religion is becoming a potent tool used by governments across the world to elicit support for policies and for shaping people’s worldviews (Tucker and Grimm, 2001; Raimi, 2012). Brammer, et al. (2006:3) note that “the Interfaith Centre on Corporate Responsibility has been established and has made substantial progress in its agenda of sensitising business communities on the imperatives of CSR, thereby eliciting compliance through the “power of persuasion backed by economic pressure from consumers and investors to hold corporations accountable” for their actions and abuses. The inter-faith project had codified “shared moral, ethical and spiritual values” of Christianity, Islam, and Judaism which provide a theological basis for CSR, as well as “serve as guidelines for international business behaviour” across the globe (Interfaith Declaration, 1993: 2). A review of the traditional African perspective of CSR is



vital to know the mainstream philosophical basis of social responsibility from the Nigerian-African environment in order to situate properly corporate behaviour within their foundational beliefs/ideals found in the continent. This method is otherwise called ‘the principle of coherence’ or ‘the theory of justification’ in philosophy (Thagard, 2000; Moser, 2002).

### **3.7.1: Judeo-Christianity and CSR: Any link?**

There is no controversy on the link between Judeo-Christianity and CSR, as Anglo-Saxon literature situated well the contributions of the Church to the emergence of CSR in the pre- and post-industrial period. Tounés et al. (2011) proposed two views: one, that the earliest proponents of CSR were the Protestants in the United States of America; and, two, that both Protestantism and Catholicism shared the credit. They preached the religious philosophies of ‘public service’ and ‘stewardship’, imploring the elites to contribute part of their wealth for the collective well-being of the society. It was the church’s philosophy that inculcated ethical consciousness among business owners. Even Bowen (1953) noted that CSR draws from the old doctrine of social responsibility in American society called paternalism, a common nuance among the religious groups. Judeo-Christian ethics or social views like public service, paternalism and selfless service have been shaped by the historical realities in the scriptures (Old and New Testaments). For instance, John Howard Yoder, is credited with the religious statement “our responsibility is to be faithful, not successful” in worldly pursuits (Niebuhr<sup>2</sup>, 1941: 52-67).

Similarly, Wogaman (1993) reported from his study of Judeo-Christianity that ethics emerged from the scripture (Bible) and traditions of the Hebrew. For instance, warnings to the faithful against indulgence, the evil of worldliness (Roman 8: 7-8), goodness to all, true worship and the uplifting of the spirit (John 4:24), the danger of gaining the whole world at the expense of one’s life as well as admonition that worldly people are devoid of spirit (Jude 19) are all scriptural. Success in the world through love for others, brotherhood, empathy, selfless service to fellow humans is far superior to business success. More importantly, Wilson (2009) submits that Judeo-Christian ethics defines success and the opposite of success. It underpins success on public service, doing of good, love for thy neighbour and shunning the evils of covetousness, which is rampant in business. Wilson (2009:35) cautions that:

*“Success (for the faithful) is not measured in terms of material goods or money but authentic identification of the good – equity through charitable love, and sacrifice for the other, a higher standard of love. Charitable love can be correlated with equality of the liberties and access to them. Sacrificial love presents a higher standard.”*

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<sup>2</sup> Taken from Wilson (2009)

Finally, it could be affirmed that the traditions of Judeo-Christianity supported the emergence of social responsibility during the period of industrialism in Europe and America where social services gained prominence.

### **3.7.2: Islam and CSR: Any link?**

For Islam, there is a gap to be filled attempting to explore eclectic literature to justify a link between Islam and CSR. At present, scholars have written several articles on the link and the appropriateness of CSR from the Shari'ah Law and Islamic management viewpoints (Al-Qardawi, 2000; Sardar, 2003; Dusuki, 2008; Raimi et al., 2014) as well as from the viewpoints of Ethics of Islam (Brammer et al., 2006; Mohammed, 2007; Taman, 2011). The growing acceptability of CSR by Islamic ideologues is not unconnected with CSR's alignment with the concept of Zakat, a compulsory levy or tithe payable by faithful Muslims annually at the rate of 2.5% from excess incomes/wealth (often called the Zakatable amount) benchmarked by Islamic law at 20 Dinar worth of gold or 200 Dirham worth of silver (Doi, 1990; Raimi et al., 2010). An organised zakat system is embedded as a pillar of the religion for the purpose of empowerment and creating social justice in Muslim societies and non-Muslim societies (Scott, 1985; Weiss, 1986, Jawad, 2009). CSR is therefore akin to Zakat because both address social, economic and environmental concerns of the community. The voluntary aspect of the zakat system is called Sadaqat. This is the type that perfectly fits CSR (Raimi et al., 2013).

Another reason for the acceptability of CSR in Islamic literature is because the Muslim community (Ummah) holds ethical responsibility like charity, alms, and donations sacrosanct. Besides, there are ethical provisions in Islamic jurisprudence serving as a regulatory framework for businesses, or what people otherwise call the dos and don'ts of business transactions (Wilson, 2001; Dusuki, 2008). Taman (2011) added that there is an avalanche of empirical findings that established a strong link between religion and ethical issues in the fields of economics and business management.

Further justification from Brammer et al. (2006) indicates that religious people tend to base their day-to-day decision-making on ethical considerations and are more socially responsible. Put differently, embedding CSR within the faith-based system has the potency of solving the challenges of evasion and non-compliance by corporations owned by Muslims, because CSR will be built on ethical and theological foundations of the Laws of God. Non-compliance will therefore be viewed as "an affront to God's will, with all the attendant consequences in this world and in the Hereafter." (Dusuki, 2008: 22).

From the above discourse, the standpoint of Islamic jurists and theorists is that CSR is not at variance with Islam because there is permissibility for extra ethical levies on Muslims and corporations beyond the obligatory Zakat (Al-Qardawi<sup>3</sup>, 2000). The theological basis for Zakat is contained in the statement of Allah (God). He instructs:

*“Take Sadaqah (alms) from their wealth in order to purify them and sanctify them with it, and invoke Allah for them.”* (Qur’an 9: 103).

Furthermore, Al-Qardawi (2000) explained that there are several instances of responsive individuals, who sought clarity on how they can assist the society or help alleviate poverty with their surplus wealth for which approval was given. This is because Islamic society is based on the principles of cooperation, empathy and care for others. Non-compliance, poor compliance, neglects and default with regard to social concerns are viewed as sinful.

Al-Qardawi (2000:243) substantiates thus:

*“... Neglecting this obligation, amounts to basic deviation from this religion and its teachings....A man from the tribe of Tamim once came to the Prophet (SAW) and said, “O Messenger of God, I am a man with plenty of wealth, big family, and I am well-established. Tell me, how should I spend, and what should I do?” The Prophet (SAW) said, “Pay your Zakah, for it is a purifier that cleanses you. Extend aid to your kindred, and know and fulfil the right of he who asks, the neighbour, and the indigent”* (Abu Daud, cited by Al-Qardawi, 1968).

From the above, Taman (2011) concludes that the concept of CSR, its ideals and principles are all consistent with Islamic jurisprudence from the standpoint of the verdict (fatwa) passed by Islamic scholars. To strengthen the position of Al-Qardawi (2000), Kamali (1989) explained that Islam is flexible and permits adaptation on social issues like commerce or economics, improving methods of trading and other mundane acts (except rituals of worship). The adaptation is imperative because socio-economic and political issues change with time, context and space. Dusuki (2008) also expressed the same view, but added that faith in Allah underpins all economic activities of Muslims.

CSR often finds acceptability from Muslim businesses and managers with fear of Allah because every economic activity of Muslims is situated within the framework of worship and service. By extension, fulfilling the obligation of CSR and empathy of the society becomes a rewardable social action for corporate businessmen and entrepreneurs (Dusuki, 2008). Allah says:

*“And render to the kindred their due rights, as (also) to those in want, and to the wayfarer: But squander not your wealth in the manner of a spendthrift. Verily*

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<sup>3</sup>Fiqh al Zakah - Comparative Study of Zakah, Regulations and Philosophy In The Light Of Qur’an and Sunnah Volume II (Translated).

*spendthrifts are brothers of the Evil Ones; and the Evil One is to his Lord (himself) ungrateful.Q17:24-25.*

From the mainstream Islamic viewpoints as discussed above, the position of this thesis is that CSR is a voluntary duty like the charity called Sadaqah; it is an act of empathy carried out by socially responsive individuals and groups as an act of worship with the mindset of pleasing Allah and giving back to the society.

### **3.7.3: Traditional African-Nigerian Perspective of CSR**

The African-Nigerian perspective of social responsibility has been explored by scholars in their quest to unveil indigenous African ethical practices (Mbigi and Maree, 1995; Elkin, and Strach, 2002; Jackson, 2004; Amaeshi et al., 2006; Helg, 2007, Ajadi, 2012). Helg (2007) explores Nigerian-African ideals such African Renaissance, Ubuntu and Omoluwabi which provide support for CSR. Other exploratory works found that traces of social responsibility are visible in the ethno-religious beliefs and the culture of charity prevalent among Africans (Amaeshi et al., 2006). The communal solidarity in Africa is also built on selfless services, personal sense of responsibility and zeal to serve parents, relations, friends and community at large (Anababa, 1979; Fajana, 2000).

In the case of African Renaissance, several scholars are of the view that it is synonymous with the principles of CSR. African Renaissance is an ideological posture made popular in 1994 by former President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, during the first post-apartheid presidential election. He passionately advocated the need for Africans to be their brothers' keepers and the need to resolve the continent's socio-economic and political problems utilising the age-long African ideals (Helg, 2007; Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). He exported the AR philosophy to the United Nations, when invited to deliver a speech in 1998. According to Mbeki (1998, summary of paragraphs 40 -53):

*"[African Renaissance aimed at]...genuine liberation of the peoples of Africa...We must discharge our responsibilities to ourselves, future generations and the world with regard to the protection of the environment, cooperating with all nations to meet what is, after all, a common challenge.... improvement of the conditions of life of the peoples of Africa but also the extension of the frontiers of human dignity to all humanity."*

Jackson (2004) views African Renaissance as a post-colonial ideal and a reactive management perspective with roots in African culture, which Africa can offer the global community. Another insight into CSR in Africa is Ubuntu. There is unanimity that Ubuntu is an empathy with root in the languages of Zulu and Xhola of South African extractions (Helg, 2007; Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). Like African Renaissance, the ideological foundation of Ubuntu is the need for people of African descent to be concerned about the

wellbeing of their fellow Africans. In other words, be their brothers' keepers when it comes to socio-economic obligations begging for attention and support (Mbigi and Maree, 1995; Helg, 2007). Using the words of Helg (2007:44), the term Ubuntu means "humanity towards others" and "the belief in a universal bond of sharing that connects all humanity" together. Ubuntu is founded on six core values, viz:

- a) Group solidarity (that is, all age groups/associations work in teams for mutual benefits),
- b) Conformity (that is, every individual must align with norms, mores, rules and regulation),
- c) Compassion (that is, every individual must have empathy for fellow mortals),
- d) Respect (individuals must give regards to fellow humans and traditions),
- e) Human dignity (freedom, liberty and self-esteem)
- f) Collective unity.

The focus of Ubuntu, like CSR, is the utmost concern for humanity, community, society, and people living therein as well as their traditional norms/values. Elkin and Strach (2002:11) describe Ubuntu succinctly as the: "African belief that a person becomes human through other people (umuntu ungumuntu ngabantu)." Another description of the meaning by Mbigi and Maree (1995:41) is "I am because We are." It is therefore, a philosophical quote that exalts collectivism above individualism.

The last African-Nigerian perspective on CSR is the concept of 'Omoluwabi' from the South-West of Nigeria. Omoluwabi is purely a Yoruba philosophical term used for describing the worthy character possessed by an individual, group and nation (Helg, 2007; Dartey-Baah, and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). According to Omoluwabi Social Cultural Group (2010: para. 1-2), the term Omoluwabi emanates from an age-long "Yoruba language that describes an individual, male or female, that possesses [enviable] qualities [such as) Hardwork; Honesty; Integrity; Fairness; Egalitarianism; Respect for Elders and Constituted Authority; and Fear of God." In all there are seven core attributes of Omoluwabi. These cherished traits are expected to guide the actions and inactions of people, groups and nations.

Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2011) describe the seven dimensions and attributes of the Omoluwabi construct as values and concepts which are evolving and developing. However, when critically viewed in line with the present discourse, the concept of Omoluwabi is highly relevant. The proponents seek to develop and reinvent the Omoluwabi ideals "to contribute to the good, progress and development of the Yoruba nation [...] to

influence the landscape through activities that will foster unity amongst the Yoruba nation and enhance economic growth of our people irrespective of location” where they may live (Omoluwabi Social Cultural Group<sup>4</sup>, 2010).

At global level, Ajadi (2012) notes that Omoluwabi is the reconstruction of organised indigenous principles, values and traditional codes as development paradigms considering the vantage position of Nigeria, its population and status in the world. Omoluwabi as a management construct emphasises renewal of trust, cooperation as a way of building an efficient and effective world-class management system hinged on indigenous foundational principles otherwise called Africanisation.

### **3.8: Measurement of the Effectiveness of CSR**

The failed attempts at finding an acceptable definition for CSR shifted emphasis to its measurement (Charitoudi et al., 2011). The resolve to develop measurements for CSR is justified by the quotation of H. James. Harrington<sup>5</sup>. Harrington (1987: 103) affirms:

*“Measurement is the first step that leads to control and eventually to improvement. If you can’t measure something, you can’t understand it; if you can’t understand it, you can’t control it; if you can’t control it, you can’t improve it”.*

Based on Harrington’ remark, scholars have designed and used different CSR measurements and indexes in their studies. Broadly, there are financial measurements (quantitative metrics/indicators) and non-financial measurements (qualitative metrics/indicators). Both have their obvious limitations in theory and practical application (Charitoudi et al., 2011).

There are several CSR measurements because countries have peculiar performance metrics that fit their socio-economic landscape (Vogel, 2005), as such measurement of CSR performance should be a national concern because of obvious differences in socio-cultural, economic and political situations (Gjølberg, 2009).

Furthermore, Gholami (2011) explained that researchers, practitioners and global rating agencies have consistently used three types of CSR measurements. The first type is a specialist measurement (SM) called the researcher’s measurement. SM entails evaluation of corporate policies on CSR by collecting information on routine and non-routine activities of corporations with regards to social programmes/projects within defined periods. The second measurement is a content analysis (CA), which entails an examination of annual reports and other documents of corporations to determine the degree of CSR involvement/disclosures.

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<sup>4</sup>Omoluwabi Social Cultural Group is a Pan-Yoruba Socio-Cultural Organization in Nigeria.

<sup>5</sup> Culled from Charitoudi et al. (2011: p.449)

This is an accountant's measurement. The third measurement is an environmental impact assessment (EIA). The EIA measures corporations' 'performance on pollution control', protection of the ecosystem and operational environment. This is an environmentalist's measurement. From previous studies, Table 3.5 provides some of the common measurements of CSR that have been used over time for social responsibility rating and empirical studies.

**Table 3.5: Spatio-Temporal Analysis of CSR Measurements**

<b>SN</b>	<b>CSR Measurement &amp; Variables</b>	<b>Proponents</b>
1.	<b>Social Indicators (SIs):</b> This qualitative measurement was adapted from economics as metrics for measuring CSR. The indices of SIs according to the proponent include: employment of minority groups, pollution control, community development, health & safety, welfare services	Backman (1975)
2.	<b>Stock Market Price Behaviour:</b> This observed the behaviour of stock market price or periodic rating as measurement of corporation's CSR performance.	Bowman and Haire (1975)
3.	<b>Reputational Index (RI):</b> This qualitative measurement evaluates the degree of CSR compliance using three rating parameters: outstanding, honourable mention and worst corporations.	Moskowitz (1972)
4.	<b>Social Involvement Disclosures:</b> This qualitative measurement evaluates CSR with six broad elements, viz: environment, equal opportunity, personnel, community involvement, products, and other miscellaneous activities reported by corporations in their reports.	Abbott and Monsen (1979)
5.	<b>Economic, Legal, Ethical and Discretionary Index:</b> This is an index with four (4) indicators, viz: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary. They measure the degree of corporation's commitment to the society.	Carroll (1979)
6.	<b>Maslow Hierarchy of Needs (MHN) Index:</b> This is a modified Maslow's hierarchy of needs reinvented as qualitative measurement of CSR. The parameters of the MHN include physiological, safety, affiliative, esteem and self-actualization needs of corporations.	Tuzzolino and Armandi (1981)
7.	<b>Corporate Social Responsibility Matrix:</b> This is a continuum of two-by-two measurement matrix. The matrix has four descriptive elements, viz: illegal, legal (upper matrix), irresponsible and responsible (lower matrix).	Dalton and Cosier (1982)
8.	<b>Reputational Index (RI):</b> This is a qualitative measure adopted from Moskowitz's (1975) measurement. RI assesses the level of responsiveness of corporations to social issues.	Cochran, P. and Wood, R. (1984)
9.	<b>Economic, Legal, Ethical, and Discretionary Obligations:</b> This is a measurement designed to evaluate the impact of economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary obligations on profitability of corporations. It was first developed and used in 1979 by Carroll.	Aupperle, Carroll and Hatfield, J. D. (1985)
10.	<b>Equilibrium Theory Analysis:</b> This theoretical measurement was adopted from demand and supply analysis in economic theory. It assumes that social supply is the 'corporate social actions' of corporations, while social demand is the 'social needs' of the vulnerable community. Corporations therefore provide satisfaction by responding to social needs using CRS programmes.	Angelidis and Ibrahim (1993) programmes.
11.	<b>Social, Environmental and Public Reporting:</b> In the study of Verdal Industrial Park's CSR compliance, researchers used social actions, environmental behaviour and public reporting as indicators. It has eighteen (18) questions that covered four (4) areas, viz: social actions towards employees, social actions towards local community, environmental activities and public reporting of social responsibility.	Haskins (2009)
12.	<b>ISO 26000 Standard (ISO Index):</b> This is an international measurement with seven (7) core elements for evaluating the degree of compliance by firms with operational standards and social responsibility. It was adopted in Iran for evaluating CSR compliance. The seven assessment metrics include organisational governance, (i) human rights, (ii) labour practices, (iii) the environment, (iv) fair operating practices, (v) consumer issues, (vi) community involvement and (vii) development.	(Valmohammadi, 2011).
13.	<b>Dow Jones Sustainability Group Indexes:</b> This international index contains CSR principles and best practices on sustainability. It has been adopted by world-class	DJSI Press Release (2013: 1; Natufe,

	companies across 68 industries and 22 nations. DJSGI prescribes five (5) sustainability principles as measurement of CSR. These include technology, governance, shareholders, industry and society.	2001; Natufe, 2011)
14.	<b>CSR Benefit Index:</b> This index is a financial performance measurement for appraising the benefits that would accrue to socially responsible corporations. The four (4) indicators of CBI include: (i) ‘employee (attraction, motivation and retention), (ii) customer attraction & loyalty, (iii) reputation, and (iv) access to capital’ from financial institution.	Sweeney (2009: 3)
15	<b>Sustainability Reporting Guidelines:</b> This is a global index developed by Global Report Initiatives (GRI) for measuring CSR disclosures and compliance with the ideals of sustainable development (Charitoudi et al., 2011). The goal of sustainability reporting guidelines is to ensure that corporations play a crucial role in the society by focusing on the socio-economic needs of stakeholders (GRI, 2011). SRG was used by Charitoudi et al. (2011) for measuring impact of CSR on financial performance of 110 UK firms. SRG has three key indicators, viz: Economic, Environment, and Social Performances/Disclosures.	Charitoudi et al. (2011); GRI (2011)
16.	<b>Business in the Community Index:</b> This is a metric developed by a charity agency of the Prince of Wales called Business in the Community (BITC). The index measures the disclosure of CSR with focus on four (4) indicators, namely: Community, Environment, Marketplace and Workplace. While performance impacts indicators are evaluated by two (2) indicators: (a) Social Involvement and (b) Environmental Involvement.	BITC Index (2011), Charitoudi et al., (2011)
17.	<b>Sustainability, Accountability &amp; Transparency Index.</b> This is a qualitative metric with three principles for measuring the impact and performance of CSR. Dudovskiy (2012) and Fernando (2011) identified the three principles as: sustainability (S), accountability (A) and transparency (T). Sustainability means natural resources must be used to provide immediate and future benefits (Fernando, 2011). Accountability principle measures the degree of effectiveness or otherwise of CSR programmes carried out by corporations (Dudovskiy, 2012). Transparency principle enjoins corporations to provide genuine data and right information on their CSR programmes as and when due to stakeholders (Hawkins, 2009).	Crowther and Capaldi, (2008); Mullerat (2010); Fernando (2011); and Dudovskiy (2012).

**Source:** Compiled by the author from a cross-section of viewpoints

The fact that has emerged from the review of measurement of CSR is that corporate social involvement can be quantitatively measured or qualitatively evaluated using any of the measurement of CSR discussed above.

### **3.9: Drivers of CSR and Barriers of Compliance**

The hidden, but critical motivations pushing and pulling corporations to demonstrate greater commitment towards the society are called drivers of CSR in the literature (Mintzberg, 1983; Cheung et al., 2009; Sweeney, 2009; Hallbäck, 2011). The drivers or motivational forces could be internal, in which case they are ‘motivators’ for corporations to act responsibly in the interests of the society. However, they could be external drivers, in which case they are ‘pressures’ put on corporations by external forces outside the organisations (Hallbäck, 2011: 7). Therefore, all the social programmes are actions precipitated by some motives or drivers. Several arguments abound in the literature on the drivers of CSR.

According to Liomi (2003), the drivers of CSR are dichotomous – internal and external drivers. The externally-driven drivers include influence of globalisation; climate



change/environmental sustainability issues; international initiatives; political actions on the environment; and pressures from the investment community calling for responsible behaviours in the operational environment. The internal drivers are required by corporations for risk management and brand value; revenues and costs optimisation; pressure from employees and customers; and need for competitive advantage over rivals in operational environments.

Other motives for undertaking CSR are commercial imperatives and personal values of individual managers (Hemingway and Maclagan, 2004). But findings from 31 manufacturing small and medium-sized enterprises indicated that the two drivers of CSR are business performance and regulation considerations. While business performance is influenced by the benefits to shareholders of good practices as their firms become responsive to the needs of society, the regulation considerations are influenced by the desire to comply with enabling regulatory structures thereby maintaining minimum standards expected of manufacturing firms (Williamson, Lynch-Wood & Ramsay, 2006).

Furthermore, AOCIO (2004) identified four (4) common drivers of corporate behaviours to include: enlightened self-interest, social investment, transparency & trust, and public expectations. The enlightened self-interest driver refers to building a synergy between ethics and economic motives. Social investment is promoting infrastructural development, training as well as provision of social capital for vulnerable members of the society. Transparency and trust entail building positive image through openness and creating positive perception through the manner of doing business. Increased public expectations entail doing more for the society than tax compliance and employment.

However, Löhman and Steinholtz (2004) identifies satisfaction of customers as the key driver of CSR programmes in the developed Western nations, because customers' tastes, preferences and other specifications have very strong impact on competition as well creation of new values in production, service delivery and changing societal roles.

In furtherance of the debate, Wan (2006) notes that there are four (4) drivers of CSR. The first driver is pure altruism. The three others are enlightened self-interest, investment and attempt to gain legitimacy.

According to Mintzberg (1983: 3-4) the four (4) underlining drivers of positive corporate behaviour are: purest altruistic motive; enlightened self-interest, sound investment theory and avoidance of interference or fear of reprimand by the law. All drivers of CSR that are not

altruistic are viewed as unethical, greenwashing (Greer and Bruno, 1996; Bruno, 2002), public relations tools (Sweeney, 2009) and window dressing (Scherer, 2009).

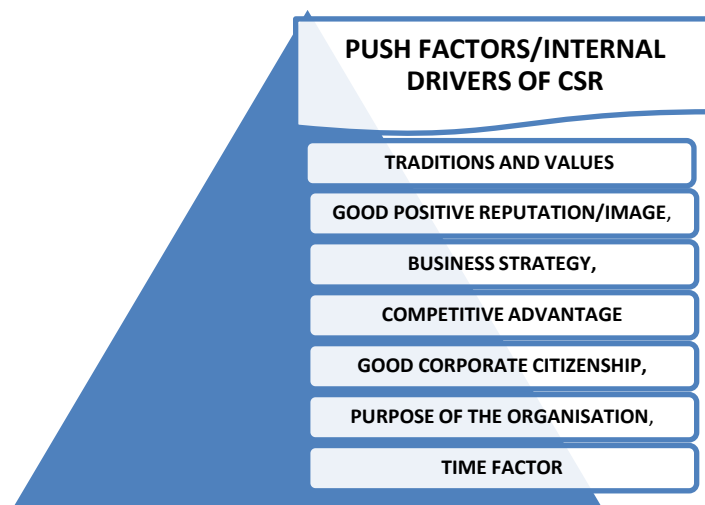
Also, Cheung et al., (2009) identify internal and external drivers of social involvement. For Hong Kong (China) CSR is motivated by eleven (11) internal drivers and seven (7) external drivers. The internal drivers are: environmental improvement; compliance with corporate environmental policy and guidelines; better management of business risk; desire for increased reliability of supply chains; reduction of cost in the long-run; desire for commitment & trust building; maintenance of relationships/secured orders; quality improvement & innovations; raising environmental management capacity of partners; satisfaction of stakeholders; platform for multi-stakeholder dialogue; and desire for greater efficiency in production. The seven external drivers are: need to communicate green corporate image and reputational building; desire to increase competitive advantages; desire to produce environmentally-friendly products that meet market demand; desire to increase sales revenue; need for positive media exposure of activities; desire to meet local legislative requirements, and need to meet international legislative requirements.

In developing nations, the drivers of CSR are need to bridge governance gap and pursuit of sustainable development (Ite, 2007; Natufe, 2011; Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). Specifically, Ite (2007:217), in his exploratory research on TNCs-community relations, identified Shell Petroleum Development Corporation (SPDC) as very active in bridging the governance gap through partnership with the government to improve the wellbeing of the host communities in the region. Within the turbulent region, the key driver is the need to bridge the governance gap in order to douse tension. Other drivers are complementary.

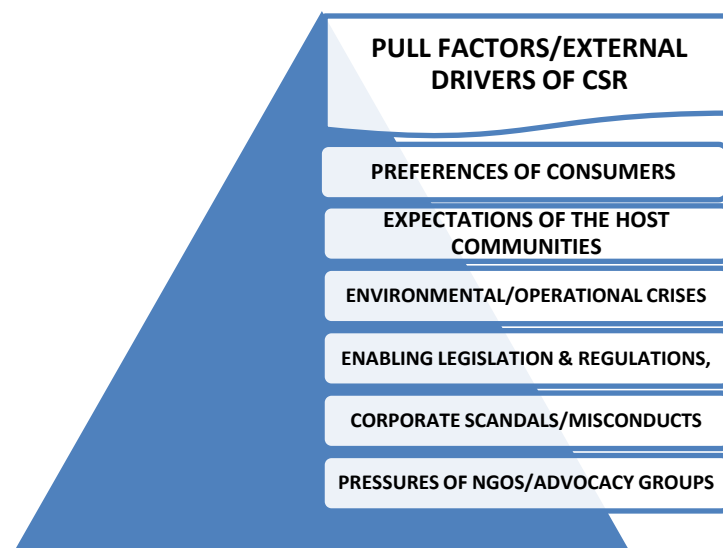
Similarly, Hallbäck (2011: 7) argues that internal drivers are 'push factors' which propel corporations to fulfil the wishes of the society. The core internal drivers or push factors are traditions/values of corporations or their owners; quest for positive reputation & image; business strategy; desire for competitive advantage; desire for good corporate citizenship; purpose of the organisation; and time factor. The external drivers are 'pull factors' that compel corporations to act to meet expectation of the laws. Pull factors include: preferences of consumers/customers; expectations of the host communities; environmental/operational crises; enabling legislation & regulations; corporate scandals/misconduct; and intense pressure from civil societies/advocacy groups.

From the above discussion, it is obvious that different corporations have different drivers propelling them to act as corporate citizens. These drivers are influenced by emerging issues and corporate objectives of the organisations. Also, environmental factors at times force corporations to act in the interests of the society especially of turbulent communities. The competing CSR drivers could be summarised into two (2), viz: ‘push factors’ and ‘pull factors’ in line with the simplification of Hallbäck (2011: 7).

**Figure 3.4: Push-Internal Divers and Pull-External Divers of CSR**



**Source:** Adapted from Hallbäck (2011: 7)



**Source:** Adapted from Hallbäck (2011:7)

In spite of the drivers of CSR, there are a number of barriers militating against compliance by corporations. The first barrier to CSR is the wrong mindset of corporations. Most

corporations perceived involvement in social programmes as exercises that diminish their economic fortunes. This cognitive barrier was underscored by Porter and Kramer (2011: 4-5): “business and society have been pitted against each other for too long. That is in part because economists have legitimized the idea that to provide societal benefits, companies must temper their economic success. In neoclassical thinking, a requirement for social improvement – such as safety or hiring the disabled – imposes a constraint on the corporation. Adding a constraint to a firm that is already maximising profit [...]”.

Another barrier inhibiting CSR is a faulty or ‘outdated approach’ to implementation of social programmes. It is observed that inexperienced corporations fail to create value for their organisations through their involvement in social programmes because of outdated styles of implementation. Porter and Kramer (2011: 4) identify outdated approaches as: (a) default in meeting customers’ satisfaction or wellbeing, (b) flagrant abuse of the ecosystem through depletion of natural resources, (c) inadequate exposure for key suppliers/vendors, (d) apathy to the needs of the host communities especially during economic distress (e) attention to short-term benefit rather than long-term influences of CSR, and (f) paying lip service to the real needs of the society or peripheral concerns. The “outdated approach” is in contrast to the “hard-nosed approach” to CSR which is result oriented. Other barriers to CSR according to Cheung et al. (2009: 260) include: costs of establishing CSR partnership, lack of knowledge on CSR within supply chains, insufficient fostering by the Government, insufficient fostering by business associations in general, lack of public awareness and knowledge on CSR issues, lack of strong market demand, difficulties in identifying partners, poor communication within supply chains, negative attitude so that CSR is not a priority among senior management and lack of trust within supply chains.

### **3.10: Chapter Summary**

In summary, the chapter established that the origin of CSR is rooted in ethics held by people across cultures and countries that spanned several decades. There is no universal definition of CSR; it varies according to scholars and continental domains. But, its meaning reflects triple-bottom lines – economic, social and environmental. There are two schools of thought on CSR: the antagonist and the protagonist schools. The six major perspectives of CSR constructs identified are instrumental, normological, embedded, utilitarian, negative duty and positive duty perspectives. Finally, CSR is hindered by barriers such as cost of CSR, outdated approaches, lack of information on its potency, apathy from government as well as ignorance of the host communities on their rights.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND EMERGING ISSUES IN CSR

*“It is impossible for one to be an internationalist without being a nationalist... Our nationalism can be no peril to other nations inasmuch as we will exploit none just as we will allow none to exploit us” (Gandhi Ganga, 2006: 34).*

### 4.0: Introduction

In chapter three, a critical review of the literature on CSR was undertaken. Chapter four, however, focuses on the review of literature on entrepreneurship, to balance the research pendulum. This task is expedient to gain in depth understanding of entrepreneurship. There are eight sections in this chapter. Section 4.1 explores the definitional constructs of entrepreneurship from academic and institutional lenses, while Section 4.2 highlights the various typologies of entrepreneurship. Section 4.3 discusses the measurements of entrepreneurship and its empirical application in research in the field. Section 4.4 discusses emerging issues with regards to entrepreneurship and CSR synergy. Section 4.5 highlights the various definitions of SMEs and entrepreneurship intervention programmes (EIPs) that had been experimented with in Nigeria over the period 1960–2013, as well as discussion on operational constraints facing the sector in Nigeria. Section 4.6 argues in favour of CSRE as a better framework for bridging the gaps left by previous EIPs. Section 4.7 concludes with a summary of all issues discussed.

### 4.1: Definitions of Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is a popular concept with wide application across diverse disciplinary boundaries (Kaufmann and Dant, 1999). It is a common discourse in the fields of economics, finance, history, marketing, management, sociology, anthropology as well in journalism (Kaufmann and Dant, 1999; Ahmad and Seymour, 2008; Gutterman, 2012). Despite the extensive discussions of, and awareness about entrepreneurship, it had “no widely-accepted definition” that could aid its measurability in research until recently (Ahmad and Seymour, 2008: 5). The etymological root of entrepreneurship is traced to a French derivative verb “entreprendre”, which simply means “to undertake” an endeavour (Kuratko and Hodgetts, 2004: 28). Considering the importance of entrepreneurship in socio-economic contexts, it has been much misused, thus creating definitional debates. This realisation prompts Penrose (1995: 3) to describe entrepreneurship as “a slippery concept” in theory and practice. Also,

several decades ago, Gartner<sup>6</sup> (1988) described his attempts to find a generally acceptable definition for entrepreneurship as elusive, an opinion that was expressed after an in depth review of “thirty-two different definitions” on the concept (Ajayi-Obe, 2007: 52).

Worse still, the gamut of literature on entrepreneurship provides multiple interpretations and divergent meanings (Blundel, 2008:6). Absence of a clear working definition has made research in the field of entrepreneurship intellectually tasking (Shane, Locke and Collins, 2003; Gutterman, 2012). Having observed the continued abuse of entrepreneurship terminology, the World Economic Forum (2009) re-echoed Drucker’s statement that “most of what you hear about entrepreneurship is all wrong. It’s not magic; it’s not mysterious; and it has nothing to do with genes. It’s a discipline and, like any discipline, it can be learned” (p.10).

A review of entrepreneurship definitions by Gutterman (2012: 1) reveals that its prevalent meanings at the first stage of its evolution centres around the ‘economic function’ of entrepreneurs or ‘merchants’. The classical entrepreneurs of the era took risk by purchasing merchandise for resale at a reasonable level of profit, a decision that is predicated on the likelihood of changes in price, uncertainties and financial risks.

At the second stage, scholars beefed up their definitions of entrepreneurship to accommodate environmental “risks and challenges”, which are realities intricately linked with production of goods and rendering of services in “constantly changing markets” (Gutterman, 2012: 1).

During the third stage, attention moved to innovation and creativity as the bedrock of entrepreneurship. The credit for inclusion of innovation and creativity into the definition of entrepreneurship goes to Schumpeter for his historic creative destruction theory. He believed the thrust of entrepreneurship should be “creating and responding to economic discontinuities” wherever opportunities exist (Gutterman, 2012: 1). Besides, Burch<sup>7</sup> (1986) described entrepreneurship as synonymous with innovation, initiation of change and the process of giving birth to a new business venture within an enabling environment. Liebenstein (1995) and Chan (2005) explained that entrepreneurship is innovation and capability to move markets away from equilibrium through “creative destruction”.

At the fourth stage, scholars linked entrepreneurship with certain uncommon human characteristics, personality traits and life experiences of accomplished businessmen (Gartner, 1988; Cope, 2003; Ajayi-Obe, 2007; Gutterman, 2012). Consequently, the literature was

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<sup>6</sup> Cited by Gutterman (2012: 1)

<sup>7</sup> Cited by Gutterman (2012: 4)

filled with a litany of “entrepreneurial characteristics” that aspiring entrepreneurs must imbibe to be successful in their entrepreneurial pursuits (Gutterman, 2012: 1); a phenomenon described by Hessels (2008) as imitating behaviours of successful entrepreneurs. The common ‘entrepreneurial characteristics’ identified by the personality traits proponents include: “(a) propensity for risk taking, (b) need for achievement and (c) childhood deprivation” (Gutterman, 2012:1). The above discourses were the prevalent thinking in all the classical definitional constructs of entrepreneurship.

In an attempt to fill the gaps in definitional construct, Timmons and Spinelli (2007: 79) describe entrepreneurship as a distinctive “way of thinking, reasoning and acting” within an environmental context, where opportunities exist and which could be harnessed for “creation, enhancement, realisation and renewal of value” which are of immense benefit to the entrepreneur and others. Penrose (1963) upholds a similar opinion, that entrepreneurship is concerned more with opportunity identification within an economic milieu. The submission from the definition above is that entrepreneurship is a reflection on opportunities, harnessing and creation of wealth out of the opportunities for the society.

However, Hessels (2008) explains that there is no consensus on definition entrepreneurship, but its meaning entails creating a new thing that is of benefit to the society. Sathorar (2009) feels entrepreneurship is just a notion of value creation which is expressed through creation of business ventures in an enabling environment.

From another perspective, entrepreneurship is viewed as the process of creating and nurturing new businesses by individuals or firms from observed environmental opportunities within an enabling market (Baliamoune-Lutz, 2007; Naudé, 2010). Quite distinctly, Tijani-Alawiye (2004) views entrepreneurship as a deliberate process of increasing the number of entrepreneurs as well as boosting the quantity and quality of small, medium and large businesses in a country through deliberate promotion and motivation of entrepreneurs with innovative capacities, for the goal of achieving sustainable economic growth and development in a country. However, Ahmad and Seymour (2008: 5) assert:

*“The concept of entrepreneurship generally refers to enterprising individuals who display the readiness to take risks with new or innovative ideas to generate new products or services.”*

From the cognitive and behavioural perspectives, Barringer and Ireland (2008: 6) defined entrepreneurship as a process by which people with insight decide to exploit opportunities, taking cognisance of available resources (human, financial and material) under their control.

The bedrock of entrepreneurship according to the authors is opportunity identification and opportunity utilisation, but combined with creativity, drive and willingness to bear risks. This definition is reinforced by Akhuemonkhan et al. (2012), stating that entrepreneurship is a systematic process of idea discovery, idea development, idea improvement, idea evaluation and idea exploitation through setting up of a viable business for the purpose of making profit.

Several other scholars aligned with the opportunity identification/exploitation definition of entrepreneurship. For instance, Acs and Szerb (2007) describe entrepreneurship as a phenomenon that is concerned with realisation of opportunities and making decisions on how opportunities could be harnessed through creation of viable commercial enterprises. In the same vein, Anyadike, Eme, and Emeh (2012) portrayed entrepreneurship as a process of identifying unmet economic opportunities, allocating the required resources and creating value for self and the society by starting a viable commercial venture.

Some scholars contended that entrepreneurship is an engine for catalyzing economic growth and development in less developed societies, especially in Africa (Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2006; Brixiova, 2010; Acs and Szerb, 2010: 5). Specifically, Brixiova (2010:440) describes entrepreneurship as an effective driver of economic growth and development because it enhances job creation, reduces poverty, fosters technological development and innovation. The above conceptualisation of entrepreneurship is a clear manifestation that it is a problem-solving mechanism, because it propels small businesses without which “net job creation for the [...] economy would be negative [...]” (Stangler and Robert, 2009: 1). From the gallery of definitions above, it could be stated that entrepreneurship is a phenomenon far beyond the creation of business; it encompasses “seeking opportunities, taking risk and having the tenacity to push an idea through to reality” to the benefit of entrepreneurs and society at large (Kuratko and Hodgetts, 2004:3).

In an attempt to come up with a sound definition for entrepreneurship, the Organisation of European Cooperation and Development (OECD) came up with three intertwined definitions as follow:

*“Entrepreneurs are those persons (business owners) who seek to generate value through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets; Entrepreneurial activity is enterprising human action in pursuit of the generation of value through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets; Entrepreneurship is the phenomenon associated with entrepreneurial activity” (OECD-Eurostat EIP, 2009: 6).*



The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) followed with another working definition of entrepreneurship with veritable metrics. To GEM, entrepreneurship is "...any attempt at new business or new venture creation, such as self-employment, a new business organization, or the expansion of an existing business, by an individual, teams of individuals, or established businesses" (Gutterman, 2012: 4).

From the review of entrepreneurship's definitions above, the operational definition of Entrepreneurship in this research is the act of pursuing economic opportunities by an individual or group with the aim of setting up businesses (cottage, small, medium, product-oriented or service-oriented businesses) for self-employment, wealth creation, fostering creative innovation, development of local technology and self-actualisation in spite of poverty-perpetuating challenges. This definition accommodates petty trading, small service providers and artisanship as they all contribute to the growth and development of the nation in different degrees.

#### **4.2: Typologies of Entrepreneurship**

An understanding of the various typologies of entrepreneurship gives a clearer overview on its scope. According to Filion (2000), "the word typology [connotes] the study of types, symbols or symbolism [...] the study of symbolic representation [...] notion of classification..." (p.2). However, typology in social sciences refers to "a unique classification scheme" of things, phenomena, methods, processes and other social constructs. Typology is therefore a schema used across disciplines (Beissal-Durrant, 2004: 1-2). In the field of entrepreneurship, the dominant typologies of entrepreneurship are discussed hereunder.

##### **4.2.1: Social Entrepreneurship**

Social Entrepreneurship (SE) is a blended entrepreneurial "innovative activity with a social purpose in either the private or non-profit sector, or across both", with the ultimate objective of giving back to the society (Dee, 1998; Austin and Reficco, 2009: 2). SE is believed to have emerged as a new entrepreneurship typology at the beginning of the 1990s. Kerr (2007: 62) also described SE as the initiative of "a handful of wealthy executives and investors, most of them connected in some way to the budding tech boom, [who] began to think about how philanthropy might work [differently and] about how they could take what made them rich in business and apply those tactics to charity."

Individuals and corporations that adopt an SE mindset are called social entrepreneurs. The social entrepreneurs are useful in the development process because they have empathy for the

society; they sacrifice private profits for public concerns. SE is therefore an interventionist investment mechanism with “two interrelated results: social progress and financial returns” (Kerr, 2007: 628,634). Social entrepreneurs are a forward-looking set of individuals and corporations pioneering new products, innovative services and creative concepts that meet the aspirations, needs and desires of their immediate communities; they achieve these feats using shared value-driven business models (McGray, 2007; Porter and Kramer, 2011). Notable corporations that have adopted SE ideals include eBay’s founders Pierre Omidyar and Jeff Skoll; Peter Hero of Community Foundation Silicon Valley; KaBOOM; DonorsChoose; Muhammad Yunus of Grameen Bank & Grameen Foundation; Google’s founders Larry Page and Sergey Brin and David Green, the founder of the non-profit Project Impact. The core driving philosophy of all these neo-social entrepreneurs is social returns (Kerr, 2007: 628,634). Based on the philosophy of SE as discussed above, it is a concept with very strong links with CSR.

#### **4.2.2. Corporate Entrepreneurship**

From the generic term entrepreneurship, Covin and Miles (1999) developed corporate entrepreneurship (CE) as another unique concept. Like SE, it was proposed as an antidote to the slow growth of entrepreneurship in the society. Adoption of CE, the proponents argued, would redress the prevalent stagnation in creativity and innovation, a situation where research and development (R&D) is not encouraged by the successful big corporations. Ramachandran, Devarajan and Ray (2002:3) defined CE “as the process by which individuals inside organisations pursue opportunities without regard to the resources they currently control.” In other words, it is the deliberate attempt by individuals or corporations to foster entrepreneurship renewal through the development of new approaches, encouraging innovations with a view to creating new businesses to stimulate growth of the markets and the economy at large. The focus of CE is “the presence of innovation with the objective of rejuvenating or redefining organizations, markets, or industries to create or sustain competitive superiority” (Austin and Reficco, 2009: 2). From the discourse above, it could be inferred that CE was introduced into entrepreneurship literature as a catalyst to speed up the growth of new firms and small businesses for the good of the society.

#### **4.2.3. Corporate Social Entrepreneurship**

Corporate social entrepreneurship (CSE) is another valuable typology developed by Austin and Reficco (2009: 2). It emerged as a theoretical framework with the thrust of “enabling

business to develop more advanced and powerful forms of CSR.” Put differently, CSE emerged as a concept which guides corporations (MNCs/TNCs) on the best modality for addressing sustainably the social concerns and expectations of the society through their CSR programmes. Unlike SE, the CSE framework could only be embedded in corporations by altruistic managers otherwise called corporate social entrepreneurs. Who then is a corporate social entrepreneur? Hemingway (2003) defines a corporate social entrepreneur as a manager with sound ethical values and passion for the welfare of the society as well as adequate capacity to drive the corporation’s CSR initiatives. But, Porter and Kramer (2011) describe social entrepreneurs as individuals/corporations driven by the passion to meet the aspirations, needs and desires of their immediate communities. The same definition aligns with Kerr’s (2007: 628, 634) earlier description of a social entrepreneur as somebody who “sacrifices corporate profits in favour of public interest goals. Social entrepreneurship is therefore a strategic investment mechanism, which yields “two interrelated results: social progress and financial returns.” Based on overlapping of meanings, it could be inferred that CSE and SE have the same philosophical underpinning and goals (social progress and financial returns) for enhancing social wellbeing, but the difference is only in terminology as seen or viewed by the proponents. CSE focuses on how CSR initiatives of corporations could be used to better the business-society relationship, while still making profit. SE, on the other hand, stresses charities as routes for improving social wellbeing of the society. With regards to CSR, the term CSE could best be described as a viable approach to CSR.

#### **4.2.4. Globalized Entrepreneurship**

Globalized Entrepreneurship (GE) refers to competitive entrepreneurship thinking, which is propelled by the influence of globalization or internationalization efforts (McKinnon, 2003: 3). GE also represents an innovative philosophy whose underlining goal is to embed value creation, long-term sustainability, sales of products, promotion of brands and growing of corporate entrepreneurship beyond national borders (McDougal and Oviatt, 1997; McKinnon, 2003; Okafor, 2009). It has also been described as entrepreneurship strategy for maintaining competitive advantage over rivals by growing the customer base beyond present territorial boundaries (McKinnon, 2003). Microsoft Inc., Intel Inc., Google, Facebook, ExxonMobil etc. have become dominant global entrepreneurs leveraging on the GE ideal. McDougal and Oviatt (2000) called it GE International entrepreneurship because it is an “intersection of globalization and entrepreneurship” within an international context (Vinig and Kluijver, 2007).

#### **4.2.5: Entrepreneurship Education**

The term entrepreneurship education (EE) is synonymous with entrepreneurship training and skill acquisition programmes. It is a process of inculcating in learners practical skills, traits of risk-taking, innovation, ability to co-ordinate factors of production and other specialised knowledge for the purpose of creating new products or services in the society (Kanothi, 2009; Gabadeen and Raimi, 2012; Akhuemonkhan et al., 2013). Mauchi1 et al. (2011) describe EE as a form of training process which inculcates in individuals knowledge and skills for idea identification of opportunities and acting on them through enterprise development. Other scholars view EE as both formal and informal structured learning that inculcates in learners/trainees/students the ability to identify, screen and seize available opportunities in the environment in addition to skill acquisition (Sexton and Smilor, 1997; Jones and English, 2004). EE could also be viewed as a formal training programme in schools and vocational centres which is focused on inculcating in learners/trainees/students entrepreneurial skills and dexterities needed to identify business opportunity, organise and initiate a process of starting a new venture (Brown, 2000; Okafor, 2009).

#### **4.2.6: New entrepreneurship**

New entrepreneurship (NE) describes a novel entrepreneurial process leading to the development of new ideas or commercially-viable innovation despite unknown and unproven track records of performance from the individual or organisation behind the novel initiative (Peterson and Rajan, 1994; Felsenstein, and Fleischer, 2002). NE also describes the birth of, or emergence of, new businesses within an existing firm (Ramachandran et al., 2002). Individuals and corporations venturing into NE are called new entrepreneurs.

#### **4.2.8. Intrapreneurship or Internal Entrepreneurship**

Intrapreneurship (InE) represents an outstanding initiative introduced by creative employees or employed entrepreneurs into the operations of an organisation with a view to producing new products and providing better quality at reduced costs without being requested to do so by the management (Brezeal, 1996; Istocescu, 2003; Okafor, 2009; Ramachandran et al., 2002). Intrapreneurship propels growth and enhances the financial status of organisations through effective re-engineering and restructuring of operations combined with motivated employees (Istocescu, 2003). According to Maier and Zenovia (2011: 972), the term “Intrapreneurship represents the initiation and implementation of innovative systems and practices within an organization, by some of its staff under the supervision of a manager who takes the role of an intrapreneur, in order to improve the economic performance of the

organization, by using a part of its resources, namely those that previously have not been used in an appropriate manner...”. Individuals and groups with the mindset and traits to propel changes in ailing organisations are called intrapreneurs (Istocescu, 2003; Maier and Zenovia, 2011).

#### 4.2.9: Evaluation of Meanings of Entrepreneurship

Streamlining all the meanings of entrepreneurship so far reviewed, there emerged two perspectives on the subject, viz: “the traits and the behavioural perspectives” (Ajayi-Obe, 2007: 53). However, Kaufmann and Dant (1999: 5) posit that all the viewpoints on entrepreneurship fall within three perspectives, namely: (1) traits, (2) processes, or (3) activities. The traits perspective refers to the inborn or acquired characteristics required for entrepreneurial pursuits; the process perspective describes the systematic and methodical way of learning entrepreneurship; and the activities perspective refers to the actions and things carried out by entrepreneurs. An extensive review of literature by Kobia and Sikalieh (2010) revealed that the different approaches used by researchers in their attempts to explain entrepreneurship fall within three perspectives, namely: trait, behavioral and opportunity identification approaches.

**Figure 4.1:** Broad Classification of Perspectives on Entrepreneurship



**Source:** Author’s from cross-section of views

Depending on scope and depth of academic study, the term entrepreneurship has three dimensions, namely: behavioural, functional, and occupational dimensions. The behavioural definition identifies the attributes of entrepreneurs or classical merchants as unique to the nature of entrepreneurship, while the functional and occupational definitions look at entrepreneurship from the viewpoint of opportunity recognition, risk bearing and creation of business ventures (Peneder, 2009). However, Paula (1996) classified the meanings of entrepreneurship as viewpoints from the structural, functional and intracultural schools. The

structural school defines entrepreneurship from the linguistic meaning of entrepreneurship relying on language. In other words, the structural perspective of entrepreneurship explains how entrepreneurship has evolved over time in the society and how it has been experienced and understood by people. The functionalist school constructs meaning for entrepreneurship from the viewpoint of what entrepreneurs do or their role in our society. It provides a behavioural explanation on entrepreneurship. The intracultural school is an amalgam of the two previous perspectives. It views entrepreneurship as a cultural phenomenon that could be better understood from a life-long learning process exemplified by people individually and collectively. It could be carried out consciously or unconsciously. Entrepreneurship from the perspective of the intracultural school is influenced by culture, context, place, time, circumstances and people/actors.

Wennekers and Thurik (1999) reinforced the meaning of entrepreneurship as the desires and willingness by individuals and teams to create new economic opportunities in the forms of new products, new production methods, new organisational techniques and new product-market combinations in the market domain. In an old conceptualisation by Hébert and Link (1989), they provided a synthetic definition that entrepreneurship is the quest by a self-driven individual called an entrepreneur to specialize in taking responsibility for establishing business ventures and making decisions that affect the location, the form, and the use of goods, resources, or institutions.

Entrepreneurship is described as an elusive concept in the field of economics (Peneder, 2009), while Ahmad and Seymour (2008) admit that there is confusion the way that the term entrepreneurship is being used in public discourse. This research therefore desires to provide a constructive meaning for this slippery concept by exploring the meanings of entrepreneurship from the Nigerian-African perspective. The quest for a definition of entrepreneurship from a national perspective from empirical study found that such definition has indeed impacted on entrepreneurial careers in Kenya. Secondly, it was found that none of the approaches used by scholars gives a comprehensive picture of entrepreneurship (Kobia and Sikalieh, 2010).

In view of the diverse perspectives of entrepreneurship, With regards to perception of social issues generally, Casson et al. (2006) argued that information available to different people to a large extent shape their perceptions of a concept and a situation. The meaning given to entrepreneurship arising from people's judgemental decisions is influenced by the pre-conceived identity of what entrepreneurship represents (Peneder, 2009). From the various

meanings arising from the definitions of entrepreneurship, the insights from the literature could be proposed and hypothesised as follows:

**Proposition 2:** The perception of entrepreneurship by the stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is essentially an attempt to set businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication is not setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication is setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

### 4.3. Emerging Issues: Entrepreneurship and CSR Synergy

The issue of CSR is taking a new dimension in the management and social sciences, international business and international relations literature (van Tulder and van der Zwart, 2006). It is noteworthy to state that attempts have been made at creating models similar to what the present research proposes (CSR-Entrepreneurship framework). Several MNCs have already embraced social involvement through creation of shared value between them and the society for improved corporate performance (Porter and Kramer, 2011: 4). Murphy (2010: 1) reports linkages between SMEs and large corporations for synergy and enterprise development as presently being carried out by Microsoft, Chevron, NBC, and CISCO in various parts of the globe. Furthermore, Akhuemonkhan et al. (2012) highlight the inclusive business models (IBMs), building business linkages (BBLs), blended value propositions (BVP), private-sector development support (PDS), creating shared value (CSV), entrepreneurship social responsibility (ESR), corporate social entrepreneurs (CSE), corporate social entrepreneurship (CSE), social entrepreneurship (SE) etc. as emerging issues in CSR-Entrepreneurship synergy. Even at the level of international relations, developing models for stimulating entrepreneurship is becoming a norm for driving foreign policy. This is evident in the speech of President Barrack Obama at the Cairo University, Cairo, Egypt stating:

*“On economic development, we will create a new corps of business volunteers to partner with counterparts in Muslim-majority countries. And I will host a Summit on Entrepreneurship this year to identify how we can deepen ties between business leaders, foundations and social entrepreneurs in the United States and Muslim communities around the world...All these things must be done in partnership..... to help our people pursue a better life.” (Murphy, 2010: 1).*

Decades ago, Johnson (1971) elucidated the plausibility of synergy of pure economic goals (entrepreneurship) and social goals (corporate social responsibility), but did not develop it

into a CSR-Entrepreneurship framework. He asserted "... a socially responsible entrepreneur or manager is one who has a utility function [...] such that he is interested not only in his own well-being but also in that of the other members of the enterprise and that of his fellow citizens" (Johnson, 1971: 59-68, cited by Carroll, 1999). Below are innovative models, which attempt an integration of CSR and Entrepreneurship for the good of the business and society.

#### **4.3.1: Entrepreneurship Social Responsibility (ESR) Model**

One of the emerging frameworks found in the literature is ESR. The proponents, Blundel et al. (2008), attempted a synergy between CSR and Entrepreneurship, and consequently came up with the 'Entrepreneurship Social Responsibility (ESR)' model. They explain: "Entrepreneurial Social Responsibility is the dynamic consideration of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical and legal requirements of the firm to accomplish social and environmental benefits along with the traditional economic gains sought in the entrepreneurial process" (p.5). ESR recommends that the goals of contemporary corporations (businesses) should be broader to accommodate varied interest groups and public concerns. It looked at the dynamics of CSR-Entrepreneurship on social change, that is, macro level analysis. The ESR framework hinges on ethical theories articulating the need for corporations to accommodate social concerns of their host communities as their businesses grow. The model was not aimed at solving social or economic problems, but explained the ideal corporate behaviours expected of a socially responsible corporation. The work contributes to "how the ethical concerns, perspectives, and behaviours of entrepreneurs change over time as their organizations grow and develop" (Blundel et al., 2008: 6).

The proponents of Entrepreneurship Social Responsibility (ESR) admitted that studies in the field of exploring a synergy between two nebulous concepts (CSR and Entrepreneurship) occupy strategic "intellectual space neither fully revealed nor addressed in existing CSR or entrepreneurship research" (Brundel et al., 2008: 2). This therefore calls for further enrichment through empirical application and wider discourse.

#### **4.3.2. Corporate Social Entrepreneurship (CSE)**

Another valuable framework by Austin and Reficco (2009) is corporate social entrepreneurship (CSE). It is a problem-solving model with the thrust of "enabling business to develop more advanced and powerful forms of Corporate Social Responsibility" (p.2). It was developed for adoption by corporations as a template for addressing social concerns of the society. The CSE model is created from three distinct but related conceptual constructs,



viz: entrepreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship. It evolved to enhance the practice of CSR, especially its utilisation, for diverse ends (including enterprise development), which by current realities is ineffective in meeting the expectations of stakeholders. According to Austin and Reficco (2009), CSE is hinged on three previous theoretical frameworks, viz: Schumpeter's (1942) creative discovery/Stevenson's (1985) redefinition of Entrepreneurship, Covin and Miles's (1999) definition of Corporate Entrepreneurship and Dees's (1998) definition of Social Entrepreneurship, with each framework sequentially strengthening one another.

Austin and Reficco (2009) note that CSE was conceptualised to integrate and build on previous entrepreneurship constructs as explained above. On the strength of the above, the CSE emerged to perfect the three phases discussed above. For the CSE framework to achieve its objective, it has to be implemented in a corporation by a Corporate Social Entrepreneur (Austin and Reficco, 2009). According to Hemingway (2003), a corporate social entrepreneur is a manager with sound ethical values and passion for the welfare of the society as well as adequate capacity to drive the corporation's CSR initiatives based on altruistic motives. The theoretical foundation for CSE is therefore rooted in ethical decision making (Trevino, 1986). It could be observed that the framework is designed to sensitise entrepreneurial corporations on the need to adopt better ethical strategies for dispensing with CSR initiatives in the society.

#### **4.3.3. Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP)**

Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP) is an intervention framework for poverty reduction, employment creation and economic enhancement through private sector support. According to Boyle and Boguslaw (2007: 109), a BOP model represents "a source of entrepreneurship and innovation where economic activity can be stimulated and grown [...] from the bottom up" as well as mechanisms for "poverty eradication & asset building" in the less developed nations where citizens live at the bottom of the pyramid. It has also been observed that the poverty scourge persists because of poor utilisation of resource endowment in developing countries resulting in a situation where 4 billion people earn less than \$8 a day (Jenkins et al., 2008: 6). From another angle, Forstater et al. (2010:10) linked the perpetual underdevelopment and worsening poverty incidences as traceable to the phenomenon of natural resource curse, paradox of plenty and Dutch Disease, synonymous terms which describe a situation where the natural resources of developing countries become the sources of their miseries rather than catalysts of prosperity and development. The developing nations

have remained poor because of ineffective governance policies that failed to meet citizens' expectations (Carvalho, 2009), which perpetuate chronic poverty, unemployment, economic crisis and crimes (Akhueomonkhan et al., 2014). Other scholars called the phenomenon described above as the governance gap thesis (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011; Natufe, 2011; Hart, 2012). Table 4.4 below provides several case studies of how the BOP framework could be reshaped as a mechanism for bringing communities above the bottom of the pyramid (BOP).

**Table 4.1:** Case Studies of BOP Framework across the Globe

SN	Description of Case Studies	Country
1.	<b>Case 1: Creating the Culture of Entrepreneurship (Aramex and Injaz corporations)</b> The CSR initiatives of Aramex and Injaz corporations were designed to solve rising youth unemployment and constraints facing the SMEs in the Middle East and Southeast Asia. The above-mentioned corporations initiated an entrepreneurship education programme (EEP) in 2007 to motivate youth to create jobs (Murphy, 2010).	Middle East and Southeast Asia
2.	<b>Case 2: Creating Entrepreneurship in the Agricultural sector by MNCs</b> Porter and Kramer (2011: 5) report a synergy between MNCs and local cocoa farmers using a model called creating shared value (CSV). The CSV model improved farming techniques, enhanced access to better technologies and accelerated the emergence of a local cluster of small suppliers with improved efficiency, yields and sustainability.	Côte d'Ivoire
3.	<b>Case 3: Stimulating Entrepreneurship by Visafone</b> Visafone Nigeria stimulates entrepreneurship by reducing the cost of calls for big corporations and small and medium scale enterprises (Visafone Communication Limited, 2013) through a business-friendly package. The company also donated 200 protective helmets and jackets to motorcyclists and forged a partnership with a notable NGO to create awareness on safety and driving on the highways (Nigeria Bulletin, 2008).	Nigeria
4.	<b>Case 4: Building Skills and Capacity for Entrepreneurship by Chevron</b> Chevron established in Indonesia a CSR initiative tagged Chevron Pacific Indonesia (CPI) to support small and micro enterprises (SMEs). The scheme trained over 4,000 small local businesses and cooperatives. The model provided financial support to the tune of \$1.3 million in 2001 to small businesses and more than \$114 million in 2009 (Murphy, 2010).	Indonesia
5.	<b>Case 5 : Development support for communities by Airtel</b> Airtel Nigeria Limited utilises its CSR for philanthropic activities like the Adopt-a-School initiative, hygiene and sanitation, de-worming and screening of pupils and staff of the public schools, provision of school uniforms, furniture, books and school bags, general health checks, eye screening, cardiovascular checks and weight check for both teachers and pupils (Owonibi, 2012; Ibe, 2012).	Nigeria
6.	<b>Case 6: Humanitarian Support for Host Community by Chevron</b> Chevron established Chevron Aceh Recovery Initiative (CARI) to empower the local community through social investments in vocational and technical skill-acquisition programmes in order to improve job prospects and launching of new enterprises. Chevron's project intends to empower 1,200 SMEs, which would create an additional 6,000 jobs for Indonesians (Murphy, 2010).	Indonesia
7.	<b>Case 7: Humanitarian Support for Host Community by Etisalat</b> Etisalat's CSR programmes cover Education, Health and Environment and building meaningful relationships with stakeholders through engagement. The CSR initiatives include: the Adopt-a-School Programme; Career Counselling for Students; Etisalat Scholarship Awards; Teacher Training Programme; Etisalat Centre for CSR; Fight Malaria Initiative; Environment-friendly ECO-SIM cards (CSR Report, 2010).	Nigeria
8.	<b>Case 8: Building Skills and Capacity for Entrepreneurship by CISCO</b> As part of CISCO's support for the host community, it initiated an entrepreneurship scheme aimed at inculcating "skills necessary to turn a business dream into reality" under the Global Education Initiative, the Cisco Networking Academy, and the Cisco	Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan, S/Arabia,

	Entrepreneurship Institute (Murphy, 2010: 12).	Qatar
9.	<b>Case 9: Building Skills and Capacity of Students by CISCO</b> For student empowerment, CISCO is funding education under public-private education partnerships in Jordan, Egypt and Qatar. It also partnered with the United States Department Middle East Initiative, to provide “internship opportunities for women from Lebanon, Jordan and Saudi Arabia on entrepreneurship and business courses at Emory and Duke Universities. Records indicated that Cisco “has nearly one million students in 165 countries” (Murphy, 2010: 12).	Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Qatar
10.	<b>Case 10: Building Sports &amp; Entertainment Capacity by Globacom</b> Globacom Nigeria Limited utilised its CSR for the promotion of cultural activities, historical events and sports such as FIFA U-17 World Cup, Supporters Club Sponsorship, Manchester United Football Club Sponsorship, GLO Naija Sings, African Handball Championship, Glo-CAF Awards, GLO International Half Marathon, Glo People Police Marathon, Nigerian Premier League, Nigeria Football Federation, Eyo Festival, African Voices On CNN, Ojude Oba Festival, etc. ( <a href="http://Gloworld.com">Gloworld.com</a> , 2013).	Nigeria
11.	<b>Case 11: Business Linkages by Coca-Cola/Cappy</b> Coca-Cola/Cappy (National Beverage Company) utilised its CSR as a support mechanism for local entrepreneurs and SMEs in the Middle East and West Bank The CSR initiative is an inclusive business model created to help suppliers, distributors and retailers as well as strengthening the local business system to protect its own markets (Murphy, 2010).	Middle- East, West Bank
12.	<b>Case 12: Business Linkages in Singapore, Wales, Ireland, Vietnam, Thailand</b> The CSR-oriented business linkages provide logistic and financial support to SMEs through the private sectors. Selected CSR-oriented business linkage include: Singapore’s Local Industry Upgrading Programme, the Source Wales programme, Ireland’s National Linkage Programme and the programmes of Unilever in Vietnam, Toyota in Thailand, Intel in Malaysia, Motorola in China etc. (Luetkenhors, 2004).	Singapore, Wales, Ireland, Vietnam, Thailand Malaysia China
13.	<b>Case 13: Boosting Youth Employability and Skills in Africa by Microsoft Inc.</b> Microsoft Youth Spark Initiative (MYSI) is a novel CSR-Entrepreneurship framework that provides insight into corporate social investment (CSI). MYSI is aimed at stimulating the entrepreneurship drive in Africa, thereby creating direct and indirect employment opportunities “for 300 million youth in more than 100 countries” with a project period of three years (Techtalsk, 2013).	Africa

Source: Author, 2014

From Table 4.4, the BOP framework is a CSR support aid for enhanced Business-Society Relationships. The standpoint of this research is that CSR support aid for entrepreneurship development is a pragmatic model supported by the case studies across the globe.

#### 4.3.4: Creating Shared Value (CSV) Model

Another viable concept is Creating Shared Value (CSV), which is one stage in a three-stage process of the Business-Society Relationship. The two preceding stages are philanthropy (Donations to worthy social causes) and CSR (Good corporate citizenship and compliance with community standards and Sustainability) (Porter, 2011). CSV is a framework for stimulating entrepreneurship growth through shared value between corporations and their suppliers within the value-chain. It extends to provision of mutually beneficial support services to vulnerable segments of the society thereby propelling a new wave of innovation and productivity growth in the economy because “healthy businesses need healthy

communities” (p.2). The fundamental aim of CSV is to improve the society sustainably, while at the same time creating economic value for corporation. Porter and Kramer (2011) explain that the CSV framework, when effectively applied to corporations’ activities, has great prospects for improving techniques and access by small firms/vendors to better technologies and accelerate the emergence of a local cluster of small suppliers with improved efficiency, yields, product/service quality and sustainability. Other benefits of CSV are wealth creation and self-employment through collaboration. CSV is a pragmatic framework in use in the agricultural sector of the developing economy. It is a mutually rewarding experiment. Porter and Kramer (2011: 5) report on the performance of CSV that: “Early studies of cocoa farmers in the Côte d’Ivoire [...] suggest that while fair trade can increase farmers’ incomes by 10% to 20%, shared value investments can raise their incomes by more than 300%.”

Three ways of embedding CSV by corporations in the society include:

- ✚ redefinition of products as well as markets by corporations;
- ✚ review of what really constitutes productivity in the value chain framework to be built on CSV; and
- ✚ creation of an enabling environment for local cluster development that would accommodate vendors, dealers, suppliers and SMEs within their value-chain.

With the three steps in place, it is argued that CSV would provide shared economic benefits to corporations and their host communities. And CSR is a potent tool for embedding CSV in host communities for entrepreneurship/SME development.

#### **4.3.5: Building Business Linkages (BBL)**

The BBL framework is a problem-solving model, driven by private sector CSR programmes. BBL is premised on the presumption that poverty is not necessarily a scourge, rather the multitude living in poverty across the globe are human assets that could be exploited by corporations for mutually beneficial engagements. The proponents identified four (4) typologies of business linkages that could be adopted for expanding economic opportunities for SMEs and vulnerable members of the society: (a) creating inclusive benefits, (b) development of human capital, (c) building institutional capacity, (d) helping to optimise the rule of contemporary business through exposure of SMEs to regulatory, legal and policy frameworks within the business domain. An inclusive business model empowers starters and inexperienced SMEs in the business community, while the other three typologies are purely

complementary, as they serve as intervention support services for SMEs. Building technology incubation centres (TICs) falls within the purview of building business linkages (Jenkins, 2007; Jenkins et al., 2007; Jenkins, et al., 2008; Murphy, 2010; Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012). There are several inclusive BBL models used by transnational corporations (TNCs) like Chevron, GE, Motorola, Microsoft, Vodacom etc. and localised corporations (LCs) around the world to expand economic and business opportunities for the neglected poor small businesses. Jenkins (2007) notes that building business linkages enhanced: (a) increased employment and wealth creation for local firms/vendors and the vulnerable; (b) skills, standards and capacity of SMEs/local vendors; (c) access to foreign markets; (d) diversified clients in the market; (e) access to credit; (f) reduced risk-sharing through joint funding among other SMEs in the cluster.

#### 4.3.6. Corporate Social Investment (CSI)

Corporate Social Investment (CSI) from the perspective of Microsoft corporation is the development of people as valuable human capital for sustainable development. There are several frameworks of CSI, but the Microsoft YouthSpark Initiative (MYSI) provides insight on how best CSR investment of corporations could be used for human capacity building. Broadly, the MYSI is aimed at stimulating the entrepreneurship drive in Africa, with a view to creating direct and indirect employment opportunities “for 300 million vulnerable youth in more than 100 countries” within three years (Techtalsk, 2013; Microsoft, 2013). The MYSC runs as a partnership scheme with governments and other interest groups. People are targeted in three age brackets, namely: kids (6-12 years), teens (13-18 years) and young adults (19-24) are accommodated (Microsoft, 2013). CSI in Africa is a partnership with governments, schools, SMEs advocacy groups, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) as well as other interest groups. CSI attempts to sustainably reduce poverty, youth unemployment and development crisis. It is an initiative designed to bring out young people’s creativity, innovation and untapped talents so that they will be self-reliant (Aginam, 2013).

**Table 4.2:** Variants of the YouthSpark Initiatives of Microsoft Corporation

SN	Type of YouthSpark, Modus Operandi
1.	<b>Microsoft IT Academy:</b> This was established to enhance the career prospects of young people, so that they are empowered with world-class technology of the 21 <sup>st</sup> century. It is made available to all accredited academic institutions.
2.	<b>Partners in Learning Network:</b> An online professional development platform for government officials, school leaders and educators to help them with new approaches to teaching and learning, using technology to help students develop 21st century skills.
3.	<b>Employability Portals:</b> This aspect of YouthSpark offers a template for young people seeking a career in IT or related fields. Young people who opt for this initiative can have access to advisory services from counselors, mentors as well as training, capacity-enhancement activities, application for top jobs and the opportunity of an internship with Microsoft outlets

4.	<b>Dream Spark:</b> This is an empowerment platform that provides access to free IT tools to creative students and other technical-oriented young people seeking to become web designers and developers after school. It is a catch-them-young initiative for those in high school and college.
5.	<b>Imagine Cup:</b> The programme takes the form of a technology-based creative competition designed to reward upcoming creative IT students, who can effectively use their knowledge and competencies to design innovative IT solutions that would impact positively on their immediate communities and the world at large. In other words, it is a competition to discover talented, creative and innovative young people.
6.	<b>BizSpark:</b> This SMEs-focused programme provides creative young entrepreneurs with a good opportunity to start their own business by building on the success of Microsoft. Young people under the scheme can use software development tools owned by Microsoft for establishing links with key industry players, firms, and investors in the IT industry, to help them start a new business.
7.	<b>Students to Business:</b> This is a job match-making platform that helps trained university students get jobs; those seeking internships are accommodated by Microsoft as part of their social responsibility.

**Source:** Microsoft Corporation (2013)

**Evaluation:** It is evident from the models of CSR-Entrepreneurship Synergy across the world that corporate social involvement incorporates several developmental issues as well as philanthropic donations. The issues presently addressed by CSR in Nigeria from the annual reports on social involvement by leading telecommunication companies reflect sports/entertainment receiving modest attention; this information needs to be investigated further, hence research question: What is the dominant CSR activity in relations to entrepreneurship in the Nigeria Telecommunication industry?

#### 4.3.7. The Gap in the Literature on CSR-Entrepreneurship Synergy

Theoretical studies conceptualised the plausibility of integrating social and economic goals by corporations in unison without affecting the bottom-line objective. However, apart from social entrepreneurship and related concepts, there has not been rigorous research on refocusing CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship development. This area could be called developmental CSR and it is an emerging area in the CSR field (Jamali and Mirshak, 2007). Emphasis of the mainstream CSR agenda and discourse has always been on Western countries; hence the discourse tends to be insensitive to local priorities (Idemudia, 2011). Because of poor insight about developmental CSR from developing countries, Welle-Strand and Vlaicu (2013) argued for a robust CSR discourse with the potential of linking CSR to the international development agenda. Even Frynas (2008) argued in favour of developmental CSR, which entails supporting international development goals like MDGs in the areas of poverty alleviation, wealth creation, value creation and health improvements. In a much earlier work, Frynas (2005) justified the need for a developmental side of CSR stating that “the advantage of this is that it allows poverty to be presented to business as something undesirable and solvable on a par with, for instance, a malfunctioning valve or a quality control problem” (p.511).

Furthermore, developmental CSR has the potential for boosting financial performance, but advocates lack the broad-based empirical evidence to support their arguments (Frynas, 2008). There are many case studies on developmental CSR but their long-term impact on profitability and benefits has been under-researched, although Newell (2005: 556) remarked that, “all we can currently say is that *“CSR can work, for some people, in some places, on some issues, some of the time.”*”

Using CSR for developmental purposes, especially for entrepreneurship development as proposed by this research, could be a sustainable mechanism for promoting small businesses, economic development, unemployment reduction, wealth creation, technological development and poverty reduction. Drucker (1984) stated with optimism that the “social responsibility of business is to tame the dragon that is, to turn a social problem into economic opportunity and economic benefit, into productive capacity, into human competence, into well-paid jobs, and into wealth” (p.62).

In view of the gap observed in the developmental side of CSR, this study attempts to fill the gap by refocusing CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria leveraging on the positive performance of the telecommunication industry.

The reviewed literature and several case studies across the globe such as the Microsoft YouthSpark Initiative, Social Entrepreneurship, Corporate Social Entrepreneurship, Building Business Linkages, Creating Shared Value, Bottom of the Pyramid etc. discussed above have justified CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship. Besides, there is no one-size fits-all with regards to CSR issues. For Nigeria, it is justified to refocus CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship because as a developing nation it has “a distinctive set of CSR agenda challenges which are collectively quite different to those faced in the developed world.” (Visser 2008: 474). Based on the above, it is therefore in order to propose and hypothesise using a one-tail test as follows:

**Proposition 3:** Future CSR activities could potentially fund entrepreneurship education, start-up capital for small businesses, procurement of equipment, establishment of business clusters/incubations and instrument for political risk mitigation.

### **Hypothesis 3a**

⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential for funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential for funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

### **Hypothesis 3b**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training.

### **Hypothesis 3c**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.
- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR has potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.

### **Hypothesis 3d**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential as funding for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential as funding for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.

### **Hypothesis 3e**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential as instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential as instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.

## **4.4: Measurements of Entrepreneurship**

Several attempts have been made to develop measurements for entrepreneurship from academic and institutional angles. With regards to the development of academic measurement, credit was given to Howard H. Stevenson for his six dimensions of entrepreneurship behaviour (Kuhn, Sassmannshausen and Zollin, 2010) or what Izaidin et al. (2008) called the six dimensional construct of Entrepreneurship Management. The six dimensions of entrepreneurship include: strategic orientation, commitment to opportunity, commitment to process, control of resources, management structure and reward system (Stevenson, 2000). To forestall misuse, Stevenson (2000: 3) cautions that the six dimensions are purely exploratory, the 'how' of entrepreneurship, and not explanatory, the 'who or what' of entrepreneurship management. The six-dimensional model was developed to form a contrast between an entrepreneurially-managed firm and an administratively-managed firm; the former is more results-oriented in terms of concrete outcomes than the latter (Stevenson, 2000; Izaidin et al., 2008; Kuhn et al., 2010).



Considering the need to beef up the 1983 six-dimensional measurement of entrepreneurship management (EM), Kuhn et al. (2010) note that Stevenson in his subsequent research added two more dimensions, namely: Growth Orientation in 1986 and Entrepreneurial Culture in 1990, thus upgrading his model to eight dimensions of EM. The complete eight dimensions of entrepreneurship would then include: Strategic Orientation; Commitment to Opportunities; Commitment to Process; Resource Orientation; Management Structure; Reward Philosophy; Growth Orientation; and Entrepreneurial Culture (Izaidin et al., 2008).

Later, Brown, Davidson and Wiklund (2001: 958) develop a “new instrument” for “operationalizing Stevenson’s conceptualization” thereby boosting its empirical measurability and predictability as tool for measuring entrepreneurial behaviour of firms. The eight-dimensional model is a useful EM continuum for measuring firms’ behaviour (Kuhn et al., 2010: 2). When the eight-dimensional EM was put to the test, it was found that only “six dominant dimensions” had practical relevance: “Strategic Orientation, Resource Orientation, Management Structure, Reward Philosophy, Growth Orientation and Entrepreneurial Culture” (Izaidin, 2008: 79, 81).

On the strength of the findings above, further studies followed their methodological approach. For instance, Harms and Ehrman (2003) adopted three dimensions out of the six-dimension of EM for their study. Also, Kuhn et al., (2010) adopts the six-dimensional EM or ‘six empirical dimensions’ empirically certified as reliable (p.12). Till date, the six dimensions of EM have remained relevant instruments among researchers (Stevenson, 2000; Izaidin, 2008; Kuhn et al., 2010).

Apart from EM measurement, Miller (2011) and Covin and Slevin (1991) developed a measurement known as entrepreneurial orientation (EO), which measures three dimensions of firms’ entrepreneurial behaviour. The three dimensions of EO are: innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking (Covin and Slevin, 1991; Brown and Davidson, 1998; Kuhn et al., 2010; Bolton and Lane, 2012). Like EM discussed above, researchers have adopted EO for their studies.

However, Bolton and Lane (2012) argued in favour of EO because of its popular usage, reliability and its validity in research. For instance, Robinson et al. (1991) utilised the EO with the four dimensional traits of achievement, personal control, innovation and self-esteem to measure entrepreneurial behaviour with respect to business outcome. Another study by Parnell et al. (2003) applied EO measurement with four-dimensions comprising managerial

motivation, self-management, organisational effectiveness and power variables to determine the entrepreneurial orientation of US and Chinese students.

Similarly, Baughn, Chua and Neupert (2006) used EO measurement with five dimensions, namely self-efficacy social support, normative support, parent-sibling ownership and family demands, to study the entrepreneurial interest of students from China, Vietnam and the Philippines. Gurol and Atsan (2006) examined the entrepreneurial behaviour of Turkish students using a six-dimensional traits measurement comprising of need for achievement, locus of control, risk-taking propensity, tolerance for ambiguity and innovativeness. Moreno and Casillas (2008) modified entrepreneurship orientation (EO) as entrepreneurship orientation and growth (EO-G) to capture the causality between entrepreneurship orientation and growth of firms using a sample of 434 SMEs.

Studies similar to the above include Okhomina's (2007) three-dimensional trait measurement using need for achievement, locus of control and tolerance for ambiguity. The second was Harris and Gibson's (2008) four-dimensional trait measurement with achievement, personal control, innovativeness and self-esteem as metrics. The study by Lavenburg and Schwarz (2007) made use of a three-scale measurement reflecting traits of risk-taking, creative thinkers and internal locus of control. Van Gelderen et al. (2008) employ a four-scale instrument of perseverance, entrepreneurial alertness, self-efficacy and creativity. Whereas, Gibson and Harris (2008) adopt a four-scale measurement comprising of achievement, personal control, innovation and self-esteem for studying entrepreneurial behaviour of college and university students.

In a further study, Bolton et al. (2012) reshaped EO measurement as individual entrepreneurial orientation (IOE) for assessing the entrepreneurial orientation of students, adult venture capitalists, career-choice seekers and learners/trainees executing project assignments. The three IOE dimensions include "innovativeness, risk-taking and pro-activeness". IOE measurement, unlike several other metrics, is not theoretical; it was used empirically to test the "entrepreneurial intention" of university students and found to be very "reliable and valid" especially as measurement for individuals' entrepreneurship behaviours (p.213). More importantly, Lyon, Lumpkin and Dess (2000: 1068-174) collated 32 empirical studies where the six-dimensional scale of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) was used in its original form or with a slight modification. The finding indicates that EO is a useful measurement for evaluating individual and organisational entrepreneurship orientations. Similarly, Filion (2000: 5) provides an additional twenty-four (24) dimensions of

entrepreneurial orientation to assist researchers with hands-on traits for measuring entrepreneurial behaviour in any “social context” and situation. The common twenty-four (24) widely used dimensions of EO are as shown in Figure 4.2 below.

**Figure 4.2:** Twenty-four (24) dimensions of EO

<b>Self-concept</b>	<b>Need for achievement</b>
<b>Commitment</b>	<b>Need for power</b>
<b>Systemic root</b>	<b>Need for recognition</b>
<b>Vision</b>	<b>Need for security</b>
<b>Relations system</b>	<b>Attitude to growth</b>
<b>Delegation</b>	<b>Attitude in interpersonal relations</b>
<b>Purpose</b>	<b>Attitude to profits</b>
<b>Independence</b>	<b>Attitude to risk</b>
<b>Locus of control</b>	<b>Leadership style</b>
<b>Ability to adapt</b>	<b>Management style</b>
<b>Creativity</b>	<b>Decision-making style</b>
<b>Innovation</b>	<b>Strategic style</b>

Various international bodies contributed to the development of measurements for entrepreneurship. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) led with research on measurement, with the development of six (6) entrepreneurship determinants, namely: knowledge creation & diffusion, access to finance, entrepreneurial capabilities, regulatory framework, market conditions and Entrepreneurial culture (OECD-Eurostat EIP Report, 2009).

Another institutional measurement of entrepreneurship is the National Expert Survey (NES) developed by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) for measuring factors influencing entrepreneurial activity and economic development on a country-to-country basis (Acs and Szerb, 2010: 2). The NES measurement has nine (9) dimensions called Entrepreneurial Framework Conditions (EFCs). Like OECD-Eurostat EIP Determinants, each of the EFCs has indicators framed like a Likert scale rating which the respondent fills in during a country-wide GEM survey. The nine (9) Entrepreneurial Framework Conditions (EFCs) are: finance, government policies, entrepreneurial education and training, R&D transfer, commercial and professional infrastructure, entry regulation, physical infrastructure & services and cultural & social norms (GEM Nigeria National Expert Survey Questionnaire, 2012: 1-7; Global Entrepreneurship Research Association, 2013).

Furthermore, the Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI) developed a measurement of entrepreneurship (Acs and Szerb; 2010). GEDI appears superior to other institutional measures because it evaluates qualitatively and quantitatively the degree of

entrepreneurial activity on a country-to-country basis (Acs and Szerb, 2010). To measure entrepreneurship distinctly, three dynamics are essential, namely entrepreneurial attitudes, entrepreneurial activity and entrepreneurial aspiration (Acs and Szerb, 2010). Both the entrepreneurial attitudes index (EAI) and the entrepreneurial activity index (EAI) have five (5) indicators, while the entrepreneurial aspirations index (EAI) has six (6) indicators (Acs and Szerb, 2010; GEDI, 2013). Table 4.3 shows the seven (7) measurements of entrepreneurship.

**Table 4 3:** Common Measurements of Entrepreneurship

SN	Type of Measurement	Level of Analysis & Capability
1.	Entrepreneurship Management (EM)	Organisational Entrepreneurial behaviour
2.	Entrepreneurship Orientation (EO)	Individual, Group and/or Organisational Entrepreneurial behaviour
3.	Entrepreneurship Criteria (EC)	Individual, Group and/or Organisational Entrepreneurial behaviour
4.	Individual Entrepreneurship Orientation (IOE)	Individual Entrepreneurial behaviour
5.	OECD-Eurostat Entrepreneurship determinants (OECD-EIP)	Organisational Entrepreneurial behaviour
6.	Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI)	National and Transnational Entrepreneurial behaviour
7.	GEM's National Expert Survey (NES)	National and Transnational Entrepreneurial behaviour

**Source:** Author

**Evaluation:** The import of the above discussion is that entrepreneurship can be measured using the Entrepreneurship Orientation measurement with constructs like proactiveness, innovation, growth orientation, leadership etc. From the literature so far reviewed (chapters three and four), there are several measurements for measuring CSR, on the one hand, and entrepreneurship on the other; this suggest that CSR and Entrepreneurship measurement could be linked as hybrid metrics for measuring the impact of CSR on entrepreneurship. This reasoning is the bed-rock of the whole research which is to refocus CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship development. This is imperative because entrepreneurship (as new business promotion and development of existing ventures) is a potent force driving innovation in the world (Leibenstein, 1968; Dee, 1998; Covin and Miles, 1999; Kauffmann, 2005; Austin and Reficco, 2009). Previous models that refocused CSR as a mechanism for promoting Entrepreneurship are quite few; these include: the inclusive business (Jenkins, 2007; Jenkins, Akhalkatsi, Roberts and Gardlner, 2007); building business linkages (Nelson, 2007; Murphy, 2010); blended value propositions (Emerson, 2003); private-sector development support (UNDP, 2008); creating shared value (Porter and Kramer, 2011); entrepreneurship social

responsibility (Blundel et al., 2008); corporate social entrepreneurship (Austin and Reficco, 2009); social entrepreneurship (Alter, 2006; Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Center for the Advancement of Social Entrepreneurship, 2008).

The Corporate Social Entrepreneurship, for instance, represents a framework conceptualized by Austin and Reficco (2009) as a guide for corporations on the best modality for addressing sustainably the social concerns of the society including small business development through CSR programmes. Corporations that perceive entrepreneurship as problem-solving mechanisms sacrifice their economic profits for public concerns and social development without risking financial returns (Kerr, 2007). According to Boyle and Boguslaw (2007), corporations have become active in tackling poverty issues in their operational domains through CSR involvement. Also, Natufe (2011) confirms that Adidas, Nike, IBM, BP and several MNCs have passionately adopted CSR as a tool for impacting on the business environment in which they all operate. Furthermore, some studies provide justification for political CSR as a tool for tackling problems of poverty, unemployment, crime, conflict and infrastructural neglects in Nigeria and Tanzania (Ufadhili, Yambayamba and Fox, 2005; Raimi and Adeleke, 2010). There are case studies of utilisation of CSR as a mechanism for business linkage between multinational corporations and small or medium enterprises for mutual economic benefits (Jenkins et al., 2007).

In the Niger Delta region in Nigeria, a replica of problem-solving CSR which enhances entrepreneurship and people's wellness has been developed by the Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC) and government-owned Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC). The scheme is aimed at building infrastructural facilities for the host communities, as well as empowering victims of environmental degradation caused by SPDC (Ite, 2005; Ite, 2007). Chevron has a CSR-Entrepreneurship scheme in Indonesia designed to build the capacity of small local businesses and cooperatives through an entrepreneurship training scheme and provision of financial support to the beneficiaries. Also, Chevron empowered the local community through social investments in vocational and technical skill-acquisition programmes in order to improve job prospects and launching of new enterprises. Chevron's project intends to empower 1,200 SMEs, which would create an additional 6,000 jobs for Indonesians (Murphy, 2010). Zain telecommunications in Bahrain focused its CSR programmes on host community development and empowerment, especially the delivery of public goods for the citizens, environmental issues, educational support, youth engagements, funding of research & development, women empowerment and children-oriented support

programmes, which are aimed at stimulating sustainable growth and development in the host country (Zain Bahrain, 2013). From the above discussion, forward-looking corporations have renewed their CSR programmes/policies to accommodate more innovative-oriented entrepreneurship and poverty-reductions programmes. The need for a CSR-Entrepreneurship framework is justified because Nigeria and the rest of Africa require “a distinctive set of CSR agenda challenges which are collectively quite different to those faced in the developed world” (Visser 2008: 474). On the strength on the arguments and justifications above, this research proposed and hypothesized as follows:

**Proposition 4:** In view of the strategic nature of CSR activities in the Nigerian telecommunication industry there is likelihood of a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship.

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

#### **4.5: Understanding Entrepreneurship & SMEs in Nigeria**

The relationship between entrepreneurship and SMEs could be viewed as a cause-effect or causality chain; the term entrepreneurship is a process that leads to creation of SMEs, while an SME is simply the outcome of entrepreneurship development (Peacock et al., 2009; Lucky and Olusegun, 2012). SMEs and entrepreneurship both emerged as “instruments for achieving economic growth and development” as well as catalysts for innovation, employment opportunities and income creation (Lucky and Olusegun, 2012: 487). The same view is shared by Newbery (2006), Akande and Ojokuku (2008), Rebecca & Benjamin (2009), and OECD (2009). SMEs by virtue of their potency for job creation have been described as engine-rooms of growth (Kauffmann, 2005).

There are variations in the definitions given to SMEs by scholars globally as well as in Nigeria. The meanings of SMEs differ across “countries and industries” (Peacock, Swatman and Lu, 2009: 52). Apart from varied definitions, the classification of SMEs take different parameters from number of employees and sales turnover, to business objectives and organisational values/philosophy (Macpherson et al., 2003, Peacock, 2004; Peacock et al., 2009). Variation in the definitions of SMEs exist in the literature because scope of definition must “reflect industry, country, size and employment differences accurately” thereby avoiding ambiguity (Lucky and Olusegun, 2012: 489). Within the Nigerian border, the

definition of SMEs attracts overlapping meanings because “institutions and agencies defined SMEs differently with parameters such as employees’ size, asset base, turnover, financial strength, working capital and size of the business” (Okafor, 2009: 20). The Nigerian agencies, both public and private establishments, change definition of SMEs from time to time because there is no generally accepted definition for SMEs, not only in Nigeria but in Africa as a whole (Beyene, 2002; Adeyemi, 2013).

According to Alarape (2008), SMEs are business ventures that absorb employees ranging from 11-100 combined with a capitalisation of N50 million (working capital inclusive), but excluding the cost of land acquisition. The definition aligns with those above, possibly adapted from official definitions of the National Council on Industry (NCI). SMEs are globally reckoned, but their vibrancy is hindered by a number of factors “financial power, technical knowledge and human resources” (Peacock et al., 2009: 52).

On a reconciliatory note, Okafor (2009) explains that the 2001 policy document of the NCI synchronised varied definitions of SMEs, and subsequently came up with clear-cut definitions for SMEs according to scope and operational capacity as follows:

- i. **Micro/Cottage Industry:** An industry with a labour size of not more than 10 workers and total cost of not more than N1.5 million, including working capital but excluding cost of land.
- ii. **Small-Scale Industry:** This is an industry with an employee size ranging from 11-100 employees, or a total operating cost which is not more than N50 million (working capital inclusive), but cost of land excluded.
- iii. **Medium Scale Industry:** This refers to industry with an employee size ranging from 101-300 employees, or having a total operating cost of over N50 million but not exceeding N200 million (working capital inclusive), but cost of land excluded.
- iv. **Large Scale Industry:** An industry with an employee size of over 300 workers or a total operating cost of over N200 million (working capital inclusive), but cost of land excluded (Okafor, 2009: 22).

Apart from definitions, the classification of SMEs takes different parameters from number of employees and sales turnover, to business objectives and organisational values/philosophy (Macpherson et al., 2003, Peacock et al., 2009). However, the widely used criteria for defining and classifying SMEs across countries are: contribution to total employment, number of employees engaged, size of the business, industry, country specifics, asset

value/capital base (Lucky and Olusegun, 2012). Table 4.4 below provides a comprehensive definition of SMEs across countries.

**Table 4.4:** Definitions of MSMEs across Developing Countries with Characteristics

Country	Country SME Characteristics							
	SME Definitions (number of employees, unless otherwise noted) <sup>a</sup>			Structure of the SME Sector (% of all SMEs)			SME Participation in the Economy	
	Micro	Small	Medium	Micro	Small	Medium	Total SMEs	SME employment as % of total
Algeria	< 250						580,000	
Bangladesh	<50		51-99	84.7		15.3	177,000	80-85
Botswana	0-4	5-49	50-99	57.4	40.1	2.5	16,466	
Brazil	0-9	10-49	50-249	92.9	6.2	0.9	4,667,609	56.5
Egypt			< 99				2,500,000	
Ghana	1-5	5-29	29-99	55.3	42.0	2.7	25,679	66.0
Japan	1-4	5-19	20-299	61.7	29.9	8.4	5,712,191	88.0
Kenya	<5	5-50	>50	13.0	76.0	11.0	22,014	
Korea, Rep.	<5	5-9	10-99	88.7	8.3	2.9	2,948,171	86.7
Malawi	0-4	5-20	21-50	91.3	8.5	0.2	747,396	38.0
Mali	0-10		11-50	57.3		42.7		
Morocco			< 200				450,000	
Philippines	1-9	10-99	100-199	92.1	7.5	0.4	806,866	70.4
South Africa	0-9 <sup>j</sup>	10-49	50-100 <sup>j</sup>	92.0	7.0	1.0	900,683	39.0
Tanzania	1-5	6-10	11-20	97.9	1.3	0.6	2,700,000	
Tunisia	<10	10-49	50-99	39.8	40.3	19.9	8,650	
Uganda	1-9	10-49	50-99	97.9	1.9	0.2	160,453	

Source: International Finance Corporation (2006)

Country	MSME Definitions (number of employees)			Number of MSMEs			Employment (% total)
	Micro	Small	Medium	Micro	SMEs	Total MSMEs	MSME
Nigeria	1-5	6-20	21-50	6,720,000	1,680,000	8,400,000	50.0

Kushnir et al. (2010)

#### 4.5.1: Analysis of Entrepreneurship Intervention Programmes in Nigeria

Before and after political independence, Nigeria experimented with different entrepreneurship development interventions (EDIs) for the purpose of promoting agricultural, industrial and overall economic development in the country. These EDIs have consistently failed to stimulate employment generation, poverty reduction and accelerated economic growth and development (Raimi, Mobolaji and Bello, 2010). The first development plan in the history of Nigeria was the 1946 ten-year colonial development plan, which was launched



to expand economic potentials of Nigeria through projects that would stimulate economic growth potentials of the country (Ogunjimi, 1997; Olowookere, 2012; NBS, 2012). Despite the plan's laudable intentions, it suffered a number of set-backs because of its selective implementation; and secondly it favoured foreign businesses to the detriment of local businesses operating in the agricultural value chain (Salawu et al, 2006; Oladejo, 2013). The plan negatively affected the MSMEs and crippled the artistic creativity of local craftsmen to the satisfaction of foreign corporations which brought finished goods from their home country (Oladejo (2013).

The second development plan (1955-1960) for the country was formulated to improve the Nigerian economy, while awaiting independence scheduled for 1960 (Olaniyi, 1998; Salawu et al., 2006). The major drawback of the plan was poor implementation and structural changes forced on the colonial administration as a result of the euphoria of self-rule (Olowookere, 2012).

After independence, the Federal government pursued four (4) national development plans (NDPs), with similar policy thrusts (Olayiwola and Adeleye, 2005). The National Planning Commission (2011) noted that the four plans focused economic development and social progress, especially building infrastructure, industrialization, economic growth, poverty reduction, and improvement in the living standards of the people.

The First National Development Plan (1962 to 1968) focused massive production of food and cash crops for consumption and exports as well as employment for rural communities. The expectations were that the nation would earn foreign exchange from exports of crops to procure machineries required for industrial and agricultural development (Raimi et al. 2010; Olowookere, 2012). Government provided incentives scheme such as institutional support, easy access to credit facilities at reasonable rates; establishment of commercial banks; provision of continuous training for farmer as well as empowerment with research prototypes/findings; and provision of enabling environment et cetera (NBS, 2012). In spite of the objectives of the plan, it could not nurture MSMEs because of the Adhoc nature of its implementation. Secondly, the plan was premised on the assumption that with rapid agricultural production and exports, the nation would become industrialised, curtail poverty and enhance welfare for the citizens (Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012).

Second National Development Plan (1970-1974) started under General Yakubu Gowon with the objective of achieving a united, just, strong and self-reliant nation or "the

vision of the 3Rs - Reintegration, Rehabilitation and Reconciliation” (Eneh, 2011:65). To make the plan successful several welfare incentives were provided for the industrial and agricultural sectors as well as small businesses (NBS, 2012). Also, government focused road constructions and infrastructural development with the intention of enhancing transportation of agricultural produce from the suburbs to the cities thereby boosting entrepreneurship capacities of the rural communities. The plan like its forerunners could not accelerate industrialisation and economic development because the plan’s implementation process favoured agricultural production as the strategy for industrial growth (Obadan, 2001; Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012).

Some other features of the plan are promulgation of the Nigerian Enterprise Promotion Decree (NEPD) of 1972, which was an intervention law that ensured visibility of Nigerians in the industrial landscape. It gave Nigerian industrialists 40% of equity ownership in the major MNCs, while foreigners retained 60%. The zeal to empower indigenous entrepreneurs more led to the replacement of NEPD with another stringent policy christened Indigenization Decree of 1977. Indigenization Decree (ID) empowered Nigerian entrepreneurs with higher equity and reduced foreign ownership to 40 per cent, away from the 60 per cent allotted to foreigners under NEPD. The Decree therefore eliminated dominance of foreign MNCs in Nigeria by restructuring the ownership, control and management in favour of Nigerians (Okpara, Ajuka and Nwahowa, 2012).

Hitherto, the major trading outlets were owned exclusively by foreigners (Ogunkola and Jerome, 2006). It may be argued that the second development plan was beneficial to MSMEs for few strategic reasons. One, both policies increased participation of Nigerians in the ownership and running of foreign MNCs. Two, there was a sustainable growth in the outputs of agro-allied & textile industry, the petroleum/petrochemicals sub-sector, and the iron & steel sector (Oladejo, 2013). As good as NEPD and ID appeared, they were unsustainable policies that discouraged foreign investors and MNCs. The resultant negative effect was “a decline in foreign investment [an ugly development which] slowed down the pace of economic activities in all sectors of the economy” (Udoh and Egwaikhide, 2008:15).

Third National Development Plan (1975-1980) was launch under the leadership of General Yakubu Gowon for the purpose of reducing the daunting challenges facing Nigeria (Salawu et al., 2006). It was argued that the plan had five nebulous and immeasurable objectives, which were: (a) free and democratic society; (b) a just and egalitarian society; (c) united, strong and self-reliant nation; (d) a great and dynamic economy; (e) land of bright and

full opportunities for all citizens (Lewis, 2007:60). The plan attempted to reduce disparities among the three Regions through integrated rural development; rural electrification scheme; establishment of River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs); construction of dams/boreholes for rural water supply, housing and healthcare delivery services; and development of several feeder roads for easy movement of agricultural produce (Lewis, 2007; Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012; Olowookere, 2012).

As part of the plan, Gowon's administration introduced MSMEs-oriented programmes like Import Substitution Strategy (ISS), National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) and Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative Bank (NACB). These efforts were initiated to enhance the capacity of agro-allied enterprises for self-sufficiency in crops production, exports and employment generation for idle Nigerians (Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012; Raimi et al., 2015). The first major weakness of the plan was that its laudable objectives were not successfully implemented because of military take-over of government on July 1975, three months into the plan implementation (Olowookere, 2012). Also, the plan collapsed because of poor conceptualisation and lack of commitment to its execution by the policymakers (Raimi et al., 2010). Thirdly, the objectives of the plan were too ambitious, broad and not linked to any specific time period (Lewis, 2007). Besides, Eneh (2011) noted that the third development plan failed because its foundational objectives were far from being achieved, as it aggravated poverty, ethnic rivalry, kleptocracy, religious riots, disunity, brutality, injustice, unemployment and bad governance. The government that took over from Gowon initiated the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN); as an agricultural scheme designed to empower the unemployed graduates from the universities, colleges of education and polytechnics as well as able-bodied non-graduates to embrace mechanised farming as reliable mechanisms for self-employment, food sufficiency and wealth creation in Nigeria (Agbi, 2011; Arogundade et al., 2011). A major factor for the failure of the third development plan is lack of sustainability and political instability.

Fourth National Development Plan (1981 to 1985) was initiated by President Shehu Aliyu Shagari, unlike previous plans implemented by the Military regimes. The plan's objectives were attainment of balanced development, rural infrastructural enhancement and recognition of the local governments as development partners (Salawu et al., 2006; Ukah, 2007). The gains of the plan were establishment of eleven River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), completion of rural electrification projects, provision of boreholes for portable water supply, construction of dams for agricultural purposes, construction of roads and dredging of jetties to enhance transportation links with rural communities (Olayiwola and

Adeleye, 2005). Within the planning period, the government introduced the Green Revolution as an intervention programme for boosting agricultural output and discouraged importation of food and cash crops (Raimi et al., 2010). These initiatives were beneficial to MSMEs operating in the agricultural sector because they improved agricultural production in areas where the projects were domiciled (Akhemonkhan et al., 2012). However, the deliverables of the fourth development plan were not sustainable because its implementation was disrupted by successive changes of government between 1983 and 1985 (Salawu et al., 2006). The Green revolution in particular compromised by corruption, illegal appropriation of agricultural farmlands and diversion of funds earmarked for agricultural sector enhancement (Raimi et al., 2010; Akhuemonkhan, et al., 2013). The Buhari-Idiagbon's regime, which overthrew the Shagari's administration in 1983, introduced Go-Back-To-Land Programme to boost self-employment, food production and agro-allied enterprises. The scheme "failed because it was built on a wrong premise that poverty can be reduced by agricultural expansion" (Akhuemonkhan, et al., 2013:5).

Perspective Rolling Plans (1986-1999) was introduced by General Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida (Olowookere, 2012). The regime established the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) and National Directorate of Employment (NDE). DFRRI sought to bring relief to farmers through infrastructural development thereby boosting agricultural production, employment and poverty reduction, but the directorate failed due to lack of proper focus and programme accountability (Iwuchukwu and Igbokwe, 2012:14). With respect to NALDA, the intention of government was to optimise the land resources for wealth creation, employment, food production, enhanced living standards of the rural communities as well as attaining national self-sufficiency. It failed because of opportunistic allocation of land and financial resources to politicians and influential elites rather than the poor which the programme focused (Iwuchukwu and Igbokwe, 2012).

The NDE as a component of the plan was designed to train people to be self-reliant and self-employed. Its objectives were articulated under four (4) entrepreneurship programmes, namely: Small-scale Industries and Graduate Employment Programme (SSIGEP), National Youth Employment and Vocational Skills Development Programme (NYEVSDP), Agricultural sector Employment programme (ASEP) and Special Public Works programme (SPWP) (Arogundade et al., 2011; Osemeke, 2012). Concurrently, IBB's wife, late Mariam Babangida set up a pet project tagged Better Life for Rural Women for the purpose of motivating and empowering the rural women across the country believed to be economically

disenfranchised (Arogundade et al., 2011; Akhuenonkhan et al., 2012). The huge investment in entrepreneurship intervention programmes like NDE, NALDA, BLFRW, and DFRRRI did not pay-off as these projects yielded poor socio-economic returns (Okpara et al., (2012).

At a stage during IBB's regime, Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was officially adopted in 1986 as a neoliberal policy for diversifying, repositioning and restructuring the Nigerian economy which was comatose and import-dependent (Ogugua, 1994; Olowookere, 2012). SAP represented a set of systematic reforms recommended to the government by the International Monetary Fund as measures for accelerating economic recovery, reducing waste in governance, managing external debt burden, boosting local production/exports, attracting foreign direct investment (FDI) and attaining balanced budget required to propel the economy on the path of sustainable growth (Ogugua, 1994). SAP has supporters and antagonists, and each side provided economic justifications to back their viewpoints. The National Bureau of Statistics (2012) described SAP,

*“As an inward-looking policy that emphasises the use of local raw materials ... [by] local producers, particularly Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)...Thus, the Structural Adjustment Policy of 1986 saw the rising profile of increased number of MSMEs. As form of encouragement, policies were adopted to use the sector as stepping stone for both job creation and industrialization. Industrial development centres, industrial estates, World Bank assisted programmes were put in place to encourage the sector. Various SMEs institutions were also established... These institutions were however not sustained because they were products of political regimes and went into extinction as soon as the regimes were brought to an end. Moreover, there were no enabling laws to formally establish MSMEs in Nigeria; as they suffered neglects, constraint to effective development, and funds starvation.” (p.22)*

SAP like other policies had limitations. It is believed that SAP provoked astronomical increase in prices; drop in the living standards of small income earners, upsurge in crime, illnesses as well escalated cases of industrial actions (strikes and lockouts) by workers agitating for increment in wages/salaries (Ogugua, 1994). Furthermore, Nwajiuba et al., (2007) noted that SAP imposed hardship on Nigerians as well as other Africans whose nations adopted the same adjustment policy. The unpopular SAP policy precipitated the phenomenon of migration from Nigeria to developed nations otherwise called brain-drain. Besides, SAP's expenditure tightening measures culminated in fall in worker's real wages, adverse redistribution of income, rural urban migration, and reduction in spending on health, education and important social services. The hopelessness and frustration arising from the policy fuelled several social unrests and violent riots and attempted military take-over from IBB (The Library of Congress Studies, 1991).

In 1996 another military take-over ushered in General Sani Abacha as the president. The government replaced IBB's development plan with the Vision 2010 blueprint on September 18, 1996 (Salawu et al., 2006). The Vision 2010 was formulated to improve the wellbeing and quality of life of the citizens within a period of 14 years from 1996 – 2010 (Ogunjimi, 1997). The blueprint had a number programmes aimed at promoting MSMEs. The blueprint was reinforced by the pet projects of the President's wife called the Family Economic Advancement Programme/FEAP and Family Support Programme/FSP (Raimi et al., 2010). FEAP was funded by government to the tune of N7 billion from which N3.3 billion was appropriated to entrepreneurship development in the areas of animal husbandry/poultry, garri processing, soap/detergent production and agric-oriented enterprises (Arogundade et al., 2011).

The framework of the Vision 2010 includes: deregulation policy, release of political prisoners, and need for swift transition to civil rule, as well as infrastructural building and development of new capital projects (Salawu et al., 2006). Although the regime did not live up to 2010, the impact of the Vision was prematurely counterproductive as it led to mass retrenchment of public servants; rising poverty and hardship; pronounced incidences of failed bank, failed contracts and illegal deals, political victimization/arrest of opposition. The FEAP and FSP failed because they were not people-driven, but championed by politicians for selfish ends (Raimi et al., 2014).

Sequel to the return to democratic rule effective from May 29, 1999, the former President Olusegun Obasanjo came up with new EDIs designed to reposition the economic and political landscape of the country (Arogundade et al., 2011; NBS, 2012). The programmes introduced by Obasanjo's administration within the span of 1999-2007 include:

- ✚ **National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS).** This was a socio-economic blueprint operated at the three levels of government. At the state level, it was SEEDS (State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy), and at the local level it was acronymed LEEDS (Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy). The NEEDS framework was built on four goals: Wealth creation, Employment generation, Poverty reduction and Value reorientation (NEEDS Document, 2004, NPC, 2004). The evaluation of these laudable objectives by analysts is often based on the performances of NEEDS programmes. The performance is marginal, as it has been replaced by new economic blueprint by successive regimes.

✚ **National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP).** The NAPEP was a poverty-alleviation programme designed to promote skill acquisition, direct job creation with tricycles, seeds capital and youth empowerment (NEEDS Document, 2004; Raimi et al., 2010; Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012). According to Arogundade et al., (2011), NAPEP's operations were structured into schemes for easy coordination by the National Coordinating Office. These schemes included: Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), Rural Infrastructures Development Scheme (RIDS), Social Welfare Services Scheme (SOWESS) and Natural Resource Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS). At inception NAPEP was provided N6 billion subvention for poverty programme design, implementation and coordination across Nigeria. Official records indicated that several Nigerians were trained and empowered by NAPEP's under the various schemes enunciated above (Arogundade et al., 2011). However, NAPEP was alleged to have aggravated poverty, by creating opportunity for the political class and technocrats to divert funds meant for empowerment and welfare programmes to personal coffers and award of contracts to consultancy firms linked to NAPEP officials (Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012; BusinessDay, 2010).

✚ **Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).** The Millennium Development Goals was conceived in 2000 as an international response to tackle poverty and associated social ills (United Nations Millennium Declaration, 2000). Nigeria like other nations endorsed and adopted the eight (8) goals as a blueprint for sustainable growth and development for solving problems of developing nations (Raimi et al., 2010). The eight (8) MDGs with 18 measurable Targets and Timelines which are to be met by 2015 are as highlighted below:

- ⇔ Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- ⇔ Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education
- ⇔ Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
- ⇔ Goal 4: Reduce child mortality
- ⇔ Goal 5: Improve maternal health
- ⇔ Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- ⇔ Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability
- ⇔ Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development (UN MDGs, 2000)

Despite adoption of MDGs, Nigeria and other developing nations manifested weak track records on the implementations of MDGs; because the eight (8) goals are far from being actualised (Haines and Cassels, 2004; Visser (2008).

✚ **Deregulation and Liberalization Policy (DLP).** Deregulation within the Nigerian context was embraced to accord greater importance to the organised private sector as opposed to exclusive dominance and control of the economy by the government and its agencies (Dappa and Daminabo (2011). Deregulation in the Nigerian telecommunication industry has been very successful because prior to 1999, Nigeria had only 400,000 connected telephone lines supported by another 25,000 analogue lines to cater for the entire population (Adeyinka, et al., 2007). The total teledensity then stood at low ebb of 0.4 lines per 100 inhabitants in areas where the citizens are fortunate to have telephone signals (International Telecommunication Union, 2004). Also, there was an increment in the telecommunication customer base from 508,316 in 1999 to 81,931,223 in 2010 corresponding to 16000% growth rate (Hassan, 2011). The telecommunication industry after deregulation generated direct new jobs and encouraged unlimited indirect employment (NCC, 2004). The number of employment has risen to millions in the recent times (Osemene, 2012). Another indicator of performance in the sector was the injection of Foreign Direct and Domestic Investment (FDI) valued at US\$4 billion, from which the financial sector profited immensely (NCC, 2004). The above positive trends when combined have assisted the growth and development of telecommunication-oriented SMEs in Nigeria.

✚ **Small Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN).** This is a supervisory agency established by SMEDAN Act of 2004 to facilitate and coordinate all extant public policies on MSMEs in Nigeria (SMEDAN Act, 2004; NEEDS, 2004.). The agency carried out a number of activities directed at entrepreneurship and small business development such as creating a “One-Stop Shop” for MSMEs, conducting specialised entrepreneurial capacity-building training for members of the National Youth Services Corps (NYSC) under the ‘Coppers Entrepreneurial Programme (CEP)’, to empower graduates to be self-reliant, self-employed and self-motivated after the expiration of their one-year volunteerism. Access to ‘technical skill development’ like CEP has been extended to non-graduates outside the formal higher education setting in recent times (Osemeke, 2012:261). Other beneficial services of SMEDAN include: development and dissemination of business information; provision of business development services, advancing entrepreneurship education & training, guidance on rudiments access to market and finance, and



provision of advice on enterprise development/enterprise cooperation and ensuring that business operating environment for MSMEs is enabling (NBS, 2012).

✚ **Microfinance Banking in Nigeria (MFBN).** Sequel to the abrogation of community banking model because of mismanagement of depositors' funds, the Central Bank of Nigeria launched the microfinance regulatory framework in 2005 (NBS, 2012). The framework on MFBs emphasised governance and ownership structure, lending methodology, borrower characteristics, appropriate management information system, internal control mechanisms and procedures for operations (CBN, 2005), which had been the missing link in the previous micro-credit models like Peoples Bank of Nigeria, Community Bank, Sectoral Allocation of Credits, Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme, Nigerian Agricultural and Co-operative Bank (NACB) and Rural Banking Programme (Abraham and Balogun, 2012). MFBs were desirable because commercial banks lend to big enterprises with high credit reliability as opposed to MSMEs (Anyanwu, 2010). Furthermore, Babandi (2011) explained that MFBs perform three roles in Nigeria. These include: (a) mainstreaming economic growth, (b) provision of access to financial services to vulnerable segment of the society, and (c) acting as intervention mechanisms for people with low income. Several surveys had been undertaken to evaluate the performances of MFBs. As at 2001, the Central Bank of Nigeria reported a phenomenal growth in the sector with a total of 160 registered MFIs, aggregate savings of N99.4 million and micro credits to SMEs of N649.6 million (Anyanwu, 2004). In another study, Abraham and Balogun (2012) identified a total of 665 MFBs with uneven geographical spread across Nigeria. Lagos has the highest of 181 MFBs followed by Anambra state with 68 MFBs and Abuja with 48 MFBs.

Despite the potentials of microfinance model, its major weakness as an entrepreneurship development intervention in Nigeria is poor access by prospective MSMEs. According to Mohammed and Hasan (2008), the MFBs in the country provide access to “less than 1 million people out of 40 million” prospective customer/MSMEs and the contribution of MFBs to GDP was just a pittance of 0.2 percent, hence MFBs cannot alleviate poverty nor accelerate “growth and development” (p.2).

✚ **Small and Medium Industries Equity Investment (SMIEIS).** The Bankers' Committee (BC) at its 246th meeting with CBN reviewed the plight of SMEs in Nigeria and consequently agreed to assist the sector with 10 per cent of banks' annual

profit after tax (PAT) under a private-sector scheme called Small and Medium Enterprises Equity Investment Scheme (Anyanwu, 2004; NBS 2012). The scheme although commendable suffered a major weakness associated with poor utilization rate of 3 percent (Inegbenebor, 2006). An overview of SMEEIS's performance for a period of ten years (1999 to 2009) put SMEEIS's accumulated fund at N42 billion (NBS, 2012). Poor access to the fund prompted the BC to allow 10 per cent of SMEEIS's funds to be disbursed as support loans to "micro-enterprises through registered microfinance institutions" in Nigeria (Anyanwu, 2004:10). Five-year overview of SMEEIS's performance from December 1999 to December 2004, revealed that SMEEIS had accumulated N42 billion (Anyanwu, 2004).

Yar'adua's 7-Point Agenda (2007-2010) is an economic blueprint of late President Umaru Musa Yar'adua, which became effective on 29th May 2007. The objective of the Agenda was infrastructural building, empowerment of the citizens and sustainable economic development (Dung-Gwom, 2010). It was also developed as an intervention measure for accelerating economic growth and development in Nigeria. The key elements of the blueprint in clear terms were: (i) Power and Energy, (ii) Food Security, (iii) Wealth Creation, (iv) Transport Sector, (v) Land Reforms, (vi) Security and (vii) Education (Dung-Gwom, 2010; Dode, 2010). It was explained that the 7-Point Agenda was a failure when its performance is correlated with indices of economic development like unemployment, corruption, growth of SMEs. The failure also occurred because the administration "lacks the political and administrative will to implement the seven-point agenda with the zeal it deserves" and its scope was bogus and should have been reduced to at most two agenda (Dode, 2010:7-8).

In 2009, the same government came up with the Vision 20:2020 as a long-term economic blueprint designed to launch Nigeria towards a path of rapid socio-economic development (Dung-Gwom, 2010; Nigeria Vision 20:2020, 2009). The blueprint was intended to run for eleven years (11) from 2009 to 2020. The blueprint envisages "a minimum GDP of \$900 billion and a per capita income of no less than \$4000 per annum" if the economy is well managed (Nigeria Vision 20:2020 Blueprint, 2009:9). The 7-point Agenda and NV20:2020 had very low performance scorecard in spite of the huge resources expended on them; the power sector in Nigeria remains epileptic; the rate of unemployment hovers around 23.9%; poverty rate rose to 69% and the debt profile surged (CBN 2010; NBS, 2010; Raimi et al., 2014).

On the assumption of office in 2011, President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan introduced the Economic Transformation Agenda (ETA) and continued the Vision 20:2020. The ETA is planned to run from 2011 to 2015. It is designed to correct the flaws in the country's drive for sustainable growth and development, for the overall enhancement of the welfare of Nigerian citizens. Transformation Agenda draws its inspiration from the Vision 20:2020 (Usigbe, 2011). The following are some programmes implemented to drive the Transformation agenda.

₦200 Billion Small and Medium Scale Enterprises Guarantee Scheme (SMECGS) is an intervention scheme created by the Central Bank of Nigeria as part of government's developmental agenda (CBN, 2010, NBS, 2012). The scheme provides guarantee support to SMEs to the tune of N100 million once the terms and conditions of lending are met by prospective SMEs (CBN, 2010). An overview of the performance of SMECGS revealed that, it suffered the same fate as the Small and Medium Industries Equity Investment (SMIEIS) established in 1999. The first problem is linked to the definitional construct of SMEs provided by CBN; the definition precludes so many small businesses that require SMECGS intervention support. The second problem is linked to apathy from SMEs and participating banks to access the fund fearing environmental risk factors in Nigeria. Kolawole (2010) affirmed that the CBN lamented that five months after the commencement of SMECGS, the banks showed apathy towards accessing the funds because no formal application was made. Another problem relates to formalities of business registration, filling of several applications for CGS, evidence of collateral and the clause of compulsory membership of organised association (CBN, 2010).

The Film Fund (FF) is established as support fund under the custody of the Bank of Industry to support entrepreneurs in the film industry. Beneficiaries include creative artistes, producers and SMEs, who needed to be supported with funds for the production of their creative films and artistic products. The Film Fund became expedient to support entrepreneurs in the SMEs categorisation (Onogu, 2012; Raimi et al., 2014).

The ₦100 billion Cotton, Textile and Garment (CTG) Fund is an intervention fund established by the Central Bank of Nigeria to bail-out MSMEs in the cotton/textile industry from infrastructural and operational challenges. The fund is part of government's economic recovery strategy for the actualisation of the transformation agenda of the Jonathan administration (NBS, 2012).

Power and Aviation Intervention Fund (PAIF) is another intervention fund established to reposition the aviation sector. Considering the vibrancy of the sector, the sum of ₦300 billion was earmarked for Power and Aviation sectors under the PAIF (Kolawole, 2010). It is the believed of policymakers that when the two sectors are well positioned, they would serve as springboards and catalysts for the growth of real sector of the economy, a boost to private sector investment and enhancement of the wellbeing the citizens (CBN, 2012).

The ₦2 billion National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND) is an intervention funding created by government boost the status of MSMEs in Nigeria. The ₦2 billion support funds are disbursed as soft loans to MSMEs through SMEDAN based on the viability of their business plans. The policy objective of the fund is to stimulate and strengthen the MSMEs towards the economic aspirations of the Government (NBS, 2012:27).

Counterpart Funding Scheme (CFS) is designed by the Bank of Industry (BOI) as funding option for the MSME sector in Nigeria. The CFS is a collaborative arrangement between the BOI and selected state governments that partnered to support MSMEs in their states. A participating state government provides “one billion Naira to the bank for on-lending to micro, small and medium enterprises in such state”, while BOI complements “with additional one billion Naira...The scheme has gone a long way in solving the challenge of adequate finance confronting many MSMES in the various states” (NBS, 2012:28).

Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (You Win) is a programme created to promote youth entrepreneurship in Nigeria. It started in 2011 as an annual business plan competition (BPC) from which the most innovative business plans of participating entrepreneurs are financed and supported (YouWiN, 2013). The Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWiN!) is the initiative of three agencies of government, namely: Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Communication Technology and Ministry of Youth Development, with private sector funders and SMEDAN as the monitors (NBS, 2012). The purpose of You WiN entrepreneurial programme is to fast tract job creations among creative youth in the country through rigorous demonstration of enterprise skills, leadership and innovativeness (NBS, 2012).

The ₦5 billion Dangote Fund for MSMEs was created on May 12, 2013 under the public-private partnership (PPP) scheme to support MSMEs in Nigeria. The fund is under the guardianship of the Bank of Industry (BOI) and could be accessed by qualified MSMEs to expand their enterprises (NBS, 2012). The fund attracts 5 per cent interest and accessible to

four types of beneficiaries, namely: Members of Cooperative Associations, Stand alone or Individual borrowers, Small enterprises and Medium Enterprises (BOI, 2012).

Subsidy Reinvestment & Empowerment Programme (SURE-P) is an intervention programme inaugurated on the 13<sup>th</sup> February 2012 as a response to cushion the impact of removal of fuel subsidy on Premium Motor Spirit (PMS). It is part of the Economic transformation agenda, with a life span of three years (2012 – 2015). The savings from subsidy removal was dedicated as SURE-P fund and being utilised for socio-economic projects and programmes considered beneficial to the citizens (SURE-P, 2013). Like other EDIs, the SURE-P intervention is criticized as being subverted. The weakness of SURE-P is linked to the manner in which the scheme was hastily conceptualized and designed within 6 months, by the Finance Minister and the nation's Economic Team. The goals were equally viewed as unattainable as the policy document left out vital omissions and some figures were at variance due to lack thoroughness in swift attempts to provide academic justification for subsidy removal (Sobowale, 2013). At present it is being speculated that N500 billion SURE-P's fund is missing (Adisa, 2013).

In spite of the laudable policy thrusts of all the above-highlighted EDIs, they have been rendered ineffective as a result of political corruption, fraudulent implementation of public policies and bad governance (Young, 1999; Ukah, 2007; Raimi et al., 2014) or the phenomenon described as failure of the state (Blatter, 2012).

#### **4.5.2: Constraints Facing SMEs in Nigeria and Africa**

There are 8.4 million micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) in Nigeria (Kushnir et al., 2010) as against 17.28 million SMEs reported in a national survey conducted by National Bureau of Statistics across the country (Adeyemi, 2013: 40). The national survey on SMEs in Nigeria notes that “out of ... [the total SMEs] 17.26 million are micro enterprises employing less than 10 persons and [each micro-business is] valued at less than N5 million each” (Adeyemi, 2013: 40). As significant as SMEs are for economic growth, they are hindered by operational and institutional constraints (OICs), which include: limited access to loans due to lack of collateral, insufficient managerial acumen, infrastructural deficiencies especially electricity, and dubious legal systems. Other identified constraints facing SMEs include: mind-set to remain informal, inability to afford new technology, an unfriendly tax system, local markets, lack of incentives from governments, corruption, difficult business registration, ineffective partnership among stakeholders in the region, lack of a succession plan, inadequate legal framework on SMEs, and dying culture of entrepreneurship (Kauffmann,

2005; Newberry, 2006; Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2006; BEEP, 2007; Oyelola et al., 2013; Adeyemi, 2013).

The multifaceted operational constraints as highlighted above are forced on SMEs by the harsh business environment where they are domiciled. Despite all the inhibiting constraints, new entrepreneurs go into small businesses and suddenly end up bankrupt because of three-fold causes linked to apathy by the capital market to promote SMEs, banks' unwillingness to fund SMEs fearing risks and imperfect information flow about viable opportunities in SMEs (Felsenstein and Fleischer, 2002: 198). The SMEs in Nigeria are in terrible state going by the results of another national survey conducted by the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (Adeyemi, 2013; Oyelola et al., 2013). The survey outcome shows that eight hundred and thirty-four (834) manufacturing SMEs shut down their facilities in 2009 (Olubukola, 2013; Sani, Ugbede and Usman, 2011), a development linked to SMEs' inability to cope with the challenges of high overhead cost and a difficult business environment in Nigeria. Other socio-economic factors that precipitated failures of 834 SMEs in Nigeria include unstable electricity supply and multiple taxes across the three levels of governance (Oyelola, 2013: 208). The failed SMEs across the six geographical zones in Nigeria is as shown below:

- 176 SMEs closed down factories in the northern zone;
- 178 SMEs closed down in the south-east zone;
- 46 SMEs closed down operations in the south-south zone;
- 225 SMEs closed down in the south-west area, and 214 SMEs closed down in Lagos zone (Olubukola, 2013; Sani et al., 2011; Oyelola et al., 2013).

**Table 4.5: Problems and Challenges of Entrepreneurship in Nigeria**

Challenges of SMES in Nigeria	Nigeria (%)	Small (%)	Medium (%)	Large (%)
Access to Finance	15.55	17.01	11.52	3.90
Access to Land	2.85	2.70	3.38	2.85
Licenses & Permits	0.57	0.58	0.60	0.00
Corruption	1.87	2.13	1.12	0.00
Courts	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Crime, Theft & Disorder	2.07	1.64	3.40	4.33
Customs & Trade Registration	1.31	1.09	2.23	0.00
Electricity	63.63	62.66	65.50	78.78
Inadequately educated workforce	0.31	0.32	0.32	0.00
Labour regulations	0.09	0.07	0.20	0.00
Political instability	0.70	0.79	0.45	0.00
Practices Informal Sector	1.05	0.92	1.66	0.00
Tax Administration	0.28	0.12	0.49	3.48
Tax Rates	2.24	2.11	2.70	2.49
Transportation	7.49	7.88	6.42	4.16

**Source:** Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Surveys (2007)

From Table 4.5 above, the five major challenges facing SMEs in Nigeria that have attracted global reporting are electricity (63.3%), access to finance (15.55%), transportation (7.49%), access to land (2.85%) and tax rate (2.24%).

#### **4.6: Chapter Summary**

Chapter 4 discussed the detail of entrepreneurship. The chapter explored the definitional constructs of entrepreneurship through academic and institutional lenses, and concluded highlighting the various typologies of entrepreneurship. Next was the critique of measurements of entrepreneurship in the field. Also, emerging issues with regards to entrepreneurship and CSR synergy were discussed. Moreover, the chapter highlighted the various definitions of SMEs as well as previous entrepreneurship interventions programmes (EIPs) from 1961 to 2013. Discussion on the operational constraints facing the sector in Nigeria was given due consideration. The chapter proposed CSRE as a better framework for bridging the gaps left by the previous frameworks/intervention programmes.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

*“...no one interpretational mode or set of theoretical tools or interpretational stance is adequate or exhaustive of the analytical possibilities of policy analysis” (Ball, 1994: 109).*

### 5.0: Introduction

The last two chapters were devoted to review of literature on CSR and Entrepreneurship. The exercise provides this research with useful insights, theories and methodological possibilities as well as gaps. The purpose of chapter five is to develop a sound theoretical framework with a coherent underpinning. The chapter has six sections. Section 5.1 provides background discussion on the significance of the theoretical framework, while Section 5.2 looks at the rationale for theory selection, adaptation and application in academic research. Section 5.3 critiques the dominant CSR theories. Section 5.4 reviews the prevalent entrepreneurship theories to balance the study. Section 5.5 develops a meta-theoretical framework from two adopted theories for the research. Section 5.6 concludes with a summary of all issues discussed in the chapter.

### 5.1: Theoretical Framework

New research taps into previous empirical and theoretical works for the purpose of developing a better approach or to gain deeper insights on phenomenon being investigated (Brown, 2006). In line with academic tradition, this thesis explores dominant theories in the field of CSR and Entrepreneurship research, and then integrates the relevant two to form a meta-theory. In the CSR field, Secchi, (2007) traced the history of classification of CSR theories to Preston (1975). The endeavour was sustained later by Frederick (1978, 1986, 1998), Klonoski (1991) and Garriga and Melé (2004), Brammer et al., (2012) etc. In contemporary research, the dominant theories in the field of CSR include: shareholder, stakeholder, legitimacy, instrumental, conflict, green, development, social contract and communication theories (Health and Norman, 2004; Amaeshi et al., 2006; Sweeney, 2009; Liu and Fong, 2010; Mohr et al., 2010; Adelopo, 2010; Obalola, 2010; Yekini, 2012; Mordi, 2012; Delchet-Cochet and Vo, 2012). Table 5.1 below provides a concise review of the dominant CSR theories in the field of CSR.



**Table 5.1a:** Summary of Dominant CSR Theories

SN	Summary of the Theory	Sources
1.	<b>Shareholder Theory:</b> The theory explains the economic relationship between corporations and their shareholders; it states that the primary responsibility of any business entity is the maximisation of shareholders' wealth or equity capital. If there is CSR at all, it is directed only at the shareholders.	Friedman 1970; Sweeney, 2009; Adelopo, 2010; Obalola, 2010; Pfarrer, 2010; Luhman and Cunliffe, 2013
2.	<b>Agency theory:</b> The theory discusses the contractual relationships between shareholders (as principals) and managers (as agents) within a defined governance structure. For the economic interest of the principals to be achieved, there is need for a clear role for agents, as well as requisite remuneration to forestall economic risk/loss and clash of interests. The agent has responsibility only to the Principal for which the former is remunerated.	Jensen and Meckling, 1976; Hill and Jones, 1992; Ryan and Schneider, 2003; Connelly et al., 2010; Nyberg et al., 2010
3.	<b>Stakeholder Theory:</b> The theory is built on the premise that corporations exist to meet the needs of multiple stakeholders with different level of interests based on their power of influence, legitimacy of claims and urgency of claims in the operating environment. CSR is an obligation directed at multiple stakeholders, who are believed to have genuine stakes in the fortunes of corporations.	Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997; Gibson, 2000; Weiss, 2003; Freeman et al., 2004; Garriga and Mele; 2004; Secchi, 2007; Ismail, 2009
4.	<b>Legitimacy Theory:</b> The theory asserts that while doing legitimate business, the corporations must comply fully with enabling laws and prevailing norms of the society thereby earning economic and social licenses or risk sanctions from the public, government and other licensers. CSR is a commitment to comply with laws and norms of the society.	Carroll, 1999; Mazza, 1999; Gunningham, Kagan and Thornton, 2002; Deegan, 2002; Suchman, 1995; Bather and Tucker, 2011, Tilling, 2004; Jamali and Mirshak, 2007
5.	<b>Instrumental theory:</b> The theory presumes that corporations adopt CSR as a relational/strategic tool for achieving economic prosperity and gains, during short-term or long-term periods. CSR is an instrument for enhancing positive business performance (measured in terms of profit, reputation, sales and better market ratings).	Hampton, 1995; Garriga and Mele, 2004; Vogel, 2005; Gond, Palazzo and Basu, 2007; Sweeney, 2009; Ismail, 2009; Kiran and Sharma, 2011
6.	<b>Social contract theory:</b> This theory views CSR as an ethical obligation for the fulfilment of the social contract that corporations owe the people by operating in their environment. CSR is a mechanism used by corporations for ensuring social justice, fairness, equity, human rights and social concerns.	Rawls, 1999; Cassel, 2001; Bichta, 2003; Rummel, 1977; Leisinger, 2006, Eigen, 2011; Sunder, 2012; UN Global Compact, 2014
7.	<b>Conflict theory:</b> This theory provides a theoretical explanation for competitive struggle among social classes, state actors and non-state actors in their attempts to protect their selfish socio-economic and political interests in the society. CSR is used by corporations for neutralising and averting conflict and struggle over who gets what, when, and how in the society.	Aka 2003; Watts, 2005; Franke. 2007; Ecumenical Council for Corporate Responsibility, 2010; Olowu, 2010; Natufe, 2011; Moen, 2012

8.	<b>Green Theory:</b> The theory is premised on normative and political arguments, that corporations should be concerned with environmental and economic sustainability of their operations. CSR is used as policy for preservation of the ecosystem, rights of the people, justice, citizenship, good governance/democracy and environment.	Wagner 2003; Grant. 2007; Szuster, 2008; Dunne, Kurki and Smith, 2010; Eckersley, 2010
10.	<b>Development Theory:</b> The theory advocates that CSR should be a mechanism for accelerating economic growth, a peaceful society and desirable social change by corporations. Developmental CSR is justified in developing nations because of weak governmental structures. CSR is therefore a commitment to welfare of the society and enhancement of a higher standard of living by corporations because of governance and infrastructural gaps.	Nelson, 2000; Timms, 2004; Dusuki, 2008; Amaeshi et al., 2006; Jamali and Mirshak, 2007; Visser, (2008), Barkemeyer, 2009; Murphy 2010; Tausif, 2011; Natufe, 2012; Karam and Jamali 2013; Raimi et al., 2014
11	<b>Communication Theories:</b> These theories are of different strands: Semiotic, Signaling, Hermeneutics, Agenda-setting, Social judgement, social interactionism. The point of convergence is that CSR is used as tools by corporations for communication with the public as well as publicity through social, accounting and environmental reporting of its CSR. CSR is a tool for communication between corporations and a diverse public, government, investors and regulators via media, annual reporting, flyers, websites community relations etc.	Duvall and Hays, 2001; McCombs and Reynolds, 2002; Herman-Kinney and Reynolds, 2003; Sherratt, 2005; Morsing and Beckmann, 2006; Kaiser and Silva, 2007; Højberg, 2011; Griffin, 2012; Hart, 2012; Raimi et al., 2014

**Source:** Author (2014)

**Table 5.1a:** Summary of Entrepreneurship Theories

SN	Summary of the Theory	Sources
1.	<p><b>Classical Economic Theory:</b> The theory views entrepreneurship as an enabler and driving force of all other factors of production especially land, labour and capital. The theory focuses more on the ‘economic function’ of entrepreneurship, which entails undertaking risk and bearing uncertainty by venturing into production of goods or by purchasing goods for resale to make surplus or profit.</p>	Gates and Steane, 2007; Gutterman, 2012; Nayab, 2011; Simpeh, 2011
2.	<p><b>Neo-Classical Economic Theory:</b> The neo-classical theory identifies knowledge, innovation and creativity as forces that propel entrepreneurship within the market system. Knowledge, innovation and creativity when combined stimulate new products, new processes, new technology, new markets and new firms in an attempt to move the economy from its static equilibrium state to a better stage which enhances economic growth – a phenomenon called ‘<b>Schumpeter’s Creative Destruction</b>’.</p>	Chan, 2005; Gutterman, 2012; Liebenstein, 1995; Schumpeter, 1934; Simpeh, 2011
3.	<p><b>Kirzner’s Theory:</b> Unlike the neo-classical creative destruction theory, Kirzner’s theory follows a different path altogether; it viewed entrepreneurship as synonymous with ‘alertness or cognitive potential’, that is, ability to see and harness economic opportunities within the market system. The gain of profit or other financial returns are rewards for painstaking alertness by entrepreneurs.</p>	Kirzner, 1997; Ricketts and Kirzner, 1992; Simpeh, 2011; Tfulai, 2001
4.	<p><b>Opportunity-Based Theory:</b> Kirzner’s alertness and creative destruction of Schumpeter were fine-tuned by Peter Drucker and Howard Stevenson as Opportunity-Based Theory. Drucker argued that the entrepreneurs merely exploit opportunities that change within the environment created, while Stevenson stated that entrepreneurs are at a vantage position to reap economic opportunities because of their resourcefulness, a trait that made them stand out from others in the market system.</p>	Drucker, 1985; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990; Simpeh, 2011
5.	<p><b>Human Capital Theory:</b> The theory essentially rests on the works of Schultz, who describes the entrepreneur as a form of human capital, and who based on experience and skills propels changes in the society. The theory recommends education, training, skills acquisition and capacity-building as means for attainment of economic growth, entrepreneurial activity and technological progress. Therefore spending on human capital is a worthwhile investment required to enhance productivity.</p>	Becker, 1975; Klein and Cook, 2006; Nkang, 2012; Robert, 1991; Schultz, 1975, Simpeh, 2011
6.	<p><b>Personality trait theory:</b> This is a psychological theory, which states that there are inborn traits or qualities in certain individuals that help them to become successful in their entrepreneurial pursuits. To become successful entrepreneurs, these traits (such as optimism, mental energy, opportunity driven, creativity and innovation, management skills and business know-how, hardworking, integrity, visionary leadership, competitiveness, zeal for continuous improvement) need to be imitated or learned.</p>	Brown and Davidson, 1998; Gutterman, 2012; Hessels, 2008

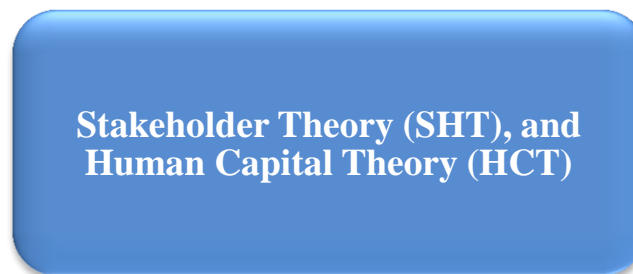
7.	<b>Locus of control theory:</b> This is another psychological theory which presumes that people's success or failure in entrepreneurial activities depends on personal abilities (internal locus of control) and degree of external support received from others (external locus of control). Individuals with high internal locus of control believe they could influence the course of events in life to their own advantage, while those with external locus of control believe that life events are controlled by external forces like luck, chance, fate, which are outside human control.	Alam and Hossan, 2003; Pervin, 1980; Simpeh, 2011
8.	<b>Need For Achievement Theory:</b> This theory emphasises that there exists a relationship between need for achievement and economic development via entrepreneurial activity. In other words, entrepreneurial activity is the process by which the need for achievement leads to economic growth. Conversely, human beings are motivated to pursue their entrepreneurship aspiration because of the need for achievement.	Alam and Hossan, 2003; McClelland, 1961; Miller; 1983; Sofoluwe et al., 2013; Oladele et al., 2011
9.	<b>Risk Taking Theory:</b> The theory views entrepreneurship as a mentality that stimulates individuals to take moderate or calculated risk for which they stand to enjoy a stream of benefits or losses. However, the stream of benefits is a compensation for taking big risks and a great responsibility. People undertake risk attached to entrepreneurship because of economic opportunities.	Alam and Hossan, 2003; Eisenhauer, 1995; Gates and Steane, 2007; Mohar et al., 2007; Sofoluwe et al., 2012
10.	<b>Sociological Theories:</b> The theories prove that desire to become an entrepreneur (or exhibit entrepreneurial behaviour and business-oriented action) is greatly influenced by an individual's socio-economic, cultural and environmental conditions. In other words, prevalent economic conditions and social cultures are forces driving entrepreneurship in the society because these forces configure or shape attitudes and beliefs of people, which in turn influence their entrepreneurial views, behaviour and perception. The socio-cultural and environmental forces which influence entrepreneurship have been explained by scholars with nuances like social development model (SDM), Schumpeter Effect and Desperation/Refugee Effect.	Audretsch and Fritsch, 1994; Becker, 2007; Garofoli, 1994; Nayab, 2011; Oyugi and Kasule, 2012; Reynolds 1991; Simpeh, 2011; Thurik et al., 2008; Weber, 1930
11.	<b>Anthropological Theories:</b> These theories state that entrepreneurship is largely a cultural process, which is stimulated by culture in different degrees of intensity by four clusters, namely: Power Distance (PDI), Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV), Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS) and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). In other words, different cultures promote different entrepreneurship clusters. Some cultural clusters are naturally high in individualism, low in uncertainty avoidance, low in power-distance and high in masculinity.	Franke et al., 2002; Greenfield and Strickon, 1986; Gupta and Fernandez, 2009; Hofstede, 1980; Kitayama, 2002; Stewart, 1991

Source: Author (2014)

The various entrepreneurship theories discussed above evolved over a period of time in eclectic fields like economics, psychology, sociology and anthropology (Leibenstein, 1968; Simpeh, 2011; Oyugi and Kasule, 2012). Absence of field-specific theories for entrepreneurship does not permit prediction of entrepreneurial activity “using deterministic models” hence for a long time entrepreneurship remained within the domain of economics (Becker, 2007: 2).

From the field of CSR and entrepreneurship, the two theories which provide theoretical grounding for this research are as depicted in Figure 5.1 below.

**Figure 5.1:** CSR-Entrepreneurship Theories



**Source:** Author from reviewed literature

## **5.2: Theory Selection and Application**

Theory is the bedrock of meaningful research frameworks; hence, special attention is given to theory selection, adaptation and application in this thesis. The term theory connotes “a system of interrelated propositions that should enable phenomena to be described, explained, predicted, and controlled” in research (Duldt and Griffin, 1985: 1). But, Zimmerman (2012) states that theory confirms hypotheses that have been tested and repeated and supported over time as a valid explanation for a phenomenon.

However, Cullier (2011) remarks that theory is a formulated proposition made by researchers, that if shown through testing to be positive subsequently commands global or universal acceptability irrespective of fields of research. Theory is not selected and applied by users; there are fundamental considerations that must be made prior to selection and application. Based on these vital preconditions, Nyberg et al., (2010) advised that the measurement of a good theory is determined based on its conceptual explanation, application in real life and research opportunities/outcomes.

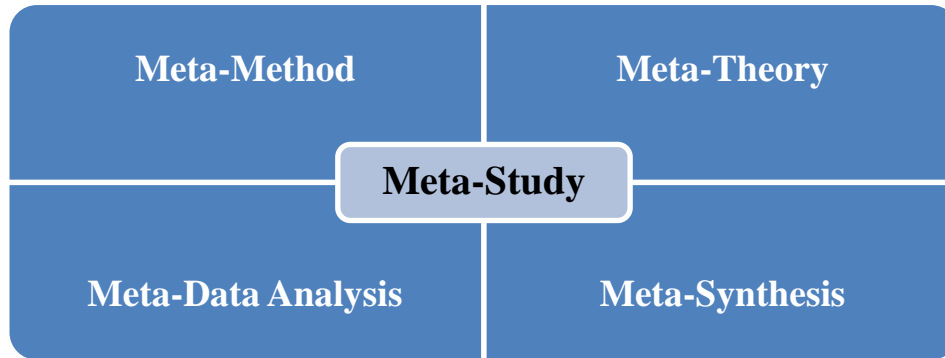
Consequent on the above, integrated theories are preferred because of the multi-disciplinary nature of the present study. This approach is called meta-theory in academic literature (Neufeld, 1994; Richardson, 2002, Wallis, 2010; Yekini, 2012). According to Neufeld (1994), meta-theory is a critical and in-depth review of existing theoretical frameworks or issues to provide direction for research. In a field of study with theory deficiency, Neufeld (1995: 2-3) states that meta-theory is an “indispensable foundation of competent scholarly activity and the basis of the adequacy of the explanatory accounts.” In other words, it strengthens the field of study with theory deficiency by helping to develop relevant theories to provide explanations to findings. In any discipline where meta-theory is not embraced and applied, such a field “would leave unanswered” several questions as well as reflect serious “limitations” with regards to theorizing contemporary issues and problems.

Furthermore, Paterson et al., (2001: 107) describe meta-theory as “a creative and systematic means of analysing theory and its effects on research within a specific field” of academic study. The import of the various explanations is that a meta-theory fortifies old or new theory by providing direction for researchers and their research works. Researchers find meta-theory relevant because of the benefits it offers. The first benefit of meta-theory is that it provides researchers with better and more robust understanding on behavioural issues like why human beings think in a particular direction, and why researchers should explore alternative thought-processes in finding explanations to contending issues in research. Two, meta-theory provides researchers with “social, political and philosophical” clues for justifying their “theoretical claims” which are limited by time and space (Paterson et al., 2001: 108).

Also, a meta-theoretical perspective is an aspect of a comprehensive methodological approach called meta-study. It is therefore a step in meta-study research not a monolith in social research (Paterson et al., 2001). The adoption and adaptation of multiple theories or meta-theoretical frameworks is theoretical triangulation (Bryman, 2003; Abiola, 2013).

According to Paterson et al. (2001: 1-2), a meta-theory is the second stage in a meta-study. The four sequential stages in a complete meta-study are: (a) meta-method, (b) meta-theory, (c) meta-data analysis and (d) meta-synthesis. These four stages are mutually reinforcing as depicted in Figure 5.2 below; one stage leads to the other until the terminal stage called meta-synthesis (Paterson et al., 2001).

**Figure 5.2:** Four Stages of Meta-Study in Social and Management Sciences



**Source:** Author from views of Neufeld (1994, 1995), Paterson et al., (2001)

The next section critiques the two theories which provide theoretical foundation for a CSR-Entrepreneurship framework.

### **5.3: Critique of Selected CSR and Entrepreneurship Theories**

#### **5.3.1: Stakeholder Theory (SHT)**

The term stakeholder emerged from a 1963 internal document of Stanford Research Institute; it was used in reply to the rigid viewpoint of some scholars that an agent is responsible only to shareholders (Freeman, 2010). Thereafter, the term stakeholder has been used vaguely thus necessitating an inquiry into its meaning.

From a contextual viewpoint, Clarkson (1995) identifies primary and secondary stakeholders. The primary stakeholders are individuals on whom the continued survival of the organisation rests. The secondary stakeholders are people that influence corporations and are in turn influenced by corporations, but the continued survival of the corporations does not rest on them directly. Knox and Maklan (2004) define stakeholder as an individual from whom the business requires support, reliance, intense scrutiny and comment like customers, investors, employees, suppliers, shareholders and governments and Non-Governmental Organisations. Also, stakeholders are people who are valuable to the continued corporate existence of a corporation during prosperity and adversity (Ihua, 2009).

Within the stakeholder's theoretical perspective, stakeholders are identified in terms of power to influence the decisions of corporation/power attribute; legitimacy of the stakeholder's relationship/legitimacy attribute; and urgency of the stakeholder's claims/urgency attribute (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). From the above narratives, there are direct (internal) and indirect (external) stakeholder operational environments. Figure 5.2 below identifies typical stakeholders.

**Figure 5.3:** Typical Stakeholders within Stakeholder Theory



**Source:** Author from diverse viewpoints above

From the discourse so far, it is evident that stakeholder theory is built on the premise that corporations exist to meet the needs of multiple stakeholders with different levels of interests and varying claims (Ismail, 2009). Garriga and Mele (2004) hold similar view with variation. To them stakeholder theory was developed to balance the diverse interests of firms' stakeholders in industrial society. Stakeholder-driven corporations are socially responsible because they often factor stakeholders' interests into all their decision-making processes (Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Gibson, 2000; Weiss, 2003).

However, Freeman et al. (2004) argue that stakeholder theory emerged to reposition the firm in its relation with the society without falling into the error of "separation thesis", which is, making a sharp distinction between ethical issues and pure economic issues thus leading to narrow perception of business. They argued that stakeholder theory asks two questions: What is the purpose of firms? What responsibility does management have to stakeholders? Answers to these questions help firms to define their objectives clearly, their shared sense of value and their relationships with diverse stakeholders.

From the viewpoint of Secchi (2007), a stakeholder theory is a relational theory, which explains how a corporation relates to its multiple stakeholders for achieving its corporate objectives. However, Ismail (2009) argues that stakeholder theory is an integrative theory which attempts to link the diverse interests of firms' stakeholders without excluding any interest group.



Fontrodona and Sison (2006) remarked that a stakeholder theory was developed to address the demands of multiple stakeholders because the corporation in contemporary times has grown beyond “a single, monolithic actor” that dominates the concept of firm under the shareholder-agency theory (SAT). In support of the position above, Zu and Song (2008: 105) explain that stakeholder theory emerges as explanatory theory for providing guidance to corporations on how best to reconcile diverse interests of multiple stakeholders of the moment who are more organised, focused and articulate in pressuring corporations to be socially responsible. Emergence of multiple stakeholders compels corporations to clearly define their stakeholders and the dimensions of their CSR programmes and policies with the society. Krishnan and Balachandran (2004) classified CSR dimensions broadly into two, viz:

- (a) The internal dimension of CSR (ID); and
- (b) The external dimension of CSR (ED).

The internal dimension of CSR is a policy within the control of the corporation. It could be fine-tuned at any time and often provides benefits for internal stakeholders. The domain of internal dimension covers policies on human resources management, work safety & health measures, adaptation to societal change and management of the environmental impacts of the corporation’s operations. The internal dimension of CSR affects only the internal stakeholders (internal group), especially employees, while the external dimension affects external groups like local/host communities, human rights groups, suppliers, contractors, wholesaler, retailers, banks, insurance companies etc. (Krishnan and Balachandran, 2004). To avoid ambiguity, Carroll and Buchholtz (2003: 71) identified the primary stakeholders to include: shareholders, customers, business partners/investors, employees, host communities, future generations and environment; while the secondary stakeholders are governments, regulatory bodies, civil society organisations, special interest group, professional bodies, media and competitors. In spite of the soundness of the stakeholder perspective, it has some weaknesses, which is the focus of the next section.

### **5.3.1.1: Critique of Stakeholder Theory (SHT)**

Stakeholder theory is a very useful theory widely applied in the CSR discourses. A major weakness of the SHT relates to its practicality in real life with regards to corporate laws operating in different parts of the world. In theory, stakeholders exist, but laws only know and recognise the shareholders/investors. According to Health and Norman (2004: 247-248), the prevailing corporate laws in core capitalist economies give more emphasis to shareholders and are silent on other stakeholders because the shareholders are “the owners of the firm.

They are able to elect all or most of the members of Board of Directors, which in turn has the right to hire and fire senior executives and approve or reject important policies and strategies of the firm.”

The second criticism is that SHT puts scholars at a crossroads with regards to the status of a stakeholder theory; it is a standalone theory, which is self-coherent, or an array of theories that are self-reinforcing, with one supporting others (Trevino and Weaver, 1999). Other scholars argue that stakeholder theory is nothing more than a transformed normative theory that finds justification from empirical findings; it is therefore a form of instrumental theory (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Jones and Wicks, 1999). For instance, how could urgency of claims/stakes be determined and ascertained where there are diverse multiple stakeholders?

Another criticism is that the SHT has not addressed the question of which of the stakeholders should be appeased with CSR initiatives (Mitchell et al., 1997; Agle et al., 1999). Literature revealed that attempts were made at addressing the mystery of which stakeholders should be targeted by CSR. In the opinion of Patten, (1992), the urgency yardstick is a potent benchmark for determining the most important stakeholders at any point in time, but other scholars echoed the legitimacy and power attributes (Mitchell et al., 1997). With regards to legitimacy of claims and power attributes, they are also nebulous yardsticks that are difficult to apply in practice, hence corporations use their managerial discretion or stakeholder dialogues to determine legitimacy and power attributes with respect to claims.

### **5.3.1.2: Empirical Evidence on Stakeholder Theory**

From the critique of stakeholder theory (SHT), it is very relevant to the present study in a number of ways. Emerging evidence for SHT abound in case studies and empirical works, which explained the applicability of this theory by examining the impact of stakeholder management or engagement on financial performances and other economic variables (Waddock and Graves, 1997; Agle et al., 1999; Hillman, 2001; Ayuso, 2007). Hillman and Keim (2001) investigated the relationship between stakeholder management and financial performance of 308 corporations listed on the US Fortune 1000/Standard and Poor 500 firms with different two-digit classification codes. The findings indicate that stakeholder management has positive impact on stakeholder value creation, which consequently enhanced financial performance of the corporations. Secondly, Ogen and Watson (1999) examine the impact of management of customers on financial performance in ten (10) water manufacturing companies in the United Kingdom. The findings are: (a) customer service metrics impacted negatively on companies’ present profits; and (b) customer service metrics

impacted positively on shareholders' returns. Besides, Berman et al. (1999) studied 81 United States Fortune 500 corporations on different four-digit industrial classifications. The findings indicate that stakeholder management diffused into effective relations with employees and customers positively impacted on financial performance of these corporations when viewed in terms of returns on assets (ROA).

Furthermore, Waddock and Graves (1997) studied the impact of stakeholder management in 468 US Standard & Poor 500 corporations on 13 four-digit industrial classifications. The finding indicates that stakeholder management impacted positively on financial performance, when viewed in terms of returns on assets (ROA), returns of equity (ROE) and returns of sales (ROS). Another study, by Aguso et al. (2007), explored the impact of Board's stakeholder management on financial performance in 946 corporations listed on the Dow Jones Global Index of 2004. The finding indicates the boards play a significant role in the management of primary and secondary stakeholders. This relationship had a positive impact on financial performance of the corporation. On the basis of this empirical evidence, the SHT is one of the theories adopted for providing grounding for the proposed CSRE framework.

### **5.3.2: Human Capital Theory of Entrepreneurship**

The human capital theory (HCT) is a dominant theory used for explaining the economics of education; it is otherwise called Schultz's theory of entrepreneurship because the nuance human capital was first employed by Schultz (Fleischhauer, 2007). HCT presumes that investment in education, training and capacity-building is the most effective stimulant for making individuals productive as entrepreneurs or employees (Becker, 1964; Becker, 2011); and well-trained human capital boost economic growth, firms' productivity and technological development because of transmission of useful knowledge and skills (Schultz, 1975; Ladipo et al., 2013). Human capital has two key complementary components viz: innate/acquired ability and acquired skills gained through formal education and on-the-job training (Dearden, Meghir, and Sianesi, 1999). Human capital enhances the earnings of trained individuals and nations, as the bargaining powers of human capital appreciate with the supply of skilled labour (Ishikawa and Ryan, 2002); it also boosts labour productivity in current and future employment as well as better prospects of securing competitive employment opportunities (Fleischhauer, 2007). The expenditures incurred by individuals (self-sponsored training), corporations (firm-sponsored training) and public sector (government spending) on human capital development in the form of education, training, health, information, and labour mobility are called human capital investments (Weisbrod, 1966; Fleischhauer, 2007).

However, the returns (benefits) of human capital development accrue to trained human capital, present employers, future employer and the society at large. The theory when applied to entrepreneurship describes the entrepreneur “as a form of human capital, who propels changes in the society” if better trained and empowered (Klein and Cook, 2006: 347).

Robert (1991) supports the viewpoint of Schultz that education is an effective mechanism for empowering human capital and boosting their productivity and technological advancement. The encouraging level of economic growth and development in the East Asia, Hong Kong, Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan (Asian Tigers) are associated with human capital development and technical education (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008). The World Bank (2008) recommends human capital development to third world governments as a sustainable strategy for improving technological advancement, innovation and economic growth in developing nations.

With specific reference to entrepreneurship, the proponents of HCT argue that education and experience are elements that stimulate entrepreneurial activity among individuals (Becker, 1975; Simpeh, 2011). The different arguments canvassed in support of HCT have made it a very important theory for explaining the role of quality education, specialised training, experience gathering, skills acquisitions and sound health as critical elements for meeting social and economic expectations of nations (Fagerlind and Saha, 1997; Babalola, 2003; Klein and Cook, 2006). In support of the discourse above, Onyinyechi and Joseph (2011) note that HCT provides basis for education as an instrument for boosting the production capacity of the citizens because informed citizens are highly productive.

Furthermore, HCT views education as a ‘capital good’ required by a nation for developing its human resources/citizens for the attainment of sustainable economic growth and development (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008). In other words, spending on education, training and skills acquisition are effective mechanisms for empowering people to become more creative, productive and efficient in undertaking entrepreneurial activity (Sofoluwe et al., 2013). Similarly, Nkang (2012) justifies spending on human capital as a worthwhile investment required to enhance the productivity of people invested on.

More importantly, the HCT is the basis for all entrepreneurship education (EE) programmes run across the world. The thrust of EE is to provide individuals with relevant training, skills and experience to be able to recognise and harness opportunity while working on their own (Mauchi et al., 2011) or equipping students with enterprising behaviour required for self-

reliance (Gibb, 1993). However, McIntyre and Roche (1999) see EE as simply a specialised training for participants to be able to create new firms.

In 1947, Harvard Business School launched EE as an optional course at Master's level entitled Management of New Enterprises (Guzman and Liñán, 2005). In Europe, EE courses emerged in universities between 1980 and 1995 (Clark, 1998). Whereas, Twaalfhoven and Wilson (2004) reported that limited instruction on the essentials of EE existed in some institutions, but fully-fledged inclusion as part of the curriculum became pronounced within the last ten years. In the same vein, the goal of EE in Europe is to foster competitiveness, job creation and economic growth (European Commission, 2000; Wilson, 2008; European Commission, 2012). With growing emphasis, the European Commission (2012:7) re-states:

*“The EU 2020 strategy highlights the need to embed creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship into education and proposes a number of actions to unleash Europe’s entrepreneurial and innovative capabilities.”*

In Zimbabwe, EE is offered at all tertiary institutions following rising unemployment in the country. The essence of its adoption by policy maker in the Ministry of Education was to enhance graduates’ creativity and innovativeness (Mauchi et al., 2011). Besides, entrepreneurship education emerged in Nigeria in the 1980s purposely to make citizens self-reliant, self-employed and job creators rather than looking for white collar jobs. EE was therefore a response to unemployment and poverty incidences which were surging and beyond the control of the government (Arogundade, 2011). EE is offered at three levels of higher education in Nigeria to stem the tide of unemployment and enhance the quality of graduates to meet the expectations of the industry (Arogundade, 2011; Gabadeen and Raimi, 2012; Sofoluwe et al., 2013).

### **5.3.2.1: Empirical Evidences and Criticisms**

There are empirical studies that support HCT. Van-Den-Berg (2001) confirms a positive correlation between level of educational attainment and prospect of new product development in developed economies where investment in human capital is massive. Also, Odekunle’s (2001) study indicates a positive relationship between human capital investment (HCI), entrepreneurial activity and level of technological innovation. Besides, Garba (2002) establishes a strong positive correlation between educational attainment and economic growth and development.

Considering the importance of education to economic growth and development (Babalola, 2003), scholars recommended the need for investment in human beings in order to enhance

economic progress and productivity of human resources (Bronchi, 2003; Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008). Similarly, Ayeni (2003) submits that investment in education improves the economic status of human resources, creates job security and attracts a number of financial and non-financial benefits. There is also the need to invest in industry specific research to boost human capital as practised in several East Asian nations (World Bank, 2008).

### **Criticisms of HCT**

The five major criticisms canvassed against HCT are discussed sequentially. The first weakness of HCT is slowness of diffusion of innovation introduced by people because changes and adjustment to changes take time. Secondly, acceptance of innovation or technology inventions (as deliverables of HCT) is not enough to guarantee that economic growth and entrepreneurial development will occur (Klein and Cook, 2006). Thirdly, HCT is unable to explain sustainability of equilibrium when education impacts on economic growth and development in the economy. In other words, how does the economy manage shortage and surplus of educated human resources as well as the associated consequences of both extremes (Babalola, 2003)?

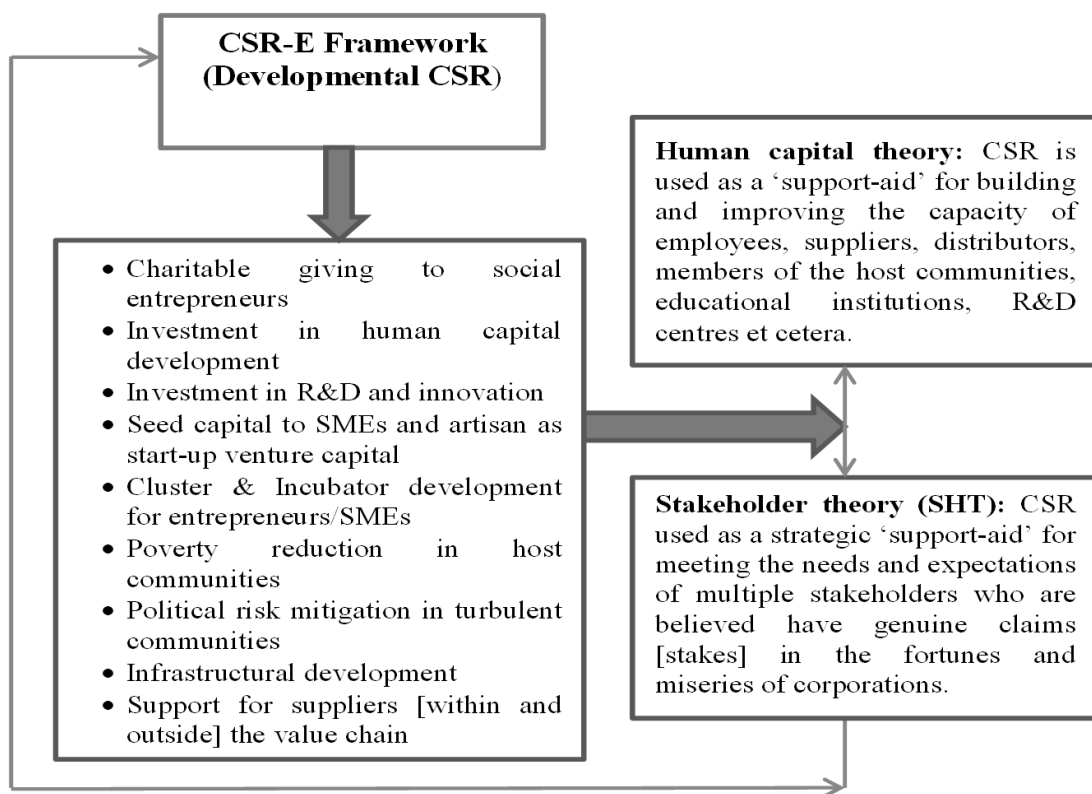
Furthermore, HCT at the micro-level (individual) analysis has not been able to justify to what extent education as human investment has directly improved the income of educated individuals (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008). As support for the above argument, Bronchi (2003) explains that investment in human capital via quality training could be counterproductive to development, as it could trigger incidences of income inequality in the society. Lastly, reality has shown that improvement of skills of human capital is not always commensurate with economic opportunities and entrepreneurial activity. The gap between the two has not been explained (Bronchi, 2003; Moser, 2004).

### **5.4: Adopted Meta-theoretical Framework**

The application of eclectic theories is not new in the literature. Blundel et al. (2007) applied ethical theories of pragmatism and the ancient philosophy of Confucianism to provide grounding for entrepreneurship. Therefore the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework is supported by two (2) theories, namely: stakeholder theory (SHT) and human capital theory (HCT). The lead theory is human capital theory because the objective of this research is to refocus CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship development. In other words, the society would benefit more if CSR investment, initiatives and projects of corporations were channelled into

specialised training, capacity-building, empowerment, entrepreneurship education, cluster development, incubator development, research efforts, integration of host communities within the value-chain, seeds capital for small businesses etc. The listed beneficiaries of corporations' human capital development are suppliers, employees, retired employees, vendors, host communities and other multiple stakeholders. Apart from human capital development, CSR represents an instrument for satisfying multiple stakeholders by giving back to the society. The theoretical framework which explains the web relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship is as depicted in Figure 5.4 below.

**Figure 5.4:** Theoretical Framework for CSR and Entrepreneurship



Source: Author

The theoretical framework above has fortified CSR beyond its conventional meanings. It has placed CSR within the domain of the private-sector development model (PSDM) supported by two (2) different theories. The framework has made corporations responsible for entrepreneurship development through social involvement, while doing their legitimate business. The interrelationships between the two theories and the spill-over impacts can best be understood from the left side of the framework. The framework depicts the corporations as a vital segment of the society, which produces goods and services for the purpose of making profits. Apart from its primary objective, the corporations could be agents of development as

well as adding value to the lives of the citizens through its developmental CSR, which include: charitable giving to social entrepreneurs, investment in human capital development, funding R&D and innovation, providing seed capital to SMEs and artisans as start-up venture capital, supporting cluster & incubator development centres for entrepreneurs/SMEs, interventions in poverty reduction in host communities, engaging in political risk mitigation in turbulent communities, aiding infrastructural development in neglected areas and supporting suppliers [within and outside] the value chain (Murphy; 2010; Porter and Kramer, 2011; Raimi et al., 2013; Raimi et al., 2014). All these developmental expectations are hinged on HCT and SHT.

The CSR-Entrepreneurship framework is designed to operate like the Donaldson and Preston (1995) input-output model (IOM). In the IOM, the raw materials (inputs) generated by the stakeholders are transformed by corporations into outputs (products, services, wealth), which are shared within the distribution mechanism among the various stakeholders in varying degrees (Bichta, 2003; Smith, 2011). In the theoretical framework above, the inputs are CSR interventions launched by corporations as a support aid for entrepreneurship development, while the outputs are the positive impacts of the various interventions on the multiple stakeholders living in the society.

The relationship between SHT and HCT as shown in the framework above could best be understood within the purview of three salient questions often asked at the stage of formulating policies and strategies for stakeholder engagement: (1) Who are the stakeholders? (2) What do they want? (3) How are they going to try to get it? (Frooman, 1999). The 'who' is dependent on context, nature of countries and legal framework prevailing in the domain where corporations operate. In this context of this research, the who are the petty traders, poor artisans, weak SMEs in the host communities, suppliers within/outside the value chain and others. The second question 'what do they want' is simply a claim on the fortune of corporations. The same question has been answered by scholars (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997; Reed, 1999; Scholl, 2001) with brilliant responses. For instance, Reed (1999) asserts: "stakes are understood to impose normative obligations [...] we will define a stake as "an interest for which a valid normative claim can be advanced" (p.467).

Furthermore, Scholl (2001) corroborated the earlier viewpoint stating that stake within the stakeholder perspective of the firm thematically connotes a "legal, moral, or presumed" claim, or on the capacity to affect an organisation's behavior, direction, process, or outcomes (p.736). The third question is a critical issue in CSR literature; there are peaceful, violent,



collaborative, legal, extra-legal and several other ways of getting the claims. The CSRE framework proposed a mutually beneficial approach to stakeholder engagement and resource-sharing.

HCT justifies the need for corporations to invest in the human capacity-building of the internal and external stakeholders as a pragmatic approach to economic growth and entrepreneurship development. Jayawarna et al., (2014) note that empirical evidence from a range of studies justifies connections between human capital and entrepreneurship potential. The stakeholder targets for human development within the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework are: employees, suppliers, dealers/distributors/retailers, artisans, students and host communities. The mechanisms for boosting human capacity development include: entrepreneurship training, small business mentoring, education intervention support to schools, funding research institutes for innovations, establishment of vocational centres in the host communities for those outside formal school, clusters development for sustainable raw material generation, establishment of business incubation centres for supplier SMEs within the corporations' value chain, provision of incentives/seed capital to suppliers after training to expand their business etc. The impacts of HCT (backed by empirical case studies) include: enhanced skills and capacities to work better, unleashing of creativity, innovations, talents development, productivity and long-term profitability. The following empirical studies and cases provide beneficial insights on the highlighted presumptions about the CSRE framework.

Jansen and van Wees (1994: 35) report the impact of human capital building for the internal workforce and consequences if not done. They state: “research among 50 failed companies revealed an overabundance of self-confidence and a serious lack of critical capabilities. Time and again they evolved risky strategies and embarked on new adventures based on their overrated self-confidence. In the end they failed because of a lethal exhaustion of their reserves. These entrepreneurs were invariably characterized by qualities such as cocksureness, forcefulness, unwillingness to listen to other people, or, quite simply, a poisonous concoction of impulsive and injudicious decision making.”

From the study above, the importance of human capacity building for employees as internal stakeholders has been underscored. Mere confidence or overconfidence cannot give corporations the needed competitive edge, new competencies, innovations and creativity that human capital development would give.

Another study by Smith (2011) reports better employee management in Ford Motors because the corporation provided its employees with its cars funded fully as loans, and the workforce also enjoy “retirement investments” (p.34) as valuable internal stakeholders. The human capital incentives of Ford are parts of the secrets of the corporation’s competitive edge. The case study of Ford as narrated represent a near ideal model of what employee empowerment represents within the proposed CSRE framework.

The third evidence of human capital development that guarantees corporations’ long-term business relevance is the IBM global Rural Transformation and Reinventing Education programme. It was designed as a proactive response to tackle societal problems in the operational countries where IBM is domiciled (Smith, 2011). The programme, which was launched in 1994, is driven by the desire of the corporation to enhance the quality of education for young people, knowledge enhancement as well as offering ongoing professional development training for teachers, integrating ICT schools and classroom transformation in partnership with host governments across the globe. It is functional in the United States, United Kingdom, Ireland, Japan, China, Australia, Italy, Singapore, Vietnam, Mexico, Brazil and India (IBM Corporation, 2012).

The fourth case study on human capacity development is the IBM Empowering the Elderly Population Scheme in Japan. IBM, as a world-class corporation, created the Japan ‘e-elder’ initiative (JEI) for the purpose of empowering the elderly Japanese population. The JEI is a platform for free training of elders on the rudiments of information communication technology. They are subsequently provided with free materials and accessories, with the presumption that knowledge gained by the trainees would be passed on to other elders in the communities. The dual motives of IBM is to boost sales of its products in the long-term, but in the short-term the plan is to enhance IT skills and embed a web-based society, where everybody will be comfortable with IT (ASOCIO Policy Paper, 2004).

The studies discussed above provide a foundation for the potency of human capital theory. It is on this premise that Buhmann (2006: 189) argues that “socially responsible companies may contribute, e.g. to the integration of immigrants, education and training, access to health services and to employees’ financial conditions after retirement.” Other instances of human capacity building are the CSR-oriented business linkages of Unilever (Vietnam), Toyota (Thailand), Intel (Malaysia) and Motorola (China), which are designed to provide logistic and financial support to SMEs within their supply value chain. The aim of the CSR-oriented

business linkage is to enhance the capabilities and performance of SMEs as partners of MNCs (Luetkenhors, 2004).

Finally, it is important to state that the CSRE framework may not have an exact replica in contemporary corporations, but there is conceptual, theoretical and empirical evidence that gives support to its assumptions and ideation (as a social welfare maximisation and long-term profitability framework). This assertion was underscored by Sarasvathy (2002) who states that the importance of entrepreneurship as a catalyst for meaningful and positive changes in society cannot be over-emphasised. Economics, useful as it is, has failed to provide working theory on entrepreneurship because of its preoccupation with a “static equilibrium framework and modelling of success/failure as 0-1 variable”. Entrepreneurship as a field has equally not been able to achieve this feat either because it focuses too much on the need to develop “successful entrepreneurs [...] and successful firms”. Be that as it may, there is the need for theorists to reinvent new concepts “to tackle the central task of imagination in economics, i.e., to create from the society we *have* to live, the society we *want* to live in” (p.95).

The CSRE framework therefore integrates pure economic and social goals in the face of governance and infrastructural deficits in the developing countries to meet the expectations mentioned above. CSR programmes in the developing countries are contributions of the private sector to socio-economic development (Mazurkiewicz, 2004). Spence and Rutherford (2001) argue that integration of social goals and economic goals could be strategically combined as quadrants based on corporations’ strategy direction. Furthermore, CSRE, unlike conventional CSR, represents creative and practical means of enhancing the contribution of the private sector to entrepreneurship development in particular and socio-economic development in general.

## **5.6: Chapter Summary**

The chapter developed a theoretical framework for the thesis. In furtherance of this objective, the study identified dominant theories of CSR and selected two theories as a meta-theoretical framework. The rationale for a meta-theory and its processes were clearly discussed. The selected theories that provided underpinning for the discourse in the chapter were stakeholder theory (SHT) and human capital theory (HCT). Lastly, the interrelationships between the theories were discussed and explained. The significance of the chapter is that it provides a springboard for chapter six, which focuses on methodological issues.

# CHAPTER SIX

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

*“Strategic thinkers consistently argue that success is achieved precisely because of the implementation of diverging strategies” (van Tulder and van der Zwart, 2006: 3)*

### 6.0: Introduction

In chapter five, a theoretical framework was developed relying on two theories as underpinning for the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework. Chapter six builds on this by providing explanations of the methodology employed in the conduct of the research. There are nine sections in this chapter. Section 6.1 examines the philosophical issues of ontology and epistemology, while Section 6.2 discusses the dominant research paradigms in academic research. Section 6.3 follows looking at the research approach (inductive and deductive) as applicable to the study. Section 6.4 discusses the research designs from which the experimental design was chosen. Section 6.5 focuses on the research instruments, especially questionnaire and interview. The pros and cons of the two instruments, reliability, validity and justifications for their adoption are discussed. Section 7.6 discusses the data collection methods for the survey. Section 6.7 highlights the methods of data analysis found appropriate for a mixed research method. Section 6.8 gives an overview on ethical issues in research, while Section 6.9 concludes with a summary of the chapter.

### 6.1: Philosophical Issues: Ontology and Epistemology

In academic research, a discourse of ontological and epistemological viewpoints reveals the researcher’s orientation about social reality, limits of the enquiry and its validity. In essence, research provides answers to ontological and epistemological questions. According to Blaikie (2000: 8), ontology is simply “claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other [...] ontological assumptions are concerned with what we believe constitutes social reality.” Brown (2006) explains that ontological perspective unveils the researcher’s view on reality or understanding of what is real. With regards to ontological questions, Hay (2002: 64) explains that the basic ontological question is “What’s out there to know?” However, Lichtman (2006) and Johnson and Christensen (2008) proposed a chain of ontological questions: Is reality objectively external to the researcher or subjectively internal within the reach of the investigator? Is there single reality which is objective or multiple realities that are subjective?

For the avoidance of doubt, the ontological position of this thesis is that reality is multiple and could be uncovered by the researcher through multiple ways like interviewing, observations and questioning of social actors. Ontology by its nature leads to epistemology (Crotty, 1998). What then is epistemology?

Epistemology is the study of knowledge, nature and scope (Crotty, 1998). Truncellito (2007) traced the root of epistemology to two Greek derivatives, namely: 'episteme' meaning knowledge, and 'logos' translated as "study or simply science". Horn (2010) defines epistemology as the study which provides insights into three critical realms of knowledge: What is knowledge? What is the real source of knowledge? What are the limits to knowledge seeking? On the view above, Feast and Melles (2010) define epistemology as the theory of knowledge as well as what is the possible and legitimate scope of knowledge. To Hay (2002), epistemology describes what can we humans know and how can we know it. This distinction can be summarised as "What and how can we know about it?" (p.64)

From the viewpoint of Blaikie (2000:8) epistemology means "the possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality, whatever it is understood to be [...] claims about how what is assumed to exist can be known." But Truncellito (2007) views epistemology as the study of knowledge with emphasis on three essential areas, viz: (a) determination of the knowledge (Do we really know or not?); (b) determination of the extent of human knowledge (How much do we really know? What are the sources of knowledge acquisition? Are there limitations to what we can know as humans?); and (c) Determination of the type of knowledge that falls within the domain of epistemology.

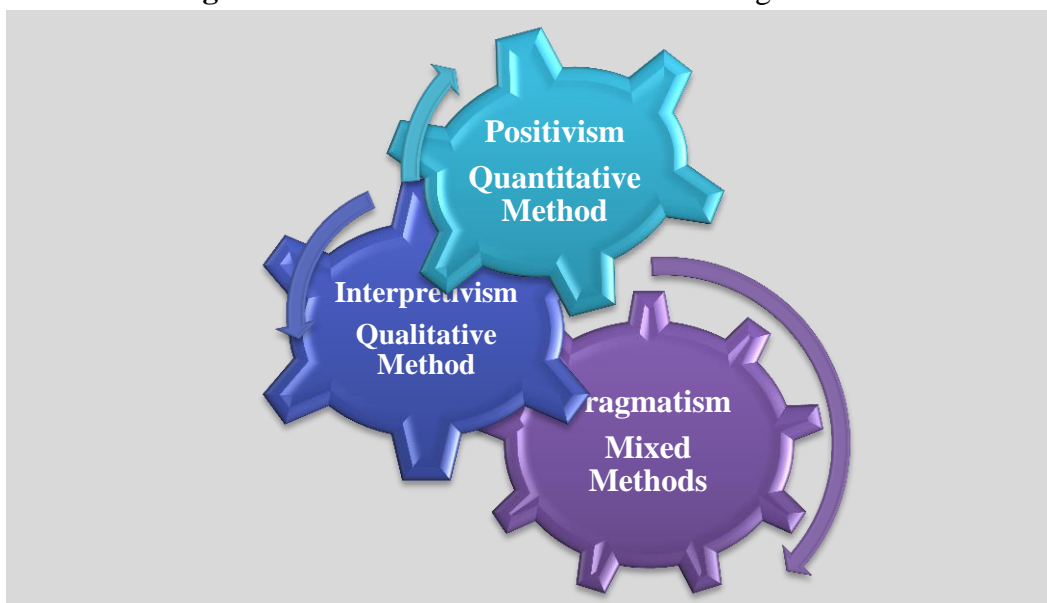
On the types of knowledge, Truncellito (2007) identifies three kinds of knowledge, but only one relates to epistemology. The first type is procedural knowledge, which focuses on competence and skills required by humans for using equipment and other devices. The second kind is acquaintance knowledge which is designed to inculcate in learners ideas on familiarity with other things within the human environment. The third kind of knowledge is propositional knowledge, which is the focus of epistemology. Propositional knowledge takes the form of a declarative statement of facts on a wide range of matters such as scientific knowledge, philosophical knowledge, self-knowledge, mathematical knowledge, geographical knowledge and other branches of knowledge. Irrespective of fields, the goal of epistemology is to know what can be known, what cannot be known and limitations to knowledge (Trochim, 2000; Brown, 2006; Truncellito, 2007). However, Easterby-Smith (2008) states that the research methods adopted in any study offer a clue on the

epistemological position of an enquiry. These issues have been well discussed under research paradigms and related discourses. Epistemology is divided into objectivism and subjectivism (Crotty, 1998). Subjectivism states that there is no objective truth anywhere and that people create meaning from reality in a value-laden manner (Bryman, 2008; Guba and Lincoln; Saunders et al., 2012), while objectivism presupposes that reality and truth can only be known through a value-neutral manner, observable and replicable facts (Bryman, 2008; Diesing, 1966; Horns, 2010). This thesis adopts both epistemological perspectives because of the nature of the investigation, which is built on mixed research methods. Both epistemologies provide deeper understanding of issues surrounding the relationship CSR-Entrepreneurship relationship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

## 6.2. Research Paradigm: Interpretivism, Positivism and Pragmatism

There are three dominant paradigms in the methodology literature from which researchers are free to choose based on their research orientation: interpretivism, positivism and pragmatism (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). However, scholars like Brown (2006), Horn (2009) and Denscombe (2010) identify interpretivism and positivism as the two dominant paradigms in academic research. The fact that emerged from the above arguments is that broadly there are two paradigms, the third is only a hybrid of the popular two developed for researchers with mixed methods orientations (Saunders et al., 2012). Figure 6.1 depicts the three dominant paradigms in methodology literature. Before adopting any paradigm, the researcher must be certain about their meanings, scope and applicability. The next sub-section discusses more about interpretivism, positivism and pragmatism.

**Figure 6.1:** Three Dominant Research Paradigms



### **6.2.1. Interpretivism**

There are several definitions for interpretivism. Collins (2010: 38) explains that interpretivism is “associated with the philosophical position of idealism, and is used to group together diverse approaches, including social constructionism, phenomenology and hermeneutics; [these are] approaches that reject the objectivist view that meaning resides within the world independently of consciousness.” In other words, interpretivism is a philosophical viewpoint that gives diverse or multiple meanings to events and happenings within the research milieu; and it is a paradigm that is often employed in qualitative research methods as well as multiple (mixed) research methods for the purpose of reflecting diverse perspectives on issues being investigated (Brown, 2006; Horn, 2009).

But Saunders et al. (2012) defined interpretivism as a viewpoint that presumes that understanding of the world could be enhanced if researchers were to decipher the difference between human beings in their roles as social actors. Unlike ordinary objects that are inactive, human beings are active players within the social construct and life and their role can be interpreted within different contexts. Interpretivism finds relevance for investigating the subjective experiences of humans within the social environment where humans create and re-create reality on a daily basis in their social interaction (Riley et al., 2000; Ritchie and Lewis 2008). Some scholars describe interpretivism as a notion that there are multiple realities in human society (Lichtman, 2006; Johnson and Christensen, 2008).

From the above, the interpretivists presuppose that empiricists or scientific methods of the natural sciences are definitely inadequate and weak in investigating, understanding and interpreting the real world where humans co-exist (Bryman, 2008). Interpretivism has also been called subjectivism because interpretivists believe that in the quest to understand social problems there is no universal truth, but a reality which all humans subjectively contribute to in different social contexts (Horn, 2010). It has been called phenomenology by Schwandt (1994) because it views issues from people’s definitions and perceptions of a situation. The submission from the above discourse is that interpretivism as a research paradigm is predicated on subjective interpretation of reality in different situations (reality) that humans find themselves and they act according to such subjective interpretations. Interpretivism is a sharp contrast to positivism. Table 6.1 provides a concise explanation of its merits.

**Table 6.1:** Merits of Interpretivism as a Research Paradigm

SN	Description of the merit	Sources
1.	Interpretivism seeks an understanding of reality through the meaning given by humans as actors to events and the intention of human actions as explained by them.	White, 1999
2.	It seeks understanding of human actions not explanation of human behaviour within a social context. It seeks understanding between the researcher and a human actor, and where they are many, self-understanding among multiple actors.	Fay, 1975; Butin, 2010
3.	It is not interested in establishing causal explanations of behaviour, but in an understanding of the beliefs, meanings, feelings and attitudes of human action within a defined social context.	Henn et al., 2006
4.	Interpretivism asserts that there is no universal law or single objective reality, rather facts on humans can be unveiled and understood through a subjective reasoning and approach.	White, 1999; Saunders et al., 2012
5.	Interpretivism assumes that reality being sought through research is not outside the enquiry, rather could be determined through personal experiences of both the researchers and humans within the research environment.	Butin, 2010
6.	Interpretivism is a procedural subjectivity, implying that the investigator or researcher should not impose preconceived understanding of norms or values on the enquiry.	Babbie, 2008; Al-Habil, 2011
7.	Interpretivism is not observation from outside, like positivism, but observation from within the research context.	White, 1999; Al-Habil, 2011
8.	It is not mere independent experiment, rather it is a communication process or dialogue with human actors to collectively reach a common understanding about what is being investigated.	Fay, 1975; Al-Habil, 2011
9.	Interpretivism is essentially a storytelling paradigm based on facts and values gathered through interaction with human actors.	Al-Habil, 2011

**Source:** Author from cross-section of views in the literature

### 6.2.2: Positivism

Positivism is the philosophical posturing of natural and social scientists credited to the French philosopher, Auguste Comte (1798-1857), who declared that the only authentic knowledge source is gained through the scientific approach (Lenzer, 2004; Al-Habil, 2011). Positivism is a belief that factual, real and trustworthy knowledge on research could be better gained through observation, the use of the senses and scientific measurement (Saunders et al., 2012). Furthermore, Al-Habil (2011) asserts that the term “positivism could be seen as the belief in the existence of objective reality, which could be explained and controlled through causal relations and testing hypotheses that establish statistical inferences” (p.949). In other words, positivism advocates the use of the scientific approach and procedures as the most effective and trustworthy in research for understanding, explaining and predicting reality. Therefore, scientific enquiry or research in the fields of management and social sciences favour



positivism because “as a philosophy, it conforms with the empiricist view that knowledge stems from human experience. It has an atomistic, ontological view of the world as comprising discrete, observable elements and events that interact in an observable, determined and regular manner” (Collins, 2010: 38). Researchers with positivist orientation, like scientists and social scientists, ensure utmost objectivity and independence in all aspects of their research design and procedures by concentrating on facts and figures that emerge from their enquiry without imposition of personal prejudices and idiosyncrasies (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008; Wilson, 2010; Collins, 2010; Al-Habil, 2011). The term independence is closely linked with positivism because the word independence in research connotes ability to maintain a minimal level of interaction and neutrality with the target participants or audience in the field of research (Wilson, 2010). Table 6.2 provides a concise explanation on the merits of positivism.

**Table 6.2:** Merits of Positivism as a Research Paradigm

<b>SN</b>	<b>Description of the merit</b>	<b>Sources</b>
1.	Positivism hinges purely on scientific methods of research; hence it is highly reliable and objective.	Hergenhahn, 2009
2.	It is a problem-solving research paradigm because it avoids arbitrariness in reaching decisions for the good of the society. These are the concepts of neutrality and objectivity.	Babbie, 2008
3.	Positivism is critical in its approach; hence it represents the correct and genuine way of understanding human affairs.	Lincoln and Guba, 1985
4.	It views reality as single not multiple and could be understood following scientific reasoning.	Fay, 1975; Hergenhahn, 2009
5.	It employs both a deductive model of logic and an inductive model of statistical probability in coming to conclusions and judgmental decisions (explanations and predictions).	White, 1975
6.	Positivism is value-free and a shield from selfish interests of subjective analysis in non-scientific fields of knowledge.	Saunders et al., 2012
7.	It allows for rational explanation devoid of dogmatism and theological foundation.	Babbie, 2008, Al-Habil, 2011
8.	It is applicable in natural, social and management sciences for understanding reality and social problems as well as finding solutions. This is a concept called methodological unity.	Fay, 1975, Denscombe, 2008
9.	It allows for prediction of observed causality among observed phenomena in the world of social sciences and the physical world of natural sciences.	White, 1999; Saunders et al., 2012
10.	Finally, positivism enhances discovery of laws and theories which provide further explanations and basis for predictions.	Fay, 1975; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Saunders et al., 2012

**Source:** Author

### **6.2.3: Pragmatism**

Pragmatism is a hybrid paradigm, a departure from strict interpretivism and positivism. It is desirable for research with multi-methodological approaches, which allow for utilization of multiple techniques that are available in academic research (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Etymologically, the nuance pragmatism is believed to have emerged from two Latin and Greek words ‘pragmaticus’ and ‘pragmatikos’ which literally means deed (Ormerod, 2006; Obalola, 2010). Technically, however, pragmatism refers to practicality and expediency in getting the desired outcomes in research endeavour (Creswell and Clark, 2007). Pragmatists are researchers who adopt mixed methods or any appropriate method as situation dictates based on the research questions (Saunders et al., 2012). Pragmatism as a philosophical standpoint was formally proposed to the academic community by William James in his 1898 lecture titled “Philosophical Conceptions and Practical Results” at University of California, Berkeley, where he stated that there is no single method or idea that is sacrosanct (Borrego et al., 2009), rather a method, an idea or an approach should be adopted when they work satisfactorily for the researcher. In other words, acceptance or rejection of theories, models and propositions should be based on the practical results, fruits and consequences arising from research, not on the basis of their philosophical conceptions, origins, links and connections with historical data or facts (McDermid, 2006). Pragmatism therefore presumes that there are different realities as well as “different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research” in any social context (Saunders et al., 2012: 130). The bottom-line of pragmatism is that a research method should be adopted based on its practical viability to aid collection of data that are relevant, credible, well-founded and reliable for achieving the research objectives (McDermid, 2006; Kelemen and Rumens, 2008). Based on the critique of the three research paradigms, the philosophical standpoint of this thesis is pragmatism because of its flexibility and accommodation of multiple methodological approaches, strategies and techniques in specific research (Bryman, 2003; Abiola, 2013).

In essence, pragmatism offers the opportunity for triangulation between interpretivism and positivism because of the multi-disciplinary nature of research and mixed research methods. Triangulation finds relevance in this research because combining multiple participants, theories, methods, techniques and data sources avoids rigidity peculiar to a particular paradigm thereby assisting the researcher in overcoming the constraints in sticking to a single paradigm (Denzin, 1989). Triangulation is multifaceted; hence Abiola (2013) identified four (4) typologies of triangulation as: (a) Investigator triangulation, (b) Data triangulation (c)

Theory triangulation and (d) Methodological triangulation. These four terminologies have distinct but related meanings.

Bryman (2003) notes that investigator triangulation is employed where multiple researchers are used for gathering and interpreting data for a particular research activity. In other words, it refers to one research activity with many researchers. Data triangulation is a process of collecting the required data for research using multiple sampling strategies. This allows for collection of diverse data/information from different people, different contexts and periods. However, theory triangulation entails the adoption and adaptation of multiple theories or what is called the meta-theoretical framework in interpreting data, while methodological triangulation is employed when the researcher makes use of more than one research method for academic investigation. This thesis adopts three relevant triangulation typologies, namely: (b) Data triangulation (c) Theory triangulation and (d) Methodological triangulation for analysing both the qualitative and quantitative aspect of the research.

### **6.3: Research Approach**

In the management sciences, importance is given to research approach because it determines the type of research design to adopt in the quest to uncover hidden phenomenon of interest to researchers (Wilson, 2010). Researchers oscillate between two main research approaches, viz: deductive and inductive (Saunders et al., 2012). Babbie (2010: 53) underscores the importance of research approach stating that research entails making a choice between induction and deduction; and both approaches and routes involve the use of physical observation and logic in different ways. Since both are modes of reasoning, they are vital determinants of how researchers relate to the development of new theories and the sustenance of existing theories in research (Singh and Bajpai, 2008). Further explanations are provided below.

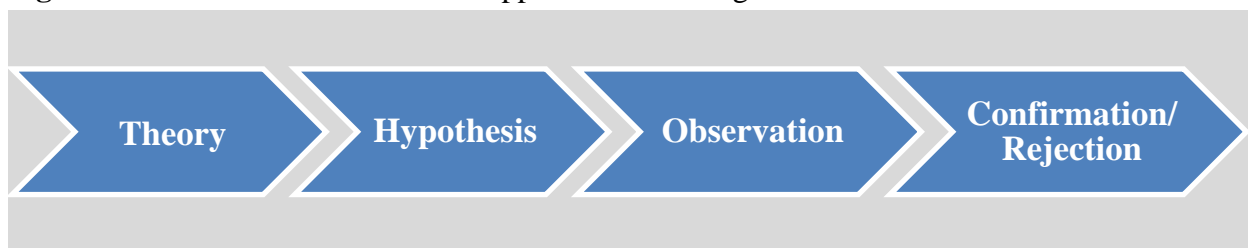
#### **6.3.1: Deductive Approach**

Saunders et al., (2012) define the deductive approach as a manner of reasoning whereby the conclusions of research logically flow from the tentative premises, propositions or assumptions drawn from existing theories. Ketokivi and Mantere (2010) expatiate that once the conclusion emanating from deductive reasoning has been justified as factual all the premises or underlining propositions would also be factual. However, some scholars are of the opinion that the deductive approach confines itself to the domain of reasoning from the general research context to the particular (Pelissier, 2008; Gulati, 2009; Snieder and Larner, 2009). The reasoning process in the deductive approach begins with problem identification

which leads to the development of a single hypothesis or set of hypotheses on the basis of known theory or propositions of theory, which are then subjected to empirical testing on the basis of which the research findings are upheld or rejected (Monette et al., 2005; Wilson, 2010) Put differently, Babbie (2010) describes the deductive approach as a form of reasoning which starts with a tentative pattern of assumptions which are tested against real world observations on the basis of which conclusions are drawn (Babbie, 2010).

In a simple argument, Burney (2008) considers the deductive approach as a logical and systematic process of reasoning from the more general to the more specific; a method commonly called the top-bottom approach in the field of research because the methodical process is like a waterfall. The researcher moves step-by-step from theory, hypothesis, observation and confirmation/rejection (Burney, 2008; Snieder and Larner, 2009). Figure 7.2 below explains the reasoning process of the deductive approach. In essence, the deductive approach is directed at Theory Testing (TT).

**Figure 6.2:** Transition of Deductive Approach/Reasoning



**Source:** Author from Burney (2008); Snieder and Larner (2009)

### **6.3.2: Inductive Approach**

Neuman (2003) describes the inductive approach as a process of reasoning which begins with critical observations of the world, and then moves systematically towards abstraction and generalisations about the phenomena or ideas observed. Bernard (2011: 7) asserts that the inductive approach is a form of reasoning that “involves the search for pattern from observation and the development of explanations – theories – for those patterns through series of hypotheses.” From the explanations above, an inductive approach starts with a topical issue from which the researcher develops generalisations and then moves further to the stage of identification of causal relationships among the phenomena being investigated and then ends with theory development (Saunders et al., 2012). This viewpoint is supported by Goddard and Melville (2004) that the inductive approach commences with observations of phenomenon and finishes with formulation of theory at the end of the research. In contrast to the deductive approach, no theory would apply at the beginning of inductive reasoning,

because it is a methodological process that gives the researcher the opportunity to alter the direction of the study even after the research has commenced.

In summary, Burney (2008) and Lodico et al. (2010) described the inductive approach as reasoning from the more specific to the more general in the quest to find answers to an enquiry; a method commonly called the bottom-up approach in research, because the steps involved are like hill climbing. The researcher moves chronologically from observation, pattern, tentative hypothesis and theory, which if viewed critically is a reverse of the reasoning in the deductive approach (Lancaster, 2005). Figure 6.3 provides clarity on the three stages involved in the inductive approach in social research for the purpose of Theory Building (TB).

**Figure 6.3:** Transition of Inductive Approach/Reasoning



**Source:** Author from Lancaster (2005), Burney (2008) and Lodico et al. (2010)

Considering the nature of this research, the preferred research approach is a combination of both approaches. This posture is premised on the fact that this research adopts a mixed method orientation. Blaxter et al. (2006) lent credence to the choice of both approaches in a single research, stating that research enquiry that favours experiences and observations is better expressed through recourse to the inductive approach, while research that is built on theories, laws or rules is better investigated using the deductive approach. In the case of an interview-based survey targeted at the Nigerian telecommunication companies, the inductive approach find relevance, while the deductive approach is suitable for the questionnaire-based survey targeted at telephone subscribers/customers.

#### **6.4: Research Design**

A research design is a plan or blueprint that describes clearly and unambiguously the steps involved in executing research from beginning to end (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Besides, it could be described as the logical formation or layout of an enquiry that ensures that data collected through the dominant research strategies provide adequate, reliable and credible answers to the stated research questions (Gerring, 2007). In clear terms, a research design is the overall plan of how a researcher intends to go about providing answers to his/her research

questions, as well as the type of data required, the proposed sources of data, techniques for data collection, method of data analysis, findings, risk factors and ethical issues involved in the research (Saunders et al., 2012). To dispel ambiguity in confusing research design with method of data collection, Yin (1989: 29) cautioned that a research design “deals with a logical problem (methodical and systematic problem in the research) and not a logistical problem (human, material and possibly financial problem facing the researcher in carrying out the research).”

The researcher must therefore be certain on the choice of research design as this determines the success or otherwise of the investigation. The prevalent research designs in the literature are action research design, case study design, causal design, cohort design, cross-sectional design, descriptive design, experimental design, exploratory design, historical design, longitudinal design, observational design, philosophical design and sequential design (Anastas, 1999; Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2006; Saunders et al., 2012). Saunders et al. (2012) identified quantitative design, qualitative design and mixed methods design as methodical designs; concurrent triangulation design, concurrent embedded design, sequential explanatory design and sequential exploratory design as design strategies; with exploratory studies design, descriptive studies design and explanatory studies design as concerning the nature of design.

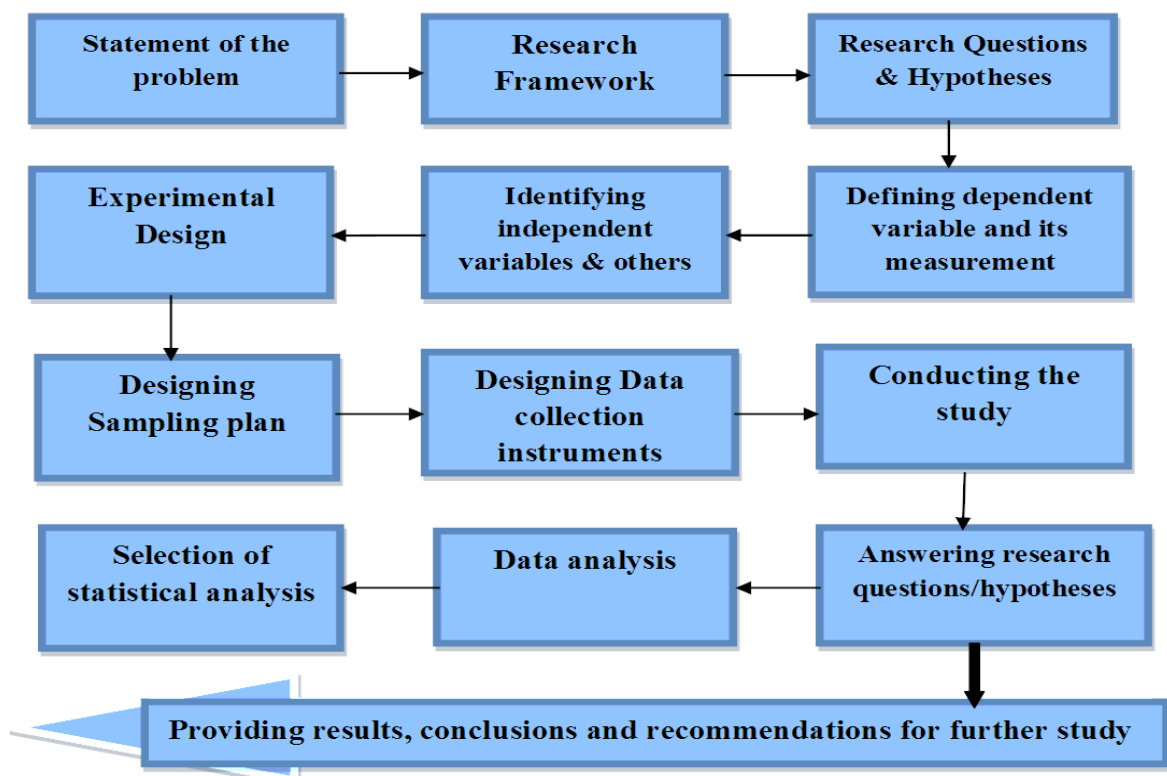
From the various research design discussed above, experimental design is found useful for this thesis. Experimental design is a detailed research plan which gives the researcher a high degree of independence and control over identified factors critical to the results of experimentation. The goal of experimental design is to determine or predict the likelihood of a certain event occurring as well as answers to the question why. Natural scientists and social scientists make use of experimental design because it provides the highest level of evidence for empirical studies (Anastas, 1999). Experimental design is preferred in this thesis because of two cogent reasons. Firstly, experimental design is an effective methodology that enhances researchers’ ability to establish cause-effect relationships among variables empirically (Imai, Tingley and Yamamoto, 2013). Secondly, natural scientists and social scientists often make use of experimental design because it provides the highest level of evidence for single studies (Anastas, 1999). Having adopted an experimental research design, the relevant question is: What are the steps involved in experimental design?

In providing answer to the question above, Luftig and Jordan (1998) stated that an experimental research design has thirteen (13) sequential steps, namely: (1) Developing the statement of the problem; (2) Defining the research framework; (3) Formulating research

questions and associated hypotheses; (4) Defining the dependent variable and criterion for measurements; (5) Identifying and classifying the independent and nuisance variables; (6) Creating the appropriate and efficient experimental design; (7) Designing the sampling plan; (8) Assessing the data collection instrument; (9) Conducting the study; (10) Designing/selecting the appropriate plan for the statistical analysis of the data; (11) Analysing the data; (12) Answering the research questions/hypotheses; and (13) Providing results, conclusions and recommendations for further study.

The thirteen (13) steps in Luftig and Jordan’s (1998) experimental research design process have been streamlined and integrated as shown in Figure 6.4 below.

**Figure 6.4:** Adopted 13-Stage Research Design



### 6.4.1: Research Method

The three dominant research methods that have found wide applications in research are: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods (Descombe, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). Qualitative research explores, understands and interprets social interactions by collecting open-ended responses from people using interviews, observations, field notes and personal reflections on the basis of which new hypotheses and theory are generated. It is usually called a bottom-up approach to research (Johnson and Christensen, 2008). Put differently, qualitative research employs the inductive approach for exploring the relationship between

theory and the research problem by generating verbal reports and non-numerical soft data, which are analysed and interpreted to provide answers to research questions (Saunders et al., 2007).

However, quantitative research examines cause-effect relationships and tests hypotheses for the purpose of making predictions on the subject of enquiry. Unlike the qualitative method, the quantitative method is a top-bottom approach to research (Lichtman, 2006; Johnson and Christensen, 2008). It is argued that the quantitative method is best suited for research that hinges on the deductive approach, because adopted theory or stated hypothesis in the final analysis justifies the variables being investigated, the statement of the problem and the framed research questions (Borrego, Douglas. and Amelink, 2009). The hypothesis of the quantitative research method and the framing of its research questions determine the data collection techniques and the method of data analysis (Creswell, 2002; Borrego et al., 2009). The mixed methods are hybrid methods that combine the strengths of qualitative and quantitative methods for fortification, triangulation and enhancement of research outcomes (Saunders et al., 2012).

For this thesis, a mixed research method is considered suitable due to its hybrid nature and permissibility for triangulation (Castellan, 2009; Saunders et al., 2012). It has been confirmed that CSR research in developed countries are essentially adopt the quantitative method (80%) reflecting preference for positivist paradigm, whereas CSR research from the developing countries favour qualitative research method (Lockett et al. 2006; Visser, 2008). The use of mixed research methods has therefore enriched qualitative and quantitative research traditions from the developing countries with special emphasis on Nigeria. A mixed research method is desirable and appropriate in order to have a robust data gathering and comparative findings. This position is strengthened by the statement that “no particular method (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed) is privileged over any other. Rather, the choice of method must be driven by the research questions” and nature of the phenomenon being investigated (Borrego et al., 2009:5).

#### **6.4.2: Research Strategy**

Research strategy is an action plan for actualising the objectives of a research (Saunders et al., 2012). It is very important because research strategy influences researcher’s choice of paradigm (philosophical position), methods and techniques thereby giving direction to the academic research. Denscombe (2010) identified eight (8) common research strategies: survey, case studies, experiments, ethnography, phenomenology, grounded theory, action



research and mixed methods. Whereas, Saunders et al. (2012) reinforced the position above by listing experiment, survey, archival research, case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory and narrative enquiry as prevalent research strategies.

The preferred research strategy is the survey (for both qualitative and quantitative research). The first reason for choosing a survey is because it is a potent strategy for collecting qualitative and quantitative primary data (Borrego et al., 2009). Secondly, a survey finds acceptability with researchers in management sciences (Abreu, David and Crowther, 2005; Sweeney, 2009 and Claudy, 2011; Saunders, 2012). For the qualitative aspect of the research, the technique for gathering data is interview instrument. The interview was conducted using the face-to-face approach and telephone depending on the choice of the nine (9) interviewees. This survey design aligns with the works of Sweeney (2009) and Amaeshi, Adi, Ogbechie and Amao (2006) in their studies on CSR in Ireland and Nigeria respectively. The qualitative interview data were analysed using Thematic and Content Analysis (Howitt and Cramer, 2010; Pearson Education, 2010, Sweeney, 2009).

For the quantitative research, a structured questionnaire instrument was used to elicit the required data from selected telephone subscribers in Lagos State. The questionnaire instrument was administered using web-based survey technique. Lagos State was selected as the sample location because it is the commercial hub of Nigeria (Ajayi, 2007) and more importantly because it accommodates Nigerians of diverse background and is the headquarters of all the telecommunication firms in Nigeria. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive, inferential statistics and Structural Equation Modelling (Sweeney, 2009).

#### **6.4.3: Research Data, Nature and Sources**

The research data required for this study are mixture of primary and secondary data. The secondary data are required only for exploratory purposes in the literature review to gain insight into techniques, measurement and statistical tools used in previous studies. The secondary data were used as empirical evidences and proofs for strengthening the findings from the chapters eight and nine.

However, for data analysis, this research relies purely on primary data. The primary data are divided into numerical data (for quantitative research aspect) and non-numerical data otherwise called voice to words data (for qualitative research aspect). Jankowicz (2005) and Saunders et al. (2012) note that all types of data available for research could be broadly classified into primary and secondary data sources. Primary data are essentially numerical

and non-numerical information generated independently and wholly by the researchers by observation, experimentation, interview and questionnaire (Babbie, 2008; Horn, 2010).

Secondary data, on the other hand, are data already developed by others which have been accessed (Saunders et al., 2012). In reality, secondary data are mostly generated from research publications, journal articles, textbooks, research-oriented websites and academic online databases. Others are publications of professional/institutional bodies, magazines, periodicals, published annual reports of companies and government publications. For this research, the two data sources were utilised. The primary data sourced through questionnaire is the foundation of this research.

#### **6.4.4: Population of the Study**

The study population is the two major stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry namely: the 25 registered telecommunication companies and 99.16 million telephone subscribers in Nigeria (NCC, 2012). They are targeted because they are in a good position to address the issue being investigated.

#### **6.4.5: Sampling Frame**

This represents a list, tool or other reliable device which contains essential elements on the target population. The sampling frame is a detailed template from which a study could conveniently draw its sample from the target population. A sampling frame could assume two forms: list and non-list frames (Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Futing-Liao, 2004). At present, the sampling frame for telephone users in Nigeria is in a developmental stage. For the telecommunication companies, Table 6.3 below provides an official sampling frame of registered telephone companies and their operational status (NCC, 2012).

**Table 6.3:** List of Nigerian Telephone operators & Number of Customers

<b>SN</b>	<b>Telephone Operators</b>	<b>Number of Customers Million</b>	<b>Status of Company</b>
1	MTN Nigeria Communications	42,898,581	The company is selected.
2	Globacom Limited	20,846,604	The company is selected.
3	Airtel Nigeria Limited	18,600,435	The company is selected.
4	MTEL Limited	258,520	Liquidated
5	EMTS Limited (Etisalat)	11,927,840	The company is selected.
6	Starcomms Limited CDMA	725,871	The company is selected.
7	Visafone Limited CDMA	2,495,790	The company is selected.
8	Multilinks Telkom CDMA	680,960	The company is selected.
9.	Zoom CDMA	111,077	The company is selected.
10.	Starcomms Ltd (Fixed wired)	259,871	Selected in No. 6 above
11.	Visafone Ltd (Fixed wired)	25,648	Selected in No. 7 above
12.	Multilinks Telkom	82,742	Selected in No. 8 above

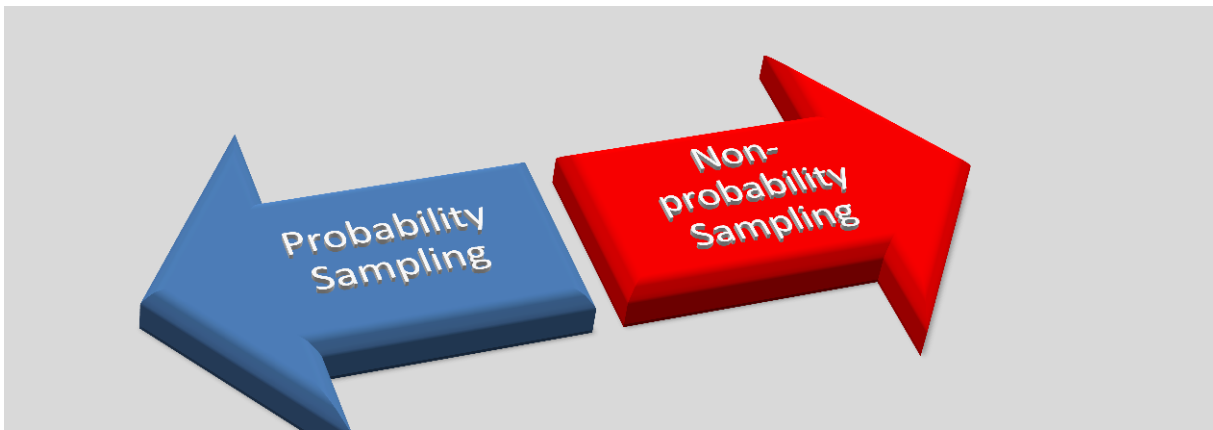
13.	Reliance Telecoms (Zoom)	10,849	Selected in No. 9 above
14.	Intercellular Nigeria Ltd	999	Liquidated
15.	VGC/MTN	19,791	Selected in No. 1 above
16.	MTS 1st Communications	19,744	Operational problem
17.	21st Century Technologies	70,133	The company is selected.
18.	Disc Communications	176	Operational problem
19.	WiTEL	80	Operational problem
20.	O <sub>2</sub> Net (Odua Telecom)	35,421	Outside sample location
21.	Rainbownet Limited	14,169	Operational problem
22.	Monarch Communications	513	Liquidated
23.	XS BROADBAND	329	Liquidated
24.	Webcom	120	Liquidated
25.	NITEL	58,750	Liquidated
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>99,145,013</b>	

**Source:** Nigerian Communication Commission (2012)

#### 6.4.6: Sample and Sampling Technique

In meaningful survey research, it is impossible to have a hundred per cent assessment; hence a representative sample size becomes expedient. Conceptually, sampling is defined as “a means of selecting a subset of units from a population for the purpose of collecting information for those units to draw inferences about the population as a whole” (Statistics Canada, 2010: 87). There are two basic sampling methods: probability and non-probability sampling (Babbie, 2008; Saunders et al., 2012). The two types of sampling have divergent relationships and both are at extreme. Therefore, a research must make a choice between the two methods.

**Figure 6.5:** Probability versus Non-probability Sampling



Probability sampling is an objective method of sampling that allows researchers or interviewers to make inferences on the population on the strengths of the randomness in chosen sample/units from the population. It is often viewed as an unbiased method because it forestalls arbitrary and subjective selection of samples (Saunders et al., 2012). The four (4) main criteria for ensuring probability sampling, which also doubles as its advantages, are: (a)

random selection, (b) calculability of sample and sample error, (c) equal chances for all units within the population to be selected otherwise called a ‘non-zero inclusion probability, and (d) permissibility of inferences/generalisation from sample (Statistics Canada, 2010: 91). Forms of probability sampling are: systematic sampling, probability-proportional-to-size sampling, cluster sampling, stratified sampling, multi-stage sampling, multi-phase sampling and replicated sampling. Its major disadvantages are: implementation complexity, laborious and long process, expensive to implement, requires a sample frame.

Non-probability sampling is a method of selecting units or samples from the target population on the basis of justifiable personal judgement or subjectivity. Its major advantages include: quick decision on sample size, fast and easy method of collecting data, operationally inexpensive, useful for preliminary/exploratory research, and disregards/forecloses complete sample frame. The major disadvantages of non-probability sampling technique are: inferences/generalisation is misleading, purely exploratory, inability to estimate error, not a valid substitute for probability sampling, heavy selection biases and non-representativeness of sample. Forms of non-probability sampling are: haphazard sampling, volunteer sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and modified probability sampling (Horn, 2010; Denscombe, 2010; Statistics Canada, 2010).

#### **6.4.6.1: Standpoint on Sampling Technique**

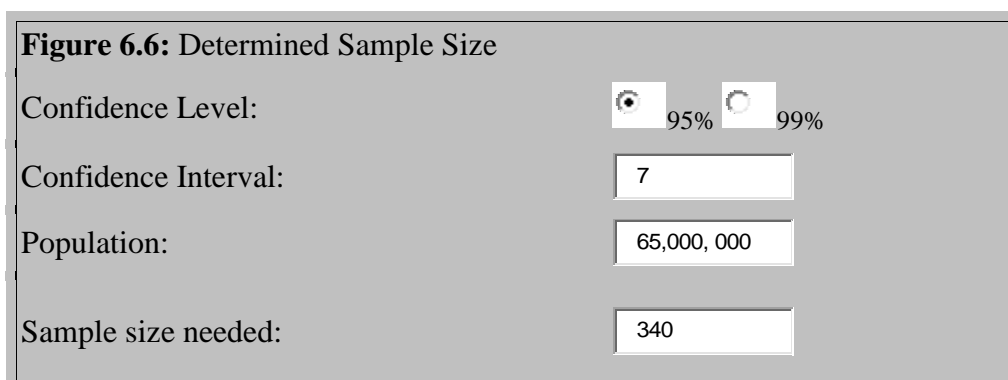
In the absence of a sample frame, which is a pre-requisite for random sampling, the probability sampling was dropped in favour of non-probability sampling. In research, non-probability sampling is adopted when it is the “only viable option for the researcher to adopt in the face of constraints in choosing probability sampling”, and when adopted it requires “strong assumptions about the representativeness of the sample” for its validity (Statistics Canada, 2010: 88, 89). For the qualitative aspect of the research, a total of nine (9) out of the twenty-five (25) registered telecommunication companies were selected as units/samples of the population using a purposive sampling method. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method, which allows a sample to be drawn from a target population based on the purpose of a study or research objective (Horn, 2010). It is also called judgmental or convenient sampling (Tongco, 2007; Horn, 2010). It is applicable to both qualitative and quantitative research (Tongco, 2007), where the population is too small (Tran and Perry, 2003).

Unlike random sampling, purposive sampling is often adopted where the population has common elements; when a sample explains the larger population; where there is need for a

quota; where there is need to select from a wider population with diversity; and where a sample is to be drawn from a critical incident, peculiar cases or if that is the only sampling option that fits the situation (Horn, 2010; Statistics Canada, 2010). Purposive sampling is convenient and judgmental because there is no specific sample size or “cap on how many informants” (Tongco, 2007: 152) as long as the selected sample meets the purpose and objective of the research (Bernard, 2011). Purposive sampling finds justification for investigation that is at the preliminary, pre-testing and proposal stage (Poggie, 1972). Besides, the population from which purposive sample is selected has an uncommon skill, expertise or specific knowledge (Vargas and van Andel, 2005; Li et al., 2006).

Guided by the arguments above, only nine (9) telecommunication companies were selected as a representative sample from the sample frame for two reasons. Firstly, to avoid duplication nine samples were selected because some companies have double registration licenses with NCC. Secondly, the majority of the licensed telecommunication companies are either liquidated or no longer viable as shown in the sample frame above. Only nine (9) telecommunication companies were selected as the sample using purposive sampling because they fulfil the purpose of this research (Horn, 2010; Bernard, 2011) and they are the companies with the expertise being investigated (Vargas and van Andel, 2005; Li et al., 2006). The telecommunication companies selected from the sample frame based on anonymity include: Company A; Company B; Company C; Company D; Company E; Company F; Company G; and Company H.

For the quantitative research, the representative sample size of 340 was determined electronically using an online sample calculator. From 99.145 million subscribers in Nigeria, a proxy population of 65 million subscribers in Lagos was selected at 95% confidence level and 7% confidence interval. Figure 6.6 below is the output on the online sample calculator.



**Source:** Output from Electronic Sample Size Determination (2014)

The authenticity of the sample size calculator used above was verified using the sample size formula proposed by Parten (1950) as:

$$n = \frac{NZ^2 * 0.25}{d^2 * (N - 1) + (Z^2 * 0.25)}$$

Where n = the sample size required and which is statistically representative

N = the target population size (65 million subscribers)

d = confidence level (0.05)

Z = number of standard deviation units of the sampling distribution corresponding to the desired confidence level given as 1.96 in the statistical table.

The desirable sample size for telephone subscribers based on the formula is calculated as follows:

$$\frac{65,000,000 \times 1.96^2 \times .25}{(0.05^2 \times 64,999,999) + (1.96^2 \times 0.25)}$$

$$= \frac{62,426,000}{162500.9579}$$

Sample Size (n) = 384.158

The 384 sample size generated from Parten's (1950) sample formula is at variance with the 340 sample from the online sample size calculator. This research therefore adopts a sample size of 384 because the number is higher, more adequate and seemed to be more representative of the population. Secondly, Parten's sample size formula has been applied by Hashimu and Ango, (2012) to determine the appropriate sample size in their paper on the impact of CSR on performance of Multinational Corporations in Nigeria. The sample formula forecloses arbitrariness of the two extremes of under sampling and over sampling of the target population thus saving time, effort and financial resources. Both sample sizes drawn by separate means are not based on random sampling because a sample frame was not used (Statistics Canada, 2010; Babbie, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). However, to achieve a high response rate, speed, efficiency, representativeness and at the same time foreclosing arbitrariness and sample bias, snowball sampling was found appropriate for the quantitative-based survey.

Snowball sampling is sampling by referral method where specialised group of respondents within the target population help select other unidentified members to take part in a survey. Black (1999) explains that snowball sampling is a method for selecting units of the population with the desired traits, features or characteristics where there is no sample frame

from which the subject could be selected. Whereas, Atkinson and Flint (2004) defined snowball sampling as a particular technique for collecting data by identifying few individuals/subjects within the target population who by design provide names, links and web of connections to others which aid the research enquiry. They noted that although it is a misnomer, it could be used as an expedient strategy where conventional technique proves difficult or inappropriate.

Furthermore, it has been explained that snowball sampling takes advantage of the social networks of identified respondents to connect unidentified potential respondents (Black, 1999; Atkinson and Flint, 2004). When related to the quantitative research method, snowballing was used to identify some telephone subscribers with characteristics that meet the objective of the web survey; they were then requested to complete the web-enabled questionnaire, and were subsequently requested to send the web survey link to their friends and networks on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, DMU website, LinkedIn, academic-edu, YabaTech portal etc.).

#### **6.4.7: Sampling Time**

It is essential for the researcher to take a position on sampling time because it helps to set a timeline on three critical issues, viz: (a) how many times data would be collected from the selected respondents or organisations, (b) how the research accommodates changes and explanation of the changes, and (c) when exactly the researcher is going to the field to gather the required data and duration that the exercise would take (Pettigrew, 1990; Meyer, 2001). For this research, data collection was done once from a sample of 384 telephone subscribers (through web-enabled questionnaires hosted online) and 9 telecommunication companies (through interviews). The data gathering process was eclectic and flexible in order to fit busy schedules of the respondents. The research accommodates: face-to-face interview, telephone interview, third-party interview, direct administration of questionnaire, emailing of questionnaire and postage of questionnaire where necessary. The whole data gathering period took three months (April to June, 2014) for the conduct of interviews and questionnaire administration.

#### **6.5: Research Instrument: Questionnaire and Interview**

Survey research strategy was employed in this study like several other studies on CSR (Lu and Castka, 2009; Sweeney, 2009; Amaeshi et al., 2006; Obalola, 2010). Survey is often adopted for exploratory and descriptive research because it is very effective in providing

answers to research questions on “what’, who’, where’, ‘how much’ and how many’ (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill, 2012: 177). Survey strategy provides researchers with relevant, meaningful and informed field data/information on the phenomenon being investigated (Denscombe, 2010). The two instruments deployed for survey are interview and questionnaire. The interview is a qualitative research instrument for collecting data and useful information from a selected audience or respondents on a particular issue or research subject by asking questions (Boyce and Neale, 2006; Raimi, Adebakin and Gabadeen, 2013). The interview could take the form of unstructured, structured and semi-structured interviews (Babbie, 2004; O’Leary, 2004; Saunders et al., 2012).

Questionnaire, on the other hand, is an age-long quantitative research instrument for collecting primary data from respondents with clear instructions to indicate their agreement or otherwise to structured questions by ticking, ranking or rating the preferred options to the various questions asked by investigators (Horn, 2010; Raimi et al., 2013). Brace (2008) described a questionnaire as an instrument that provides a communication medium for the researchers and their respondents. Like the interview instrument, the questionnaire could be open-ended, closed-ended, researcher-administered, self-completed, web/computer-aided, mailed, telephone and in-house survey questionnaires (Babbie, 2004; Descombe, 2010).

The quantitative aspect of the survey employed by this research relies on a self-completed questionnaire instrument christened corporate socially responsible entrepreneurship questionnaire (CSREQ). The CSREQ instrument is adapted from questionnaires that had been used for measuring CSR Activities and Entrepreneurship Orientation in the literature.

After the pilot exercise, an electronic version of the CSREQ was designed and administered through a method called web-enabled data collection. The CSR aspect of the CSREQ instrument is measured using CSR scale adapted from Amaeshi et al., (2006), Sweeney (2009), Kehbila, Ertel and Brent (2009), Osemene (2012), Uadiale and Fagbemi (2012) etc., while the Entrepreneurship aspect is measured by the Entrepreneurship Orientation Development Scale adapted from the works of Quince and Whittaker, (2003), Wang (2008), Li, Huang and Tsai (2009), Madhoushi (2011) etc. The CSR scale has 5 major dimensions and 33 items for measuring the CSR activities of the telecommunication companies in Nigeria. These include: Environmental management Issues with 6 items; Community & National Issues with 8 items; Social Issues with 6 items; Economic Issues with 6 items and Stakeholder Engagement Issue with 7 items. Table 6.4 below provides detailed information on CSRS.



**Table 6.4:** Corporate Social Responsibility Scale (CSRS)

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Measurement Item</b>	<b>Source</b>
<b>CSR Activities</b>	Environmental Management Issues (ENVC)	6 Items	Hines (2001), Sweeney (2009) Kehbila, Ertel and Brent (2009) Osemene (2012), Uadiale and Fagbemi (2012)
<b>CSR Activities</b>	Community and National Issues (CNIC)	8 Items	Hines (2001), Sweeney (2009) Haskins (2009), Kehbila et al. (2009), Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2011), Ufadhili, Yambayamba and Fox (2005), Uadiale and Fagbemi (2012)
<b>CSR Activities</b>	Social Issues (SIC)	6 Items	Amaeshi et al. (2006), Narwal and Ravikant (2011)
<b>CSR Activities</b>	Economic Issues (EIC)	6 Items	Liomi (2003) Amaeshi et al. (2006) Uwuigbe and Egbide (2012) Sweeney (2009) Mordi et al. (2012) Zu and Song (2008)
<b>CSR Activities</b>	Stakeholder Engagement	7 Items	Accountability (2005), CAF (2007), IFC (2007), Morris and Baddache (2012)

For the Entrepreneurship Orientation scale below, there are 6 major dimensions and 24 items for measuring the entrepreneurship orientation of telecommunication companies in Nigeria. Innovativeness has 4 items; Proactiveness has 4 items; Autonomy/Development of skills has 6 items; Altruism has 3 items; Shared vision has 4 items; and Socialisation has 3 items. Table 6.5 below provides an overview on the Entrepreneurship Orientation Development Scale.

**Table 6.5:** Entrepreneurship Orientation Scale (EOS)

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Measurement Item</b>	<b>Source</b>
Entrepreneurship Orientation	Innovativeness (INC)	4 Items	Madhoushi (2011), Li, Huang and Tsai (2009), Wang (2008)
Entrepreneurship Orientation	Proactiveness (PRC)	4 Items	Madhoushi (2011), Li, Huang and Tsai (2009), Wang (2008)
Entrepreneurship Orientation	Autonomy/Skill Development (EADC)	6 Items	Quince and Whittaker (2003), Li, Huang and Tsai (2009)
Entrepreneurship Orientation	Altruism (AC)	3 Items	Quince and Whittaker (2003)
Learning Orientation	Shared vision (SVC)	4 Items	Wang (2008)
Knowledge Creation Process	Socialization (SC)	3 Items	Li, Huang and Tsai (2009)

It is instructive to mention that the 33-item Corporate Social Responsibility Scale (CSRS) and 24-item Entrepreneurship Orientation Development Scale (EODS) were measured on five-point Likert scale, which ranges from ‘Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree’ (Strongly

Agree = 5 points, Agree = 4 points, Undecided = 3 points, Disagree = 2 points and Strongly Disagree = 1 point). Likert scales are widely used in the fields of management and social sciences (Sweeney, 2009; Ibrahim, 2009; Obalola, 2010; Angelova, 2011; Uwuigbe, 2011; Raimi et al., 2013; Abiola, 2013; Ismail et al., 2014).

For the qualitative aspect, the structured interview elicits the required information from the selected 9 telecommunication companies. The structured interview schedule has two sections. Section I solicits anonymous information on the respondents (**About You**). Section II elicits in-depth information on CSR and Entrepreneurship in the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry (**About CSR and Entrepreneurship**). The interview questions are:

- 1) What is your organisation's perception of CSR in the industry?
- 2) What are the dominant CSR activities in your company?
- 3) Does your company engage its stakeholders in discussion before embarking on CSR activities/programmes/projects in the host community? What is the degree of engagement of stakeholders on CSR activities in the industry?
- 4) What are the community and national issues targeted by your company with its CSR activities in Nigeria?
- 5) What is the mode of implementing CSR chosen by your company, when viewed from the perspective of economic, philanthropic, compensatory and corporate citizenship modes?
- 6) What is your company's perception of entrepreneurship?
- 7) What are the current and future potential of CSR in relations to entrepreneurship? Do you think your company's CSR could support future entrepreneurial activities like MDGs, Vision 20:2020 and Transformations Agenda? Based on your views, is there a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship?

The above interview procedure aligns with the works of Sweeney (2009), Amaeshi, Adi, Ogbechie and Amao (2006), Obalola (2010), Abiola (2013) in their different exploratory studies.

#### **6.5.1: Reliability of the instrument**

As earlier mentioned, this research uses interview and questionnaire as data collection instruments from the Nigerian telecommunication companies and the telephone subscribers respectively on their views on 'CSR and Entrepreneurship in Nigeria'. For the research instrument to yield the desired results/outcomes, the issue of reliability must be taken seriously. In order to ensure reliability, the researchers must avoid subjectivity in all its forms

(Babbie, 2010), because non-avoidance of subjectivity compromise the level of reliability of the research findings (Wilson, 2010). Reliability has several definitions.

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), reliability connotes the extent to which a particular study is consistent and exhibits reasonable stability over a period of time among researchers and research methods. Reliability has also been explained as “the extent to which results [of empirical research] are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study” (Joppe, 2000: 1). In other words, it is the measurement of the degree to which a research instrument measures what it sets out to measure in a consistent, stable and dependable manner. It ensures that the researcher can confidently rely on the information/data collected through the instrument adopted to gather data for the project work.

As a guide, Kirk and Miller (1986) argue that three conditions must be satisfied for reliability to be established in quantitative research. Firstly, the measurement must be repeatable (Repeatability). Secondly, the measurement must be stable over a period of time (Stability). Thirdly, the outcomes of research that employed the same measurements within the same time must be the same (Dependability).

To establish the reliability of questionnaire instrument in a quantitative research, the three common tests carried out are: test retest, internal consistency and alternative form (Saunders et al., 2012). The reliability test that is relevant to this study is the test of internal consistency; it entails measuring the consistency of all the responses to questions in the questionnaire instrument using Cronbach’s Alpha with a coefficient value ranging from 0 to 1 (Zulueta and Coatales, 2004; Saunders et al., 2012). For the pilot questionnaire instrument, the test of reliability (internal consistency) was carried out to test if the 87 questionnaire items actually measured what they have been designed to measure. The Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficient based on standardised items indicated a coefficient value of 0.946, which is higher than 0.60 minimum reliability threshold (Arego, Role and Makewa, 2014); an indication that the reliability condition is met satisfactorily (Raimi, Adebakin and Gabadeen, 2013).

However, for establishing the reliability of the interview instrument, it is advised that a researcher should set aside personal presumptions while relating with people and organisations (Meyer, 2001). Reliability with regards to the interview instrument is therefore concerned with whether alternative researchers (investigating the same phenomenon) would come up with the same research outcomes (Easternby-Smith et al., 2008; Saunders et al., 2012). From the views above, reliability of the interview instrument seeks to forestall all

forms of bias – interviewer bias, interviewee bias and participation bias (Saunders et al., 2012). To heed this advice, this study ensured a structured interview schedule is developed reflecting all the research questions in chapter one.

### **6.5.2: Validity of Instrumentations**

Validity of the instrument and its findings is another key methodological issue. In fact, validity is critical to all types of academic research (Oliver, 2010). Validity is defined as the degree or extent to which the research instrument really measures what it set out or intended to measure as well as how genuine the research outcomes are (Joppe, 2001; Golafshani, 2003). Validity is attached to research propositions because research measures, samples and designs on their own do not have validity; at most it could be stated that a measure leads to valid conclusions or that a sample allows for valid inferences about the population or that the research design chosen enhances the validity of the research (Trochim, 2000). Validity typologies include content validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, internal validity, external validity, concurrent validity and face validity (Cohen et al., 2007). Kirk and Miller (1986), however, identified construct validity, internal validity and external validity as dominant validity types. But, Trochim (2000) discussed four types of validity with cumulative meanings and linkages as conclusion validity, internal validity, construct validity and external validity. Hutchinson (2007) identified three conditions for interview validity, namely: the interview must be conducted with objectivity and open-mindedness; interview questions should be effective and effectively asked and answered; and the timing and environmental context for the interview should be effective and devoid of pressure. For the validity of all the constructs designed to measure CSR and entrepreneurship factors, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) were used.

In summary, the terms reliability and validity are well established measurement and validation tools respectively in quantitative research, but not really pronounced in qualitative research; they are just evolving (Golafshani, 2003) and need to be redefined for qualitative research (Stenbacka, 2001). It is suggested that since there is permissibility for triangulation (Patton, 2001; Saunders et al., 2012); the criteria of reliability and validity as used in quantitative research could also be applied to qualitative research (Meyer, 2001).

### **6.5.3: Pilot Tests: Interview and Questionnaires**

Pilot study is one of the methods adopted for testing the face and content validity of a questionnaire instrument. According to Fink (1995) and Saunders et al. (2012), a pilot test or

study provides a researcher with a platform for testing a data collection instrument before it is perfected for final administration to the target audience. In line with the submission above, a pilot questionnaire was administered to 20 telephone subscribers who volunteered to take part in the exercise; they cut across nine major telephone companies. The rationale for the pilot test was to elicit practical feedback on the structured questionnaire in terms of clarity of instructions, language construction, framing of questions, the time it took participants to complete the questionnaire and if privacy is sufficiently respected (Fink, 1995). For the interview, two (2) telephone companies accepted the pilot exercise request. The outcomes of both pilot tests led to the refinement and amendments of the interview and questionnaire instrument as well as fortifying their reliability and validity.

#### **6.6: Data Collection Methods**

The procedure for data collection/administration is a combination of direct, indirect and web-based methods. From the reviewed literature, four major methods of survey administration (for interview and questionnaire surveys) have been identified, namely face-to-face, surface mail, telephone and Internet-based methods (Czaja & Blair, 1996; Zikmund, 2000; Saunders et al., 2012). Concise explanations on the four modes, reasons for rejection and adoption are provided below.

The first method of data collection/survey administration is the face-to-face method. This entails getting in touch with the respondents/interviewees physically or through a third party for the conduct of interviews or administration of the questionnaire. This research finds the face-to-face mode appropriate for interview and was adopted. This was the option employed during the pilot exercise for both interview and questionnaire. The practical disadvantages include a long period of waiting, photocopying massive questionnaires/cover letter, huge transportation cost for a large number of people to be visited where the sample is large like the present research, a poor response rate caused by loss of initial questionnaire and decline to grant interview for confidentiality reasons (Dillman, 2000; Saunders et al., 2012).

The second method is the mailing method. The mailing method involves mailing/sending letters to identified people seeking an audience to grant an interview. It could also entail sending hardcopy questionnaires with a cover letter to identified respondents with or without prior discussion requesting them to complete and return the attached questionnaires. The major problems of this mode of administration are the long period of waiting/delays, non-response by recipients, and the huge cost of postage (Dillman, 2000; Hager et al., 2003). In

other words, the logistics of mail administration are long, laborious and frustrating. Hence, researchers are advised as a rule of the thumb to allow eight to ten weeks for mail survey administration (Mangiane, 1998; Czaja and Blair, 1996; Saunders et al., 2012). This obvious disadvantage makes the option unattractive for this research.

The third data collection typology is the telephone method. This method is effective and relevant for interview-based surveys. Operationally, telephone method involves speaking with prospective interviewees on the phone to elicit their opinions on the subject matter of the study. In terms of speed, the telephone mode of survey administration is fast, efficient and takes less time (Dillman, 2000); when compared with either face-to-face survey or mail survey both interviewers and interviewees ensure brevity and precision on questions and responses respectively (Statistics Canada, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). Telephone mode was only employed to seek access from some telecommunication companies and lobby third parties/friends to facilitate such access. The major disadvantages of telephone survey are hastiness to conclude the survey, lack of direct observation between researcher and respondents/interviewees; low response rate; high cost of telephone calls; limitation in the number of questions that can be asked (Statistic Canada, 2010). It was employed to do a follow-up on questionnaires administered face-to-face during the pilot exercise and to inform friends to send the link of web-based surveys to their network of friends on social media to fill in the online questionnaire hosted on Google Docs.

The fourth method of data collection is the Internet-based method (IBM). It is a contemporary mode of survey administration, which has been described as efficient and relatively cost effective, when compared with the mail option ((Sheehan and Hoy, 1999; Dillman, 2000). Internet/Web survey finds appeal because it eliminates the cost of postage and associated logistics (Dommeyer and Moriarty, 2000; Dillman, 2000). There are two basic typologies of Internet-based survey delivery, namely: Web-based survey and E-mail survey (Dommeyer and Moriarty, 2000; Bradley, 1999). Web-based survey sends links to prospective respondents soliciting their participation for the completion of the online questionnaire template in an atmosphere of confidentiality and anonymity. The E-mail survey on the other hand involves sending a questionnaire as an attachment to identified/selected respondents, who are requested to have it opened, filled in and returned to the sender. The web survey was adopted by this research because of its merits and advantages.

### **6.6.1: Justifications for Web-based Survey**

After the pilot exercise, it was observed that most of the target respondents are the working class, students and professionals, who are mostly online and web-compliant; they did not have much time to complete hard copy questionnaires sent to them during the pilot exercise despite repeated follow-up with phone calls and email reminders. They frankly expressed their reservations for hardcopy questionnaires, but suggested that a web-enabled option was better because they could spare some time to quickly run through it. The feedback from the pilot exercise was that web-based survey is cheaper, less stressful and fits the needs of certain respondents, and finds justification in the literature on web-based survey. Scholars in the field of survey research state that for prospective respondents who make use of the Internet regularly, the best option is the web-based survey (Couper et al., 2001; Sills and Song, 2002). In the same line of argument, Kaplowitz, Hadlock and Levine (2004) noted that although a web survey and mail survey have comparable response rates when both are preceded by prior notifications to recipients, web survey has a cost advantage and is appropriate for a population with full access to the Internet. Based on these empirical facts confirmed by field experience during the pilot survey, the researcher opted for the data collection method web-enabled data collection. The name of the questionnaire instrument remains Corporate Socially Responsible Entrepreneurship Questionnaire (CSREQ).

### **6.6.2: Procedures for Development and Hosting Web-based Survey**

The researcher sought expert opinions from ICT professionals on available web survey service providers. Based on the consultation, the best outlet for web-enabled facilities was Google. Google within the Gmail Drive provides a free questionnaire design template and hosting opportunity for web-based survey and has no restrictions on the number of questionnaire items/questions to be hosted. It allows electronic analysis of responses as descriptive statistics as they flow into the in-built Excel worksheet. Google Drive allows data export for secondary usage, as well as grant research control over data cells. The CSREQ instrument was hosted on March 28, 2014.

### **6.6.3: Procedures for Sharing the Web-based Survey Link and Benefits**

The Google link where the web survey was hosted was sent to 27 expert respondents who took part in the pilot survey. They were requested to send the web link to friends and networks who are sufficiently knowledgeable on the subject being investigated within the sample locations in Lagos State. Within a period of two and a half months (10 weeks) 390 responses were received, which is more than the initial sample size of 384. This is a faster

delivery option than other available modes. On average ten (10) entries were received. The practical advantages of web-enabled questionnaire delivery and administration are:

- i. Web-enabled questionnaire has lower cost implications because there is no need for paper, postage, mailing, data entry costs and photocopying. The only cost involved is the procurement of access to the Internet and the time invested in designing the questionnaire template online.
- ii. Web-enabled questionnaire allowed access through normal email addresses, Twitter, LinkedIn, Facebook, Academic.edu and Google.com.
- iii. Based on field experience, web-questionnaire has wide outreach and coverage area beyond the target population.
- iv. The time required for questionnaire distribution, follow-up on respondents, collection of questionnaires, data entry and analysis is reduced. In the case of the Google Web survey that was utilised, all the processes (questionnaire distribution, follow-up on respondents, collection of questionnaires, data entry and analysis) were electronically handled with the researcher's instructions from time to time.
- v. It accommodated larger sample size than was initially chosen.
- vi. It allowed for opening and closing of the web survey at the discretion of the researcher.

Web survey is suitable for technologically savvy respondents and participants who are Internet-compliant (Smith, 1997; Witmer, Colman and Katzman, 1999; Sheehan and Hoy 1999; Dommeyer and Moriarty, 2000; Kaplowitz, Hadlock and Levine, 2004). The two major disadvantage of the web survey is the exclusion of some literate populations, who do not have access to Internet and are willing to participate. The second is that web-based survey delivery is prone to multiple responses from respondents (Sheehan and Hoy, 1999). However, the Google Drive hosting the CSRE questionnaire was controlled to forestall multiple responses.

## **6.7. Method of Data Analysis**

As stated earlier, the orientation of this research is hinged on mixed research methods, which entails the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods and their associated approaches, strategies and instruments. However, the methods of data analysis for both differ in the literature. Analysing qualitative data collected from respondents during the interview can be tedious and challenging for researchers. The challenges start from the way researchers collect data, coping with complex handling of large amounts of texts/codes/memos/notes, process of analysing the data collected, modality for publishing the analysed data and how the analysed



data can produce acceptable quality analysis in the public domain (Gibbs, Friese and Mangabeira, 2002).

Most qualitative data generated from interview sessions are often analysed by researchers using Discourse Analysis (DA), Thematic Analysis (TA), Conversation Analysis (CA), Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDA) and Contents Analysis (CA) (Horn, 2010; Howitt and Cramer, 2010; Pearson Education, 2010, Sweeney, 2009; Graneheim and Lundman, 2004). For the present research, both Content Analysis and Thematic Analysis were employed as methods for analysing the collected interview responses from the nine sampled firms.

For the quantitative research, a structured questionnaire instrument was used to elicit the required data from 384 subscribers from the target population. Lagos State would be the sample location because it is the commercial hub of Nigeria (Ajayi, 2007) and more importantly because it accommodates Nigerians of diverse background and the headquarters of all the telecommunication firms in Nigeria. The quantitative data collected through questionnaire instrument were categorised into nominal variables, interval variables and ordinal variables as shown in Table. 6.6.

**Table 6.6:** Classification of 87 Questionnaire Items in Data Types

SN	Type of Data	Number of Items	Questionnaire items
1.	Nominal Data	10	A1, A2, A4, A5, A6 & H1 – H5
2.	Interval Data	1	A3
3.	Ordinal Data	76	A7-A9, B1-B6, C1-C6, D1-D8, E1-E6, F1-F6, G1-G7, I1-15, J1-J5, K1-K4, L1-L4, M1-M6, N1-N3, O1-O4 & P1-P3
	Total Number of Items	87	

The analysis of the generated quantitative data is carried out using descriptive and inferential statistics. The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) were used for exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (CSR and Entrepreneurship) respectively (Sweeney, 2009).

With regards to linking data analyses from the qualitative and quantitative research methods, the literature identified three major methods of integrating data in mixed data analysis designs, namely: (a) merging of data; (b) connecting data; and embedding of data (Driscoll et al., 2007; Creswell and Clark, 2011). The connecting data design was found appropriate for

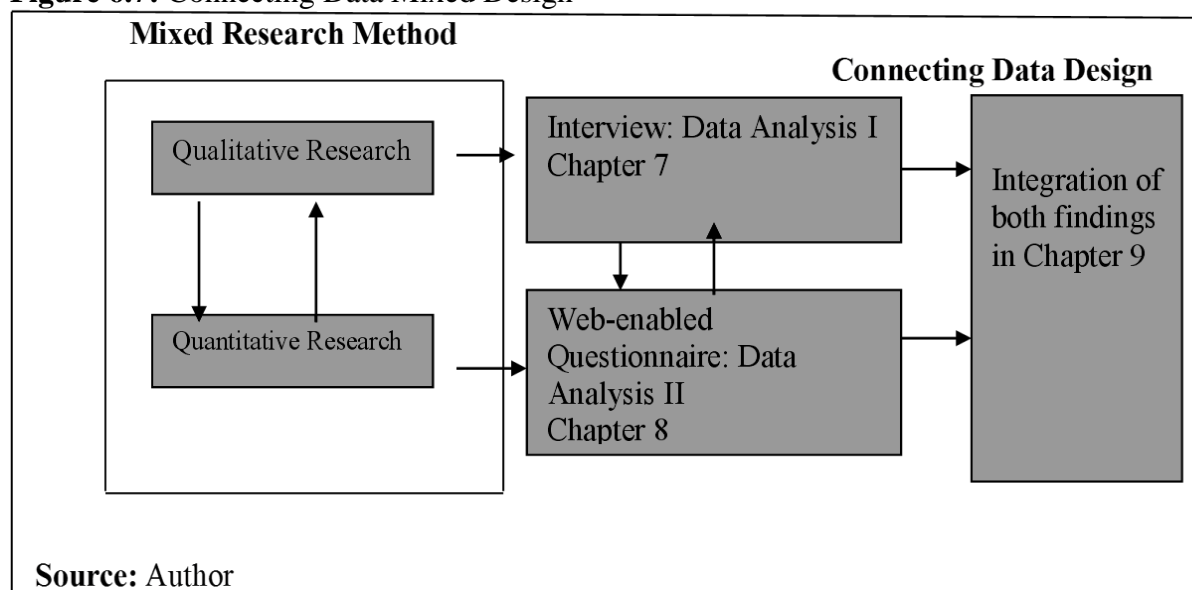
this research. Each of the analyses stands alone as a chapter, and would be linked later for the purpose of comparison and interpretation of findings as shown in Figure 6.6 below.

As Creswell and Clark (2007:7) assert:

*“It is not enough to simply collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data; they need to be “mixed” in some way so that together they form a more complete picture of the problem than they do when standing alone.”*

The basis of the harmonisation of both data analyses was to enhance comparative analysis of findings arising from mixed research methods. The qualitative research is exploratory and its findings provide valuable insight into the quantitative aspect of the research. The findings from both are compared, integrated and used as a basis for making informed positions on the outcome of the research. The qualitative research findings are viewpoints of the Nigerian telecommunication companies (as CSR support aid providers), while the quantitative research findings are the viewpoints of the Nigerian telephone users (CSR beneficiaries).

**Figure 6.7:** Connecting Data Mixed Design



### 6.8. Ethical Issues

For this study, the researcher assures all human participants and corporations in writing that their privacy and data were guaranteed. The key principles underpinning research ethics in social research were observed. These include: the principle of voluntary participation which stipulates that there should be no coercion to take part in research; the principle of informed consent which presupposes that potential respondents should be adequately informed about the research procedures and associated risks; the principle of confidentiality, which entails that data/information generated from respondents will not be made available to a third party;

and the principle of anonymity which assures respondents that their identity remains anonymous throughout the study (Trochim, 2000; Bryman and Bell, 2007). The preamble of both interview and questionnaire instruments are guided by De Montfort University’s ethical code (4.2.2.) which emphasises “no harm, informed consent, avoidance of undue intrusion/deception, confidentiality, anonymity and security” and as approved by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Business Administration & Law (BAL) effective from 3/04/2014 (see Appendix). Summarily, the methodological standpoint of the research is as shown in Figure 6.7 below.

**Figure 6.8:** Methodological Standpoint of the research

✚ <b>Ontological Perspective</b>	= Multiple Realities
✚ <b>Epistemological Perspective</b>	= Objectivism & Subjectivism
✚ <b>Research Paradigm</b>	= Pragmatism
✚ <b>Methodological Perspective</b>	= Mixed Research Methods
✚ <b>Theoretical Perspective</b>	= Meta-Theory
✚ <b>Mixed Method Research Design</b>	= Connecting Data Mixed Design
✚ <b>Research Approach</b>	= Deductive & Inductive Approach
✚ <b>Research Strategy</b>	= Survey
✚ <b>Research Design</b>	= Experimental Design
✚ <b>Sampling Method</b>	= Non-probability Sampling
✚ <b>Specific Sampling Typologies</b>	= Purposive & Snowball Techniques
✚ <b>Method of Data Analysis I</b>	= Content & Thematic Analysis
✚ <b>Method of Data Analysis II</b>	= Descriptive/Inferential Statistics
✚ <b>Test Statistics</b>	= Non-parametric Tests
✚ <b>Confirmatory Test</b>	= Structural Equation Modelling

## 6.9: Chapter Summary

The chapter examines the philosophical issues of ontology, epistemology and paradigms. It discussed the research approach (inductive and deductive), research designs and justification for adopting an experimental design. The pros and cons of questionnaire and interview instruments, issues of reliability, validity, data collection methods and methods of data analysis were also discussed. The chapter concluded with an overview of ethical issues in the research.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **DATA ANALYSIS I: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH**

#### **7.0: Introduction**

Leveraging on the research methodology in chapter six, this chapter discusses the analysis of data collected through the interviews. Section 7.1 provides a brief explanation of the analytical tools (that is, content analysis and thematic analysis) chosen for interpreting the audio-taped interviews conducted for nine (9) corporate executives of leading telecommunication companies in Nigeria. Section 7.2 focuses on the presentation and discussion of the analysed data. Section 7.3 validates the research propositions vis-à-vis the emerging findings. Section 7.4 concludes with a summary of all the issues discussed in the chapter as well as identification of gaps for further research.

#### **7.1: Analytical Tools for Interviews**

For the qualitative research, 9 telecommunication companies were interviewed within a period of one month. The tape-recorded interviews were enriched by personal jottings on vital points underscored by the interviewees. After the completion of the interview sessions, the tape was played and re-played to gain insight into all issues raised by the corporate executives (interviewees) of the selected companies. The raw interview responses were meticulously transcribed using content analysis (CA) and thematic analysis (TA) combined. Both are widely-used techniques for analysing qualitative data or open-ended questions. Each of the two techniques suffices for research, but this thesis combined both analytical tools for robustness of the analysis. Concise distinctions between CA and TA are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

##### **7.1.1: Content Analyses**

Content analysis (CA) is an analytical tool used by researchers with interpretivists' orientation for compressing, classifying, summarizing and tabulating many words of text and recorded voice into fewer content categories in order to make the data meaningful and useful for decision-making (Stemler, 2001; Horn, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). However, Harwood and Garry (2003) described content analysis as a widely-used method for analysing the content of a variety of data, especially visual and verbal data. It finds application for both qualitative and quantitative data contrary to the widely-held view that CA is only used to manage qualitative data (Collins and Hussey, 2003). Content analysis has lower and higher levels: the descriptive and interpretative data. The descriptive level of CA is the verbatim

quotation of what the interviewees have said without the researcher's inputs; while the interpretative level is what is meant by the quotations, that is, the inference drawn by the researcher (Saunders et al., 2012). To Denscombe (2010), content analysis is a logical procedure for quantifying the contents of interviews, texts, writings, voice, picture speeches, books, correspondences and other verbal data. It could also be described as a tool for analysing open-ended questions or interview transcripts to determine the presence and frequency of certain words, concepts and themes on the basis of which meanings and inferences are made (Horn, 2009).

Content analysis relies on coding (codes) and classifying of data in sequential manners. Before employing content analysis in research, the user must understand the typologies of content analysis. This is necessary to have a valid conclusion. There are six types of content analysis, namely: pragmatic analysis, semantic analysis, designation analysis, attribution analysis, assertions analysis and sign-vehicle analysis (Harwood and Garry, 2003). The meanings of the identified typologies are better explained in Table 8.1 below.

**Table 7.1:** Typologies of Content Analysis

SN	Typology	Explanation
1.	Pragmatic content analysis	This type of content analysis explores cause-effect relationships among words, contents and ideas in terms of frequency and impact.
2.	Semantic analysis	This looks critically at meanings of words within textual and voice data and their frequency in the materials being analysed.
3.	Designation analysis	This examines the frequency of reference to a particular object, person, thing, theme, word in a piece of article
4	Attribution analysis	This type explores the frequency of characterisations linked to certain attributes.
5.	Assertions analysis	This examines the frequency of characterisations linked to certain objects
5.	Sign-vehicle analysis	This examines the frequency of certain utterances in a text or speech.

**Source:** Harwood and Garry (2003: 481)

In line with the discussions above, this research combined semantic analysis and attribution analysis because they the most relevant and appropriate in this research for extracting relevant themes from the recorded interview; they also effective in making meaning out of the voice data generated from the interviewees (corporate executives of interviewed companies). The next analytical tool to be explicated is thematic analysis.

### 7.1.2: Thematic Analysis

Another widely used analytical tool in qualitative research, for analysing interviews and textual materials, is thematic analysis (TA). Thematic analysis receives quite a number of definitions. To Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is a technique in qualitative analysis for identifying (underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualizations in interviews, texts and open-ended responses), analysing data and for reporting the themes and patterns that emerged from the data; they added that thematic analysis is employed by interpretivists and realists to report their experiences and meanings adduced to social reality. According to Horn (2010), thematic analysis is a form of template analysis, but in the latter emerging themes and codes are identified on the basis of insights from grounded theory. The meanings deducible from themes and patterns in qualitative research could be identified through an inductive/bottom up approach (Frith and Gleeson, 2004), or, through the deductive/top-down approach (Boyatzis, 1998; Hayes, 1997). Beyond ordinary thematising, thematic analysis goes further to interpret various aspects of themes/sub-themes that emerged after transcription and coding of raw data (Boyatzis, 1998).

**Table 7.2:** Steps in Good Thematic Analysis

SN	Step	Explanation
1.	Transcription	This step involves careful conversion of voice data to verbatim textual data which must be checked repeatedly against the contents of the tape for accuracy.
2.	Coding	This step involves extraction of relevant codes, themes and key issues from the transcribed data. Repeated checks against the original data are emphasised.
3.	Analysis	This entails making informed meaning out of the codes/themes not just paraphrasing but bringing convincing argument out of the themes that emerged.
4	Overall	This step emphasises the need to be meticulous in capturing all the themes as well as ensuring justice is done to all phases of thematising of data.
5.	Written report	This is the last step, which ensures that the researcher's claim on thematic analysis is matched with the final write-up.

**Source:** Braun and Clarke 2006 (2006: 37)

The chronological steps (Table 7.2) involved in thematic analysis include: (a) The researcher relates to and familiarises themselves well with the data; (b) Identify and generate preliminary codes/categorisations; (c) Try to search for common themes; read, review and fine-tune the themes when better insights are gained from the data; (d) Refine and name themes; (e) Produce the final report on the basis of which conclusions would be based (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Denscombe, 2010; Horn, Saunders et al., 2012). These five steps above

were systematically followed while analysing the voice data arising from the interviews conducted for the corporate managers from nine telecommunication companies. This thesis has a total of four (4) propositions, but only three (3) of the propositions are covered by the interviews, which by design is an exploratory technique.

## 7.2: Presentation of Data

### 7.2.1: The Demographics of the Interviewees

The demographics of the interviewees from the nine (9) selected telecommunication companies are as depicted in Table 7.3 below.

**Table 7.3:** Demographics of the Interviewees from selected telecommunication companies

SN	Company	Job Title	Number of years on CSR Activities	Managerial Level	Gender
1	A	General Manager	6 years	Top-Level	Male
2	B	Senior Manager	4 years	Middle-Level	Male
3	C	Senior Manager, Media	9 years	Middle-Level	Male
4	D	Senior Manager	5 years	Middle-Level	Male
5	E	Branch Finance Manager	3 years	Middle-Level	Male
6	F	Senior Network Manager	5 years	Middle-Level	Male
7	G	Sales Manager	3 years	Middle-Level	Male
8	H	Sales Manager	4 years	Middle-Level	Male
9	I	Sales Manager	3 years	Middle-Level	Male

**Source:** Interview (2014)

A total of nine (9) managers from companies A – I, granted interviews from mid-April to mid-May 2014. In terms of their managerial status, there is one top-level manager and eight middle-level managers with different job titles and cognate job experiences. By chance all the interviewees were males, without prejudice to females. For this research, the gender status of the interviewees has no impact on the qualitative findings. This research is issue-based and not gender-based.

**7.2.2: Proposition 1:** The perception of CSR by stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is large a philanthropic perspective.

In order to determining the perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry, the researcher sought the organisational viewpoints of nine (9) corporate managers of the leading telecommunication companies in Nigeria on the perception of CSR, the dominant CSR activities they support in relations with SMEs development, the nature/frequency of

stakeholder engagement and related issues contained in the semi-structured interview schedule.

**Interview Question 1:** What is your organisation’s perception of CSR in the industry? Apply response to your company please....

Key definitions of CSR provided by the interviewees include:

*“Our company set up a foundation to handle all our social involvements [...] CSR as contained in our Foundation’s vision is: To be the leader in CSR initiatives in Nigeria measured by the impact and sustainability of our projects on our host communities as well as high perception rating of our brand” (Company A, Field Interview 2014).*

*“At our company, CSR is about how business conducts itself with regards to all its activities which includes operating ethically and fairly in dealing with all stakeholders as well as sustainably impacting the communities in which it operates” (Company B, Field Interview 2014).*

*“To us CSR is germane; it is simply giving back to your operational environment and society at large” (Company C, Field Interview 2014).*

*“Unlike other telecommunication companies, CSR to us means commitment to creating an innovative enterprise business, enjoyment of telecommunication services, enriching lives and empowering Nigerians to fulfil their dreams” (Company D: Interview 2014).*

*“CSR to us means ensuring that Nigerians experience the joy of communication through our services as well as experience a better quality of life in our philanthropic gestures” (Company E: Interview 2014).*

*“To our company, CSR means helping the less privilege in the society to be able to fend for themselves as well as all the range of support we give to our customers and business partners” (Company H: Interview 2014).*

**Table 7.4:** Perception of CSR from the Nigerian Telecommunication Companies

Theme that emerged from interview	Frequency (N=9)	Interviewee by Company
Community development	2	D, B
Environmental Sustainability	3	A, F, I
Giving back to the stakeholders	2	C, H
Donation to social issues	1	G
Ethical behaviour	1	E
Total	9	

**Source:** Thematic Analysis (2014)

### 7.2.2.1: Findings and Discussions

From Table 7.4 above, five major themes emerged on the perception of CSR, namely: community development, environmental sustainability, giving back to the stakeholders, ethical behaviour and donations to support social issues of interest to the companies. The



conclusion to be drawn from the entire interview transcripts is that the perceptions given to CSR by the nine (9) managers are largely philanthropic perspectives. To some interviewees, CSR is purely an ethical-cum-moral issue; but to others with an environmental mindset, CSR is akin to environmental sustainability and preservation of the ecosystem. In essence, there is hardly consensus on a definite perception of CSR, however all the meanings “point towards the same fundamental principle: that a company is responsible for providing more benefits than just profits for shareholders. It has a role to play in treating its employees well, preserving the environment, developing a sound corporate governance, supporting philanthropy, fostering human rights, respecting cultural differences and helping to promote fair trade, among others. All these are meant to have a positive impact on the communities, cultures, societies and environments in which companies operate” (The Economists Intelligence Unit, 2005: 6).

In support of the findings above, excerpts from the interview with Eva Sage-Gavin of Gap Inc. revealed that CSR has varied perception and applications. To him the perception/meaning of CSR permeates “four key areas”: the first is ensuring business sustainability by “collaborating with outside partners to drive industry-wide change”, the second is better treatment of employees at Gap Inc. by making sure the company is “a place where people can really flourish and build their careers in a positive work environment”, the third is empowering the host community through welfare support and volunteerism, and the fourth is preservation of the environment by ensuring it is healthy and safe for all..” (Wright and Sage-Gavin, 2006: 4-5).

Using interview technique, Amaeshi et al. (2006) arrived at the same conclusion that in Nigeria the meaning of CSR is essentially corporate philanthropy directed at redressing socio-economic challenges facing the host communities where corporations operate.

Similarly, the meaning given to CSR at the summit brokered by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development, a leading international CSR agency, lends further credence to the findings in this research. To the delegates from the Philippines, “CSR is about business giving back to society.” According to the Argentines, “CSR is about a corporation’s ability to respond to social challenges. It starts with developing good relations with neighbours. Companies should make a strong commitment to education, workers’ rights, capacity building, and job security. CSR is stimulating the economic development of a community.” From the African perspective, the Ghanaians noted that “CSR is about capacity building for sustainable livelihoods. It respects cultural differences and finds business opportunities in

building the skills of employees, the community and the government.” Finally, delegates from Taiwan stated that “CSR is the contribution to the development of natural and human capital, in addition to just making a profit.” (WBCSD, 2000: 9-10).

**Interview Question 2: What are the dominant CSR activities in your company?**

Interview question 2 investigates the dominant CSR activities of the telecommunication industry in terms of the degree of engagements, number of host community/national issues targeted and modes. To validate the proposition, the researcher asked the interviewees what they considered to be the dominant CSR activities in their telecommunication companies. The most impactful responses from the interviewees with regards to dominant CSR activities are stated below.

*“CSR activities of our company are directed at improving the quality of life of our people in the areas of Economic Empowerment, Education and Health on a sustainable basis” (Company A: Interview 2014)*

*“We extend the reach of our CSR activities to the Nigerian people [...] it covers Education, Health and Environment” (Company B)*

*“We focus our CSR activities essentially on empowerment of SMEs, Schools, Hospital and Environment” (Company C: Interview 2014).*

*“CSR forms an integral part of our business driven by the need to give back to the communities where we operate. In this regard, we have executed projects as well as supported communities in areas that are improving their life. We commissioned several projects in University of Ibadan [...] At a time our company made donations of food and consumables to 38 orphanages/charity homes in Nigeria [...]” (Company D: Interview 2014).*

*“Aaaah! On that our CSR activities are essentially focused on problems of rural communities, business enablement and educational services [...]” (Company E: Interview 2014).*

*“We commit our CSR to various issues like education, health support, environment and poverty which impact positively the lives of the communities where we do business, on a sustainable basis [...]” (Company F: Interview 2014).*

*“In our company, CSR is a palliative for supporting care-giving institutions like schools and health centres. We also target our CSR at poverty alleviation, local road rehabilitation project, and sporting/cultural programmes [...]” (Company H: Interview 2014).*

**Table 7.5:** Dominant CSR Activities

Themes that emerged from interview	Frequency (N=9)	Interviewee by Company
Economic Empowerment	3	A,B, C
Education	9	All
Health	9	All
Environment	9	All

**Source:** Thematic Analysis (2014)

### 7.2.2.2: Findings and Discussions

From themes in Table 7.5, it could be observed that all CSR activities of the telecommunication companies fall within four (4) areas, namely: economic empowerment, education, health and environment. Three telecommunication companies (A, B and C) direct their CSR to all the four social involvements listed above, while six other telecommunication companies focused on three areas of CSR, namely: education, health and environment. On the websites of the telecommunication companies, CSR is largely portrayed as support for social wellness of the society in the areas of education, health and environment (Etisalat CSR Report, 2010; MTN, 2012; Airtel, 2012; TechTalkAfrica.com, 2013; Starcomms.com/csr, 2013).

Previous studies support the findings above. In the study carried out by Amaeshi et al. (2006) using interview technique, they identified the dominant CSR activities in Nigeria as education, health, sports, capacity building and infrastructural development in neglected host communities. Whereas, Welch and Welch (2009: 1) report that: “CSR, essentially, comes in three different forms. Companies can contribute to society with cash or products, giving away grants, goods, or their services to schools, homeless shelters, hospitals, and the like. Second, companies can focus their CSR on community involvement, by supporting employees who mentor students or volunteer for a myriad of causes. And third, companies can put CSR into their product and service strategies, focusing on green initiatives, for instance, or factoring environmental concerns into their manufacturing processes.”

In a survey undertaken by UNDP (2012) notable CEOs of 16 companies in Trinidad & Tobago were interviewed; it was found that more than two-thirds of the corporate executives replied that their dominant CSR activities are tailored towards philanthropy, charitable giving and public relations in the form of events sponsorship. CSR in Trinidad & Tobago shows “little evidence for a substantive shift towards more strategic forms of CSR” like empowerment, education and training (p.10), which is what this thesis advocates. Consequent

upon the prevalence of philanthropic social involvements of CSR, Ellis and Bastin (2010) remarked that CSR in contemporary times is “becoming ghettoised” as philanthropy.

***Interview Question 3: Does your company engage its stakeholders in discussion before embarking on CSR activities/programmes/projects in the host community? What is the degree of engagement of stakeholders on CSR activities in the industry? I mean how regular...***

For interview question 3 above, the researcher directed two questions to the managers of these companies. Some outstanding responses from the interviewees with regards to the questions are stated below.

*“Our company practises stakeholder engagement as a matter of policy depending on the nature of the intervention programmes/projects. Our stakeholder engagement is regular. Again, depending on the nature or focus area. We have three focus areas as previously stated [...]” (Company A: Interview 2014).*

*“My company’s stakeholder engagement could be described as full consultations with the concerned stakeholders before CSR activities are carried out... our engagement of the host community is periodic as and when intervention is required” (Company B, Field Interview 2014).*

*“Well... we sometimes engage our stakeholders when they seek our company’s assistance for their welfare needs. Our stakeholder engagement could be described as case-by-case engagement” (Company C: Interview 2014).*

*“As a responsive company, we do our things with end users in mind [...] Before we go ahead with CSR projects and programmes, we periodically engage the beneficiaries when necessary in various ways [...]” (Company D: Interview 2014).*

*“Yes, we engage our numerous stakeholders in discussion before embarking on CSR activities. The engagement is carried out as at when needed [...]” (Company E: Interview 2014).*

*“For our company the stakeholder engagement is regular, especially with regulatory bodies, investors and financial institutions; it takes place monthly in the print and daily on other platforms like face-to-face dialogue, social media, website, etc.” (Company H: Interview 2014).*

The three major themes that emerged on stakeholder engagement are regular engagement, periodic engagement, informal engagement through the media and social media networks.

**Table 7.6: Stakeholder Engagement and Regularity**

Themes that emerged from interview	Frequency (N=9)	Interviewee by Company
Regular engagement	2	A, H,
Periodic engagement	6	B, C, D, E, F, G
Informal engagement in the media	3	H, I

**Source:** Thematic Analysis (2014)

### 7.2.2.3: Findings and Discussions

From the themes in Table 7.6, it is apparent that all the telecommunication companies concurred that they take part in stakeholder engagement. However, the degree of stakeholder engagement across the companies differs. All the telecommunication companies carry out stakeholder engagement in three different ways: (a) regularly; (b) periodically and (c) informal engagement on social media. The finding is supported by scholarly works and empirical studies. Previous studies affirmed the importance of stakeholder engagement, regularity and medium employed for engagement. For instance, Porter and Kramer (2006) underscored the importance of stakeholder engagement because uncoordinated CSR initiatives do not have significant impact on corporations' business objectives, social impact and long-term competitiveness.

There are ten (10) means of stakeholder engagement identified by practitioners. These include: participating in activities of professional associations, providing education/training, self-regulating by complying with societal norms, seeking favourable press coverage, lobbying government and regulators, giving out donations/charities, encouraging third-party advocacy for reputation building for the company, tracking corporations' presence on social media, using social media to understand or influence external agendas and employing mass media (McKinsey & Company, 2012).

Similarly, the success of Anglo American corporation is linked to regular stakeholder engagement; it engages the investors, governments, international organisations, host communities, contractors & suppliers, customers and NGOs, using presentation of results at bilateral meetings, direct engagement through industrial association, dialogue with UN, WBCSD & UN Global Compact, community public forum/meetings, commercial interaction/inductions, surveys/interactive complaint forum and partnership to executive social programmes respectively (Global Corporate Governance Forum, 2009).

In the same McKinsey survey, it was found that sixty-five percent (65%) of corporate executives remarked that the success of their CSR is premised on proactive engagement of stakeholders, especially governments, while 38% do not actively engage their stakeholders. For the regulatory bodies, a total of 63% of the same respondents affirmed the need for regular engagement, but in reality only 33% of the respondents follow engagement to its logical conclusion (Browne and Nuttall, 2013). Furthermore, the McKinsey survey (2012) indicates that corporations make use of several formal mechanisms to engage their stakeholders including the use of social media.

**Interview Question 4:** What are the community and national issues targeted by your company with its CSR activities in Nigeria?

In finding answers to interview question 4, the interviewees were requested to discuss the host community and national issues their telecommunication companies have over the years targeted by CSR. In the final analysis, five themes were identified with regards to the community & national issues targeted by CSR by leading Nigerian telecommunication companies. The first community/national issue targeted by CSR is youth skills development designed to enhance the skills of Nigerian youth. The second is empowerment for widows suffering the challenge of economic deprivation. The third issue supported by CSR is poverty alleviation/empowerment. The fourth issue that has consistently attracted CSR intervention is access to education and skills acquisition projects in both rural and urban communities. Some of the comments of the interviewees that provide deep insights into issues targeted by CSR in the telecommunication industry are provided below.

*“As a leading telecommunication company in Nigeria, we targeted community & national issues in three areas designed to alleviate the health challenges currently facing the country. Improve access to educational opportunities and economic empowerment of Nigerian citizens [...]” (Company A: Interview, 2014).*

*“In brief the community and national issues we support fall within the realm of education, health and the environment...” (Company B: Interview 2014).*

*“Nice [...] consistently, our company has always supported community and national issues with the prospects of empowering the less privileged, improving infrastructural provisions and supporting people’s aspirations especially the poor, unemployed and other disadvantaged members of our host community” (Company C: Interview, 2014).*

*“Our presence in the communities across Nigeria is not in doubt as we have supported all issues within the scope of our CSR programmes that would empower Nigerians and make them enjoy a wonderful world [...]” (Company D: Interview 2014).*

*“Because of our leadership position in the CDMA sector, the community and national issues we support fall within the areas of infrastructural development and education support and training for small scale businesses within our value chain [...]” (Company E: Interview 2014).*

*“All the community and national issues we target revolves around rural community, education and health sector interventions” (Company F: Interview 2014)*

*“Without being immodest, our community & national issues supported with our CSR interface between health and technology development. For example we have concerns for health of our stakeholders on the purported harmful effects of emissions from telecom masts and base stations etc. hence we continue to upgrade our technology to be people-friendly [...]” (Company G: Interview 2014).*

**Table 7.7:** Community & National Issues Targeted by CSR

Theme that emerged from interview	Frequency (N=9)	Interviewee by Company
Youth skills development	4	A,B, F, I
Environmental project	3	A, B, C
Poverty alleviation/empowerment	7	A, B, C, D, E, G, H
Access to education	9	All
Health Support	9	All

**Source:** Thematic Analysis (2014)

#### 7.2.2.4: Findings and Discussions

From the analysis above, the host community and national issues that CSR activities support in Nigeria include youth skills development programme, environment, poverty alleviation/empowerment, health issues and education support. This finding is supported by the study of Ufadhili, Yambayamba and Fox (2005), which shows that in Kenya CSR activities are targeted at community and national issues like corporate donations to health institutions, donations to sports associations, educational institutions and intervention support for HIV/AIDS; aid to agriculture for food security; aid to religious bodies as charities as well as palliatives for economically disadvantaged children in orphanages. Since government alone cannot provide all the required public utilities and infrastructure, CSR initiatives are beginning to be directed at issues like poverty, unemployment, education, health, environment and underdevelopment, a concept described as political CSR (Donaldson, 2010) or developmental CSR (Jamal and Mirshak, 2007).

**Interview Question 5:** *What is the mode of implementing CSR chosen by your company, when viewed from the perspective of economic, philanthropic, compensatory and corporate citizenship modes?*

With regards to interview question 5, the interviewees discussed the prevalent mode of CSR in their respective telecommunication companies. Based on the content analysis, the interviewees identified four modes of CSR in the industry, namely: economic, philanthropic, compensatory and corporate citizenship modes. Some of the views expressed by the interviewees include:

*“Our own mode of CSR could be distinctly termed corporate citizenship; hence our social involvements are carried out through an independent Foundation [...] It is people-centred” (Company A: Interview 2014)*

*“We have at the beginning stated that our company is a corporate citizen. We consider it our responsibility to engage with our communities while doing lawful business[...]" (Company B: Interview 2014).*

*“We do business, make money and assist the society. Our CSR is designed as a win-win mechanism for economic and social gains. We and the society benefit economically and socially from all our social involvements [...] the people are the core of CSR” (Company C: Interview 2014)*

*“Our CSR policy could be tagged philanthropy, but the desire to continuously improve the quality of life of people and make the world a better place to live is predicated on wealth accumulated from the society [...] While making profit we spare a thought for our less privileged brothers and sisters through massive donations [...]"(Company D: Interview 2014)*

*“In our organisation CSR is designed to impact on economic development, because it leads to sustainable long-term profitability. In essence, our philanthropy is strategic and economic-oriented in nature [...]" (Company E: Interview 2014).*

*“Hmmm! Let me tell you the fact (anonymously please!), all CSR activities including the one shouldered by my company are profit-driven; they are carried as promotional strategies to elicit more patronage from the communities and customers. These days socially responsive companies receive sympathy buying from the public [...]" (Company F: Interview 2014)*

The above views as analysed in Table 7.8 show the frequency of the four themes that emerged from the interview.



**Table 7.8:** Mode of CSR in the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry

Theme that emerged from interview	Frequency (N=9)	Interviewee by Company
Philanthropy	7	C, D, E, F, G, H, I
Corporate citizenship	4	A, B, C, D
Compensatory mode	2	G, H
Economic mode	9	All

**Source:** Thematic Analysis (2014)

#### 7.2.2.5: Findings and Discussions

From the themes in Table 7.8 enriched by the preceding content analysis, the prevalent mode of CSR is the economic mode followed by philanthropy. An economic mode of CSR is a form of social involvement which is strategic (although philanthropic) designed to boost the economic fortunes of corporations, otherwise called instrumental CSR. CSR policy in the telecommunication industry is therefore designed to gain the benefits of brand loyalty, improved sales, reputation-building, social licence, increased profitability and market competitiveness.

A few years ago, Amaeshi et al. (2006) established the prevalence of the philanthropic mode of social involvements in Nigeria. MTN (2012), a leading telecommunication firm in Nigeria described its CSR involvement as corporate citizenship. Several studies categorised CSR into philanthropy, corporate citizenship, compensatory and economic modes (Sweeney, 2009; Mordi et al., 2012). Like Nigeria, the study of Siwar and Md Harizan (2009) found that in a developing nation like Malaysia, CSR activities are mostly philanthropic and expressed as charity/donation.

**7.2.3: Proposition 2:** The perception of entrepreneurship by stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is essentially an attempt to set businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

**Interview Question 6:** What is your company's perception of entrepreneurship?  
*Please provide your organisation's perspective.....*

To elicit the views of the companies on proposition 2, the interviewees were requested to define entrepreneurship from their organisational viewpoints. All the 9 interviewees responded to the questions based on the strategic objectives of their telecommunication companies. Their responses though varied, but conveyed similar perceptions. Some of the definitions provided by the interviewees are as presented below.

*“We see entrepreneurship as a catalyst for economic development [...] Hence, our company helps support small businesses within our value chain and those outside to help them grow in Nigeria [...]” (Company A: Interview 2014).*

*“Hum!!! Entrepreneurship within the goal of our company is providing platforms through which small businesses can grow at minimal costs and assisting host communities to develop their potential for greater wealth creation” (Company B, 2014).*

*“At our company, we understood entrepreneurship as conscious effort directed at mentoring and development, recruiting and grooming unemployed graduates and modelling them into salesmen, instituting several promotional activities to reward subscribers according to their socio-economic levels, supporting community events, festivals and needs [...] for wealth creation” (Company C: Interview 2014).*

*“We perceive entrepreneurship as creating an innovative enterprise business for those who work with us promoting our range of products and services thereby empowering Nigerians to be self-employed and personally create wealth” (Company D: Interview 2014).*

*“Well! I view entrepreneurship as the process of empowering individuals to be self-employed. It could also be viewed as policies of government and corporations that encourage small business development in the face of the massive unemployment situation. My company assists in the second respect by providing the needed support for small businesses with our value chain” (Company F: Interview 2014).*

*“Generally-speaking, entrepreneurship means a process of encouraging critical mass of people to take up self-employment in order to be self-reliant in the face of joblessness. We help complement the process...our company is not the main driver of the process...better put, we support entrepreneurship through our assistance to retailers and suppliers [...]” (Company G: Interview 2014)*

From the opinions of the interviewees as stated verbatim above, five themes emerged clearly as presented in Table 7.9 below: catalyst for development, job creation, a solution to unemployment, self-employment and wealth creation.

**Table 7.9:** Perception of Entrepreneurship

Themes that emerged from interview	Frequency (N=9)	Interviewee by Company
Catalyst for development	1	A
Job Creation	1	All
Solution to unemployment	2	D, G, I
Self-employment	3	All
Wealth creation	2	B,C, D

**Source:** Thematic Analysis (2014)

### 7.2.3.1: Findings and Discussions

From the viewpoints expressed above, the research proposition that entrepreneurship is largely shaped by stakeholders’ perception of entrepreneurship is confirmed because the nine

(9) interviewees gave varied perception for entrepreneurship. When all the views are aggregated, the deducible meaning of entrepreneurship within the Nigerian context is a conscious attempt by individuals to set up their own businesses for self-reliance, wealth creation, self-employment and self-sufficiency. The Nigerian telecommunication companies complement the development of entrepreneurship in the country through direct and indirect support services to retailers, wholesalers and suppliers within their value chain. Although, the wordings used differ, the meanings given by the interviewees overlap with emphasis on job creation, self-employment, community development and wealth creation. This finding aligns with a number of studies.

The meaning of entrepreneurship varies with individuals. Ajayi-Obe (2007) interviewed a focus group of four people. The meanings ascribed to entrepreneurship by each person are as given below.

*“I know that entrepreneurship is difficult to define because each entrepreneur has his or her own track record. I mean there are many different ways to get there. I suppose it is a business activity that some person gets up and starts working on” (Interviewee 1, Ajayi-Obe, 2007: 304).*

*“I would say it is someone who recognises an opportunity, a business opportunity. But the characteristics of an entrepreneur are a bundle of things, and they differ with different people” (Interviewee 2, Ajayi-Obe, 2007: 304).*

*“It certainly goes beyond just working for yourself. I think a point of confusion a lot of time is that just anybody that works for himself is an entrepreneur, and I don’t believe that. I think it is more than that, you know. It has to do with something like, you said, recognising an opportunity or some kind of innovation, creativity” (Interviewee 3, Ajayi-Obe, 2007: 305).*

*“The importance, I think, is taking risks. I don’t know if in your presentation you mentioned this factor. And then, also, franchisees can be looked upon, maybe, differently if you take this into consideration, financial risks” (Interviewee 4, Ajayi-Obe, 2007: 305).*

Sveen (2013) conducted a similar interview for fifteen (15) successful businesses and got different definitions of entrepreneur/entrepreneurship based on interviewees’ exposures, growth of their businesses and personal life experience. Summing up the definitions, the investigator concludes that entrepreneurship entails the use of personal drive, unwavering persistence and positive mindset to bring about the needed change in the society as well as meeting the needs of the people in the markets through production and services. Similarly, the views expressed by the interviewees are in tandem with the perception of entrepreneurship as a process for identifying and tapping economic opportunities (Szerb, 2007; Anyadike et al., 2012) as well as a template for job creation, wealth creation and

economic development (Leibenstein, 1968; Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; Brixiova, 2010). From other perspectives, entrepreneurship represents an engine of economic growth and community development (Hall, 2000; Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2006) and antidotes of poverty reduction, job creation, technological progress and innovation (Kerr, 2007; Brixiova, 2010).

From the above, the interview's finding that the meaning of entrepreneurship is largely shaped by stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship is ascertained. The interviewees made a judgement on the meaning of entrepreneurship based on their perception, insight, thinking and reasoning. Moreover, there are differences and variations in their definitions, perceived meanings and opinions (on entrepreneurship) because of the influence of individuals' attitude, ego, perception and insights, which are factors that differ from person to person and which are time dependent according to social judgement theory (Griffin, 2012; Raimi, Adebakin and Gabadeen, 2013).

**7.2.4: Proposition 3:** Future CSR activities could potentially fund entrepreneurship education, start-up capital for small businesses, procurement of equipment, establishment of business clusters/incubations and instrument for political risk mitigation.

**7.2.5: Proposition 4:** In view of the strategic nature of CSR activities, there seems to be a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship.

***Interview Question 7:*** What are the current and future potential of CSR in relations to entrepreneurship? Do you think your company's CSR could support future entrepreneurial activities like MDGs, Vision 20:2020 and Transformations Agenda? Is there a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship?

The third and fourth propositions intend to validate the presumption that CSR has the plausibility of stimulating the entrepreneurial growth of SMEs. To achieve this feat, the researcher asked an interview question on the future potential of CSR and Entrepreneurship synergy and their relationship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. Based on content analysis, the interviewees identified four modes of CSR in the industry, namely: economic, philanthropic, compensatory and corporate citizenship modes. Five cogent views expressed by the interviewees include:

*“The current and future potential of CSR are many. CSR is a tool for helping and supporting small businesses to grow. With regards to MDGs, Vision 20:2020 and Transformations Agenda, social involvements executed properly would be a catalyst of economic development because it will assist government where there are gaps. On the issue of conflict mitigation, it is the responsibility of government and security agencies, corporations can only*

*complement through donations...There is obvious a relationship. As responsible company we promote SMEs as partners...” (Company, A: Interview 2014)*

*“In my opinion, CSR has immediate and future potential [...] In the immediate, CSR could be used as intervention support for small businesses, they form the largest segment of our customer base. ...CSR assists small businesses to do better by providing them with right products [...] It is sensible to use CSR to support MDGs, Vision 20:2020 and the Transformation Agenda as such move would complement government’s economic vision. In the case of the Niger Delta, using CSR for empowerment and capacity-building will direct the energy of militants to better direction. Links exist between CSR and entrepreneurship.. Our company obviously improve the capacity of SMEs through training and exposure.... ” (Company, B: Interview 2014).*

*“CSR at present helps the SMEs to grow their businesses [...] It is used for graduate empowerment project in some communities specifically to mentor unemployed graduates into entrepreneurs [...] Directing CSR to support government’s policies and programmes like MDGs, the Transformation Agenda and the Niger Delta crisis is a welcome development only in poverty-ridden communities. We should not encourage government to abdicate its responsibilities [...] ..On relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship, I frankly think there is a win-win relationship. Without survival of SMEs our company cannot exist, so CSR is a way of expressing the cordiality.... (Company C: Interview 2014).*

*“Now and in future, CSR activities targeted at education, health, poverty, rural development and sports development are very good efforts that would facilitate faster socio-economic advancement and improved wellness of the people. For the Niger Delta crisis, CSR efforts could assist appreciably, but definitely the main solution [...] ” (Company D: Interview 2014).*

*“I feel our CSR activities if well-coordinated could be a potent development tool for poverty reduction, actualisation of MDGs and assistance for the Transformation Agenda of the present government....However, for the Niger Delta crisis, the oil companies need to appease the host communities with their CSR initiatives rather than wait for the telecommunication companies....I think there is a relationship between our CSR and entrepreneurship when viewed against the backdrop of our empowerment programmes which yield positive results for us.....” (Company E: Interview 2014).*

**Table 7.10:** Future Potential of CSR and Entrepreneurship Relationship

Theme that emerged from interview	Frequency (N=9)	Interviewee by Company
Business Development	9	All
Credit facilities to suppliers	9	All
Skills Acquisition	9	All
Infrastructural facilities	9	All
Support for government policies	9	All
Training of SMEs	9	All
Conflict mitigation	7	A, B, C, F, G,H, I
Partnership in development	9	All

**Source:** Thematic Analysis (2014)

#### 7.2.4.1: Findings and Discussions

From the content and thematic analyses above, the current and potential relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship indicate that there is a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the industry. The specific current and future potentials of CSR includes: (a) the use of CSR as a business development template; (b) CSR as tool for promoting skills acquisition; (c) CSR as a mechanism for boosting infrastructural facilities; (d) CSR as private-sector support for government policies; (e) CSR as an emergent mechanism for facilitating specialised training for SMEs within or outside the value chain of telecommunication companies; (f) CSR as a tool for conflict mitigation in turbulent host communities; and (g) CSR at international level as a refocused medium for partnership in development processes of nations with governance gap and stimulation of MDGs.

At present there is no empirical work which investigates the relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship. This is the first empirical work in this regard. However, related works that provide a relationship between CSR and other economic constructs include Hassan (2007), which established that CSR activities of the Nigerian food and beverages industry indeed impacted on financial performance of the industry. Besides, Ibrahim, (2009) investigated the impact of CSR (otherwise called business social responsibility) on the value of the firms in the Nigerian banking industry.

Furthermore, Uwuigbe, Uwuigbe and Ajayi (2011) examined the relationship between corporate environmental visibility (measured by total asset) and the level of CSR disclosures among listed firms in Nigeria. The study found that there is a significant association between the corporate environmental visibility and the level of CSR disclosures among listed firms in Nigeria. The firms studied are active in their environmental reporting in order to gain public legitimacy and avoid both social and economic sanctions with its devastating consequences in

terms of political costs. Another study investigated the relationship between management ownership and the level of CSR disclosure of 35 listed firms in Nigeria using the judgmental sampling technique. The paper found a significant positive impact between management ownership on the level of CSR disclosures among firms (Uwuigbe, 2011).

Furthermore, Ismail et al. (2014) investigated the developmental outcomes of CSR programmes in schools from the viewpoints of the 273 teachers as stakeholders in Malaysia. The study revealed that CSR programmes do indeed impact positively on the development of the schools as many enjoyed the benefits of schools' physical infrastructure and provision of essential facilities like reading materials for students and teaching infrastructure for teachers under enabling CSR programmes. More importantly, CSR programmes have enhanced school development when viewed from improved school wellness, students' academic achievement, and overall school academic achievement. Flowing from the analysis above, the entire results could be summarized as shown below:

**Table 7.11:** Summary of Results from Content and Thematic Analysis

SN	Proposition	Decision
1.	<b>Proposition 1:</b> The perception of CSR by stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is large a philanthropic perspective.	Supported/Confirmed
2.	<b>Proposition 2:</b> The perception of entrepreneurship by stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is essentially an attempt to set businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.	Supported/Confirmed
3.	<b>Proposition 3:</b> Future CSR activities could potentially fund entrepreneurship education, start-up capital for small businesses, procurement of equipment, establishment of business clusters/incubations and instrument for political risk mitigation	Supported/Confirmed
4.	<b>Proposition 4:</b> In view of the strategic nature of CSR activities there seems to be a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship.	Supported/Confirmed

**Source:** Content and Thematic Analyses (2014)

#### 7.4: Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the analysis of the interviews granted by nine (9) corporate executives of the leading telecommunication companies in Nigeria. The content analysis and thematic analysis were the analytical tools used for validating the seven propositions covered in the qualitative analysis. At the end of the analysis, three research propositions were supported and confirmed. The gap left by this chapter is for future researchers to interview the corporations to appraise the genuineness of their CSR activities in the country.

# CHAPTER EIGHT

## DATA ANALYSIS II: QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

*“...entrepreneurial spirits is limited; ideas are still encouraged but have to be tested” (Harrison, 1993: 184).*

### 8.0: Introduction

This chapter is a continuation of the data analysis started in chapter seven; while chapter seven concentrates on the qualitative aspect of the data analysis, chapter eight focuses on the quantitative aspect. In all, there are five sections. Section 8.1 discusses the reliability and validity of the CSREQ instrument and its constructs. Section 8.2 presents the demographics of the respondents and descriptive statistics. Section 8.3 follows with validation of the research propositions and testing of hypotheses. Section 8.4 presents the outcome of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using a structural equation modelling (SEM). Section 8.5 concludes with a summary of all the findings as well as identification of gaps for further research.

### 8.1: The Data, Response Rate and Treatment

The primary data used for this quantitative analysis were collected using the web-enabled questionnaire instrument with 87 items. After the pilot exercise, the instrument was amended to reflect all the observations (essentially bothering on typographical errors, vague questions, similar questions and seemingly lengthy questions) observed by the participants who took part in the pilot survey as well as the defects observed by the supervisory team while reviewing the contents of the pilot questionnaires. The final data collection through web survey took a total of two months, two week and 4 days (78 days). The web-enabled questionnaire was hosted on March 28, 2014 on the link below:

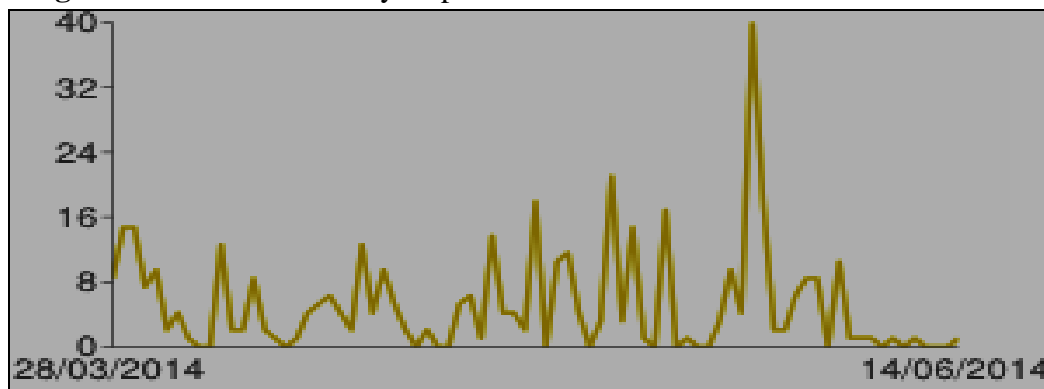
[https://docs.google.com/forms/d/11NVnY\\_YblOfu9NDXTOplBKNOOaSmjDEPvQCUA4Dk-ec/viewform](https://docs.google.com/forms/d/11NVnY_YblOfu9NDXTOplBKNOOaSmjDEPvQCUA4Dk-ec/viewform).

The data collection was concluded on June 14, 2014. A total of 390 responses were received from the sampled respondents (more than the 384 sample size) when the web survey was concluded and de-hosted on the Internet. At the time of data analysis, the generated data inside the Google Drive were downloaded as an Excel document and exported into the SPSS software for proper data coding, streamlining and computation of statistical results. In the downloaded Excel document, it was discovered that out of 390 data cells, 21 data cells had



missing data supplied by the respondents; hence 21 data cells were deleted leaving 369 data cells which were used for data analysis. The daily response of the respondents to the web survey is as depicted in Figure 8.1 below.

**Figure 8.1:** Number of daily responses



**Source:** Web survey (2014)

With regards to response rate, this study sets out with a sample size of 384 respondents. At the end of the data treatment which entails removal of missing data, a total of 369 responses were found useable for data analysis. The variance between the sample size of 384 and the 369 actual responses represents a response rate of 96.09% ( $369/384 \times 100$ ).

**Table 8.1:** Statistical & Analytical Tools Used

SN	Null Hypotheses Statements	Test Statistics
1.	<b>H<sub>YP1</sub>:</b> Stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication is not a philanthropic perspective (Chapter 3)	Chi-Square, Friedman Rank and Descriptive Statistics
2.	<b>H<sub>YP2</sub>:</b> Stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication is not setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation (Chapter 4)	Chi-Square, Friedman Rank and Descriptive Statistics
3.	<p><b>H<sub>YP3a</sub>:</b> Future CSR does not have potential for funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.</p> <p><b>H<sub>YP3b</sub>:</b> Future CSR does not have potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training.</p> <p><b>H<sub>YP3c</sub>:</b> Future CSR does not have potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.</p> <p><b>H<sub>YP3d</sub>:</b> Future CSR does not have potential as funding for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.</p> <p><b>H<sub>YP3e</sub>:</b> Future CSR does not have potential as instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria (Chapter four)</p>	Chi-Square Test Statistics Friedman Rank Test Statistics Descriptive Statistics
4.	<b>H<sub>YP4a</sub>:</b> There is no significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry (Chapter 4)	Structural Equation Modelling, Multinomial logistic Regression

## 8.2: Reliability and Validity of the Data

Before the commencement of data analysis, the reliability and validity tests were carried out to establish that the CSREQ instrument and its constructs had internal consistency and had actually measured what they were designed to measure. The research outcome is described as valid when the procedure followed and instruments used are reliable, and when validity is established, reliability is assured (Mitchell and Jolley, 2004; Hardy and Bryman, 2006; Bryman, 2008; Saunders et al., 2012). Validity and reliability are mutually exclusive terms, as both deal with clarity of understanding and ability of instruments/constructs to provide answers to research questions the way they are intended (Obalola, 2010). For ascertaining the reliability, the research employed the Cronbach's Alpha Test of reliability, while the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is used for testing the validity of the constructs. The reliability test is carried out to determine the consistency of all the responses given by respondents to 87 items in the CSREQ instrument. It also examines the interconnectedness of responses using the Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) with a coefficient value ranging from 0 to 1 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012). The EFA finds acceptability for construct/scale development in studies where there is little theoretical basis for determining (at the outset), the number of factors to be included in a new construct (Hayton, Allen and Scarpello, 2004; Costello and Osborne, 2005). The next sub-section discusses in detail the Cronbach's Alpha Test and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA).

### 8.2.1: Cronbach's Alpha Test

There are three stages of reliability test carried out in this research, namely: (a) testing the reliability of the piloted questionnaire; (b) testing the reliability of the final questionnaire; and (c) testing of the CSR and Entrepreneurship constructs.

For the piloted CSREQ questionnaire, the result of the reliability test is as given below:

**Table 8.2:** Reliability Statistics (Pilot CSREQ Questionnaire)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.946	87

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

For the pilot, a total of 27 participants were used for the exercise. The copies of CSREQ instrument were analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 21). Test of reliability carried out on the piloted questionnaire gave a Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) with a coefficient value of 0.946. This reliability value is higher than the 0.60 minimum

threshold of internal consistency. The result is an indication that the CSREQ instrument is very reliable. However, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients (reliability results) of the final CSREQ instrument and its constructs are as given below:

**Table 8.3:** Reliability Statistics (Final CSREQ Questionnaire)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.926	87

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

For the web survey, a total of 390 respondents participated in the exercise, out of which 369 responses were found useable. Test of reliability carried out on the final data gives a Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) with a coefficient value of 0.926. The 0.926 Cronbach's Alpha is higher than the 0.60 threshold for internal consistency. The CSREQ instrument has an overall reliability. However, for each construct in the CSREQ instrument, reliability tests were carried out and the following Cronbach's Alpha coefficient values were estimated

**Table 8.4:** Reliability of Environmental Issues Construct

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
C1	Telecommunication companies have an environmental management policy on waste reduction and control.	0.887	6 items
C2	These companies monitor the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations.		
C3	They are proactive in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products.		
C4	Telecommunication companies ensure a clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes.		
C5	Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations.		
C6	Telecommunication companies consider the environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.4 above, the environmental issue construct (ENVC) shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.887 ( $> 0.6$  minimum). Therefore, the ENVC with 6 items is a reliable construct for measuring the environmental dimension of CSR.

**Table 8.5: Reliability of Community and National Issues Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
D1	Telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities.	0.885	8 items
D2	They involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities.		
D3	They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.		
D4	The companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities.		
D5	They have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate		
D6	They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.		
D7	The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.		
D8	The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication of deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.5 above, the community and national issues construct (CNIC) shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.885 ( $> 0.6$  minimum). Therefore, the CNIC with 8 items is a reliable construct for measuring the community/national dimension of CSR.

**Table 8.6: Reliability of Social Issues Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
E1	Nigerian telecommunication companies get involved in academic and education programmes.	0.844	6 items
E2	They facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level.		
E3	They support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories.		
E4	Telecommunication companies provide scholarships to indigent and talented students in the formal school system.		
E5	Telecommunication companies support empowerment and widow issues.		
E6	Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.6 above, the social issues construct (SIC) shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.844 ( $> 0.6$  minimum). The result is a strong indication that the SIC with 6 items is a reliable construct for measuring the social dimension of CSR.

**Table 8.7: Reliability of Economic Issues Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
F1	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government.	0.739	6 items
F2	CSR participation of telecommunication companies promotes the strategic business interest of long run profitability.		
F3	The CSR programmes boost corporate reputation of these companies in the eyes of government and the public.		
F4	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners.		
F5	The CSR programmes are adopted for the benefits of revenues and costs optimisation.		
F6	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Besides Table 8.7 above, the economic issues construct (EIC) shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.739 (> 0.6 minimum). The higher EIC with 6 items is an indication that the EIC is a reliable construct for measuring the economic dimension of CSR.

**Table 8.8: Reliability of Stakeholder Engagement Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
G1	Telecommunication companies in Nigeria have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement.	0.721	7 items
G2	The most valuable stakeholders to these companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors.		
G3	Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.		
G4	The stakeholder engagement of these companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders.		
G5	The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.		
G6	CSR programmes and projects are provided based on outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community.		
G7	The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.8 as shown above, the stakeholder engagement construct (SEC) with 7 items shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.721 (> 0.6 minimum). The SEC reliability result is therefore an indication that it is a reliable construct for measuring the stakeholder engagement dimensions of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

**Table 8.9:** Reliability of Innovation Construct

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
K1	Most telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors.	0.712	4 items
K2	The companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions.		
K3	They encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave in novel ways.		
K4	The companies provide support for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Table 8.9 above shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.712 ( $> 0.6$  minimum) for the innovation construct (INC). The INC is therefore a reliable construct for measuring the innovation dimension of entrepreneurship.

**Table 8.10:** Reliability of Proactiveness Construct

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
L1	Dominant telecommunication companies in Nigeria favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations.	0.724	4 items
L2	The companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities.		
L3	These companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market.		
L4	The companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Arising from the test in Table 8.10 above, the proactiveness construct (PRC) shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.724 ( $> 0.6$  minimum). The PRC is a reliable construct for measuring the proactiveness dimension of entrepreneurship.

**Table 8.11: Reliability of Autonomy & Skills Development Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
M1	Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets.	0.852	6 items
M2	The companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base.		
M3	The companies support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence.		
M4	Support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills.		
M5	Telecommunication companies provide support for the host community to elicit their collaboration for business of peace.		
M6	Training and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Like other presentations above, Table 8.11 shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.852 (> 0.6 minimum) for autonomy & skills development construct (EADC). The EADC with 6 items is a reliable construct for measuring the autonomy & skills development dimension of entrepreneurship in the present research.

**Table 8.12: Reliability of Altruism Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
N1	Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile.	0.821	3 items
N2	Telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society.		
N3	Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.12, the altruism construct (AC) with 3 items shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.821 (> 0.6 minimum). The AC is a reliable construct for measuring the altruism dimension of entrepreneurship.

**Table 8.13: Reliability of Shared Vision Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
O1	Telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impact on entrepreneurship development.	0.830	4 items
O2	Most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development.		
O3	They support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication.		
O4	Telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.13, the shared vision construct (SVC) with 4 items shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.830 (> 0.6 minimum). The SCV is a reliable construct for measuring the shared vision dimension of entrepreneurship in the present research.

**Table 8.14: Reliability of Socialisation Construct**

Code	Question Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
P1	Telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community.	0.754	3 items
P2	Telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society.		
P3	Most telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Lastly, Table 8.14 shows a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.754 (> 0.6 minimum) for the socialisation construct (SC) with 3 items. The SC is a reliable construct for measuring the socialisation dimension of entrepreneurship.

### 8.2.2: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA is used for systematic data reduction where numerous factors emerge in research. In other words, EFA reduces “the dimensionality of the original space and give an interpretation to the new space, spanned by a reduced number of new dimensions which are supposed to underlie the old ones” (Rietveld and Van Hout, 1993: 254). Theoretically, EFA uncovers the interconnectedness and correlation among factors in a matrix. The dimensionality of this matrix EFA can be reduced by selecting factors/variables that correlate well with a group of other factors, but correlate badly with factors outside the group (Field, 2000). To test construct validity using EFA, the generated data were subjected to data extraction using



principal component analysis (PCA), while Varimax was adopted as the method of rotation. Using a threshold loading of 0.40 and eigenvalues greater than 1.0, at the preliminary EFA stage no factor was dropped, but at the stage of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the factors with less than 0.50 loadings were dropped to enhance the fit of the research model.

Beyond testing the interconnectedness and correlation of factors, the EFA also allows determination of sample adequacy using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO-test). In the final output of EFA, a sample is deemed adequate if the value of KMO is greater than 0.5 (Field 2000; Sweeney, 2009). Bartlett's test of sphericity finds relevance for testing the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix; i.e. all diagonal elements are 1 and all off-diagonal elements are 0, implying that all of the variables are uncorrelated, unrelated and unsuitable. Small value for Bartlett Test (less than 0.05 of the significance level) indicates that a factor analysis is useful with the research data (Field 2000: 457). The various tests under the EFA were applied to all the constructs in the CSREQ instrument. The CSR scale has five constructs, while the entrepreneurship scale has six constructs. The results are as presented below (Tables 8.14 – 8.24).

**Table 8.15:** EFA for Environmental Issue Construct

ITEM	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6
DESCRIPTIVES						
Mean	3.00	2.57	2.40	2.24	2.85	2.69
SD	1.178	1.200	1.228	1.230	1.227	1.157
EFA						
Factor loading	.646	.780	.792	.811	.727	.796
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	2.050			1.673		
Total Variance Explained (%)	34.174			27.885		
Cumulative (%)	62.059					
Determinant of Correlation	0.045					
KMO Test	.881					
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05					

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.15, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.045 (> 0.00001 threshold); an indication that the data set lack the weakness of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .881 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant (0.000 < 0.05). All the factor loadings were above 0.5 indicating that the EFA for environmental issue construct (ENVC) is valid.

**Table 8.16:** EFA for Community & National Issue Construct

ITEM	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8
DESCRIPTIVES								
Mean	3.57	3.10	3.14	2.96	2.92	3.32	2.97	3.06
SD	1.003	1.071	1.124	1.133	1.144	1.024	1.065	1.115
EFA								
Factor loading	.654	.708	.779	.674	.718	.738	.702	.676
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	2.445			2.007				
Total Variance Explained (%)	30.565			25.085				
Cumulative (%)	55.649							
Determinant of Correlation	0.029							
KMO Test	.911							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05							

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.16, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.029 ( $> 0.00001$  threshold); an indication that the data set lack the weakness of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .911 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ). All the factor loadings were above 0.5 indicating that the EFA for community & national issue construct (CNIC) is valid.

**Table 8.17:** EFA for Social Issue Construct

ITEM	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6
DESCRIPTIVES						
Mean	3.65	3.25	3.27	3.47	2.99	3.86
SD	1.035	1.072	1.084	1.008	1.052	.946
EFA						
Factor loading	.739	.843	.741	.784	.635	.434
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	2.070			1.286		
Total Variance Explained (%)	34.496			21.440		
Cumulative (%)	55.936					
Determinant of Correlation	0.078					
KMO Test	.822					
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05					

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.17, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.078 ( $> 0.00001$  threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .822 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ). All factor loadings except E6 (0.434) were above 0.5 indicating that the EFA for social issue construct (SIC) is valid. Factor E6 was removed from the SIC.

**Table 8.18:** EFA for Economic Issue Construct

ITEM	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
DESCRIPTIVES						
Mean	3.46	3.73	3.88	3.53	3.61	3.87
SD	1.010	.894	.861	.935	.947	.877
EFA						
Factor loading	.482	.753	.680	.437	.581	.532
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.269			1.115		
Total Variance Explained (%)	21.145			18.579		
Cumulative (%)	39.724					
Determinant of Correlation	0.311					
KMO Test	.783					
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05					

**Source:** Survey Results (2014)

From Table 8.18, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.311 ( $> 0.00001$  threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .783 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ). All the factor loadings except F1 (0.482) and F4 (0.437) were above 0.5 indicating that the EFA for economic issue construct (EIC) is valid. Factor F1 and F4 were removed from the EIC.

**Table 8.19:** EFA for Stakeholder Engagement Construct

ITEM	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7
DESCRIPTIVES							
Mean	3.33	3.47	3.52	3.38	2.95	3.14	3.73
SD	1.076	1.019	.992	.985	1.080	.994	.884
EFA							
Factor loading	.514	.611	.287	.665	.672	.677	.260
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.798			.735			
Total Variance Explained (%)	25.684			10.511			
Cumulative (%)	36.195						
Determinant of Correlation	0.239						
KMO Test	.765						
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05						

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.19, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.239 ( $> 0.00001$  threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .765 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ). All the factor loadings except G3 (0.287) and G7 (0.260) were above 0.5 indicating that the EFA for Stakeholder Engagement Construct is appropriate.

**Table 8.20:** EFA for Innovation Construct

ITEM	K1	K2	K3	K4
DESCRIPTIVES				
Mean	3.95	3.74	3.39	3.56
SD	.855	.849	.941	.919
EFA				
Factor loading	.669	.651	.632	.619
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.049		.960	
Total Variance Explained (%)	26.226		24.004	
Cumulative (%)	50.229			
Determinant of Correlation	0.454			
KMO Test	.685			
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05			

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.20, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.454 ( $> 0.00001$  threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .685 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ). All the tests including the factor loadings indicate that the EFA for innovation construct (INC) is valid. All the factors have better loading and fit well into the construct.

**Table 8.21:** EFA for Proactiveness Construct

ITEM	L1	L2	L3	L4
DESCRIPTIVES				
Mean	3.40	3.54	3.31	3.19
SD	1.114	.899	1.098	1.075
EFA				
Factor loading	.519	.675	.752	.650
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.060		.869	
Total Variance Explained (%)	26.510		21.727	
Cumulative (%)	48.237			
Determinant of Correlation	0.431			
KMO Test	.723			
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05			

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.21, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.431 ( $> 0.00001$  threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .723 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ). All the tests including the factor loadings indicate that the EFA for proactiveness construct (PRC) is valid.

**Table 8.22:** EFA for Entrepreneurship Autonomy & Skills Dev. Construct

ITEM	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
DESCRIPTIVES						
Mean	3.56	3.32	3.28	3.18	3.25	3.25
SD	.908	.895	1.006	.994	.993	.990
EFA						
Factor loading	.680	.725	.754	.688	.682	.720
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.921			1.442		
Total Variance Explained (%)	32.018			24.041		
Cumulative (%)	56.059					
Determinant of Correlation	0.098					
KMO Test	.857					
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05					

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.22, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.098 (> 0.00001 threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .857 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant (0.000 < 0.05). All the tests including the factor loadings indicate that the EFA for entrepreneurship autonomy & skills development construct (EADC) is valid.

**Table 8.23:** EFA for Altruism Construct

ITEM	N1	N2	N3
DESCRIPTIVES			
Mean	3.37	3.26	3.01
SD	1.035	1.031	1.126
EFA			
Factor loading	.703	.833	.811
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.042	.841	
Total Variance Explained (%)	34.726	28.040	
Cumulative (%)	62.766		
Determinant of Correlation	0.330		
KMO Test	.705		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.23, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.330 (> 0.00001 threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .705 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant (0.000 < 0.05). All the tests including the factor loadings indicate that the EFA for altruism construct (AC) is valid. All factors have better loading and fit well into the construct.

**Table 8.24:** EFA for Shared Vision Construct

ITEM	O1	O2	O3	O4
DESCRIPTIVES				
Mean	3.25	3.18	3.14	3.22
SD	1.079	1.111	1.032	.950
EFA				
Factor loading	.760	.786	.785	.667
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.247		1.149	
Total Variance Explained (%)	31.187		28.731	
Cumulative (%)	59.919			
Determinant of Correlation	0.227			
KMO Test	.801			
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05			

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.24, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.227 (> 0.00001 threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .801 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant (0.000 < 0.05). All the tests including the factor loadings indicate that the EFA for shared vision construct (SVC) is appropriate.

**Table 8.25:** EFA for Socialisation Construct

ITEM	P1	P2	P3
DESCRIPTIVES			
Mean	3.26	3.28	3.15
SD	1.103	1.026	1.050
EFA			
Factor loading	.611	.782	.764
Eigenvalues of two dominant factors	1.247		1.149
Total Variance Explained (%)	31.009		22.615
Cumulative (%)	53.624		
Determinant of Correlation	0.446		
KMO Test	.673		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	0.000 < 0.05		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.25, the determinant of the correlation matrix is 0.446 (> 0.00001 threshold); an indication that the data set lack the problem of multicollinearity. The KMO test is .673 which indicates adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test is significant (0.000 < 0.05). All the tests including the factor loadings indicate that the EFA for socialisation construct (SC) is valid. Based on the reliability and validity tests carried out above, it has been ascertained that the data set are internally consistent, replicable, reliable and valid to measure the various constructs in this thesis. These reliability and validity tests have provided sound foundation

for further data analysis. The next section presents the demographics of the respondents and inferential statistics.

### 8.3: Demographics of the Respondents

There are six demographics in the data analysis in Table 8.26a namely: location, sex, age, marital status, educational qualifications and type of respondents. With regards to location, 25.2% of the respondents are from the Somolu/Bariga/Oworonshoki Axis, 15.7% are from Ikeja/Agege/Alimosho Axis, 13.0% are from the Lagos Island/Victoria Island Axis, 10.3% are from Ikorodu/Kosofe Axis. Other locations show one-digit percentages. For gender status, 75.9% are male respondents and 24.1% are females. On age brackets, a total of 24.4% fall within the age bracket of 16-25 years; 24.7% of the respondents are 26-35 years old; 24.1% are 36-45 years; 22.2% are 46-55 years and 4.6% are 56 years and above. The marital status of the respondents varies. The married respondents are 59.6%, single respondents are 39.6%, widow/widowers are 0.6% and divorced respondents are 0.3%. With regards to academic qualifications, 21.6% of the respondents have ND/NCE educational qualifications; 36.6% have Bachelor of Science degrees and 29.3% of the respondents have Master and Doctoral Degrees.

**Table 8.26a:** Personal Data of respondents

Variable	Description	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Location</b>	Lagos Island/Victoria Island Axis	48	13.0%
	Mainland/Yaba/Apapa Axis	34	9.2%
	Somolu/Bariga/Oworonshoki Axis	93	25.2%
	Ikeja/Agege/Alimosho Axis	58	15.7%
	Mushin/Oshodi/Isolo Axis	32	8.7%
	Ikorodu/Kosofe Axis	38	10.3%
	Badagry/Epe Axis	20	5.4%
	Other locations	46	12.5%
	Total	369	100%
<b>Sex</b>	Male	280	75.9%
	Female	89	24.1%
	Total	369	100%
<b>Age</b>	16-25 years	90	24.4%
	26-35 years	91	24.7%
	36-45 years	89	24.1%
	46-55 years	82	22.2%
	56 years and above	17	4.6%
	Total	369	100%
<b>Marital status</b>	Single	146	39.6%
	Married	220	59.6%
	Divorced	1	0.3%
	Widow/Widower	2	0.6%
	Total	369	100%

<b>Educational qualification</b>		
Primary School	1	0.3%
Secondary School	18	4.9%
ND/NCE	80	21.6%
HND	22	6%
Bachelor	135	36.6%
Master and Doctoral degree	108	29.3%
Others	5	1.4%
Total	369	100%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

On the type of respondents that participated in the survey, Table 8.26b below indicates that the majority of the respondents are students (32.0%), private sector employees (27.6%), public sector employees (24.4%) and self-employed persons (13.6%). The unemployed persons accounted for only 2.4%.

**Table 8.26b:** Type of respondents

<b>Which type of telephone user are you?</b>		
	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
Self-employed business owner	50	13.6%
Student	118	32.0%
Unemployed person	9	2.4%
Private sector employee	102	27.6%
Public sector employee	90	24.4%
Total	369	100%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.26c, 58% of the respondents reported that they have high knowledge of CSR; 24.7% have fair knowledge of CSR; 11.4% reported having extensive knowledge, while the remaining 6% of the respondents have poor knowledge of CSR.

**Table 8.26c:** Knowledge of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

<b>How would you describe your knowledge of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the Telecommunication industry?</b>			
	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
• Extensive	42	11.4	11.4
• High	214	58.0	69.4
• Fair	91	24.7	94.0
• Poor	22	6.0	100.0
Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)



Similarly, Table 8.26d below indicates that majority of the respondents (52.3%) have high knowledge of entrepreneurship; 24.7% have fair knowledge of entrepreneurship; 6.2% have extensive knowledge and 5.1% have poor knowledge of entrepreneurship.

**Table 8.25d: Knowledge of Entrepreneurship**

Could you also describe your knowledge of the term Entrepreneurship in the Telecommunication industry?			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
• Extensive	23	6.2	6.2
• High	193	52.3	58.5
• Fair	134	36.3	94.9
• Poor	19	5.1	100.0
Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

With respect to monitoring of CSR activities in Nigeria by the respondents, Table 8.26e below shows that 52.6% of the respondents observe CSR activities occasionally; 13.8% observe CSR monthly; 11.1% observe CSR quarterly; 10% observe CSR weekly; another 10% observe CSR annually and the remaining 2.4% of the respondents observe CSR bi-annually.

**Table 8.25e: Frequency of observation of CSR Activities**

Based on your response in A7 above, how often do you observe the CSR activities of the Nigerian telecommunication industry?			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
• Weekly	37	10.0	10.0
• Monthly	51	13.8	23.8
• Quarterly	41	11.1	35.0
• Bi-annually	9	2.4	37.4
• Annually	37	10.0	47.4
• Occasionally	194	52.6	100.0
Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Table 8.26f identified six (6) broad perceptions of CSR by the stakeholders, but the majority of the respondents (84.5%) are comfortable with the perception in B1 which views CSR as referring to voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large. 74.5% view CSR as a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reductions from the

government; 43% of the respondents perceive CSR as a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employees' motivation and their financial performance; 62.9% view CSR as a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing the negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups; 63.4% described CSR as a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders; and 61.6% are of the view that CSR is a strategy for improving corporations' economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.

**Table 8.26f: Perception of CSR in the Telecom Industry**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
B1.	CSR refers to voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	44.7%	39.8%	9.8%	4.6%	1.1%
B2.	CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reductions from the government	29.0%	45.5%	13.6%	7.0%	4.9%
B3.	CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employees' motivation and their financial performance.	10.8%	32.2%	23.8%	19.0%	14.1%
B4.	CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing the negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.	16.3%	46.6%	20.6%	10.8%	5.7%
B5.	CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.	21.1%	42.3%	19.8%	9.8%	7.0%
B6.	CSR is a strategy for improving corporations' economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.	20.1%	41.5%	20.9%	10.8%	6.8%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

The commitments of Nigerian telecommunication companies to the environmental dimension of CSR vary from company to company. In Table 8.26g, 35.3% of the respondents agree (33.3% disagree) that telecommunication companies have environmental management policies on waste reduction and control. On the issues of monitoring the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations, 25.4% agree (52.9% disagree) that telecommunication companies do comply. With regards to proactiveness in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products, 23.8% agree (59.6% disagree) that telecommunication

companies are proactive in this area. Besides, 17.6% of the respondents agree (64.5% disagree) that telecommunication companies ensure a clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes. On the issue of environmental impact assessment (EIA), 33.3% of the respondents agree (38% disagree) that EIA is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations. On the last environment issue, 26.3% agree (47.5% disagree) that telecommunication companies consider the environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services.

**Table 8.26g: CSR as an Environmental Issue**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
C1.	Telecommunication companies have environmental management policies on waste reduction and control.	10.6%	24.7%	31.4%	20.6%	12.7%
C2.	These companies monitor the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations.	6.2%	19.2%	21.7%	31.2%	21.7%
C3.	They are proactive in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products.	5.1%	18.7%	16.5%	30.6%	29.0%
C4.	Telecommunication companies ensure a clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes.	6.5%	11.1%	17.9%	28.7%	35.8%
C5.	Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations.	8.1%	25.2%	28.7%	19.0%	19.0%
C6.	Telecommunication companies consider environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services.	6.8%	19.5%	26.3%	31.2%	16.3%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

There are interesting revelations on CSR as community and national issues in Table 8.26h. Firstly, 59.7% of the respondents agree (15.2% disagree) that telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities. Secondly, 38.5% agree (29% disagree) that these companies involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities. Thirdly, 43.1% agree (28.7% disagree) that the companies support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large. Fourthly, 33.6% of the respondents agree (33.6% disagree) that telecommunication companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities. Furthermore, 33.6% of the respondents agree (37.4% disagree) that these companies have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate.

With respect to supporting aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty reduction, health and education enhancement for economic development, 46.1% agree they do (21.4% disagree). Similarly, 33.1% agree (33.8% disagree) that telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities. Lastly, 39.8% of the respondents agree (31.7% disagree) that telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication of deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.

**Table 8.26h: CSR as Community & National Issues**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
D1.	Telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities.	16.3%	43.4%	25.2%	11.9%	3.3%
D2.	They involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities.	8.1%	30.4%	32.5%	21.1%	7.9%
D3.	They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.	9.2%	33.9%	28.2%	19.2%	9.5%
D4.	The companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities.	8.4%	25.2%	32.8%	21.7%	11.9%
D5.	They have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate	7.9%	25.7%	29.0%	25.2%	12.2%
D6.	They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.	11.4%	34.7%	32.5%	17.1%	4.3%
D7.	The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.	6.5%	26.6%	33.1%	24.9%	8.9%
D8.	The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication of deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.	7.6%	32.2%	28.5%	21.7%	10.0%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Table 8.26i shows a varied perception of the social dimension of CSR among the respondents. The majority of the respondents are of the opinion that CSR has been channelled into several social issues. From the analysis, 65.3% agree (16% disagree) that Nigerian telecommunication companies support academic and education programmes; 50.4% agree (22.6% disagree) that they facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level; 46.7% agree (25.8% disagree) that telecommunication companies support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories. 56.7% agree (17.7% disagree) that these companies provide scholarships to indigent and talented students in the formal school system. However, 31.4% agree (31% disagree) that telecommunication companies support empowerment and widow issues and 73.7% agree

(8.4% disagree) that telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.

**Table 8.26i: CSR as Social Issues**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
E1.	Nigerian telecommunication companies get involved in academic and education programmes.	19%	46.3%	18.7%	12.5%	3.5%
E2.	They facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level.	7.9%	42.5%	23.0%	19.8%	6.8%
E3.	They support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories.	11.7%	35.0%	27.6%	20.1%	5.7%
E4.	Telecommunication companies provide scholarships to indigent and talented students in the formal school system.	12.5%	44.2%	25.7%	13.6%	4.1%
E5.	Telecommunication companies support women empowerment and widow issues.	7.3%	24.1%	37.7%	22.2%	8.7%
E6.	Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.	23.6%	50.1%	17.9%	5.1%	3.3%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Table 8.26j, 48% of the respondents agree (15.2% disagree) that telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government; 66.9% agree (10.3% disagree) that CSR participation of these companies promotes the strategic business interest of long-term profitability; 73.7% agree (6.3% disagree) that CSR programmes boost the corporate reputation of these companies in the eyes of government and the public. 58.8% agree (13.9%) that the companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners; 59.4% agree (12.5% disagree) that CSR programmes are adopted for the benefit of revenues and costs optimisation; and 74% agree (7.3% disagree) that these companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.

**Table 8.26j: CSR as Economic Issues**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
F1.	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government.	16.3%	31.7%	36.9%	11.7%	3.5%
F2.	CSR participation of telecommunication companies promotes the strategic business interest of long-term profitability.	17.6%	49.3%	22.8%	9.2%	1.1%
F3.	The CSR programmes boost the corporate reputation of these companies in the eyes of government and the public.	22.2%	51.5%	20.1%	4.6%	1.6%
F4.	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners.	10.8%	48.0%	27.4%	10.6%	3.3%
F5.	The CSR programmes are adopted for the benefit of revenues and costs optimisation.	16%	43.4%	28.2%	10.3%	2.2%
F6.	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.	22.2%	51.8%	18.7%	5.7%	1.6%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.26k, several respondents agree that telecommunication companies place high importance on stakeholder engagement while implementing their CSR programmes. For instance, 47.1% of the respondents agree (19.2% disagree) that these companies have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement; 55.3% agree (17.7% disagree) that the most valuable stakeholders of telecommunication companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors; 55.8% agree (14.9% disagree) that engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers; 50.1% agree (17.3% disagree) that stakeholder engagement of these companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders. However, 31.9% agree (35% disagree) that stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned; 39.1% agree (24.9%) that CSR programmes and projects are provided based on the outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community; and 67.5% agree (8.7% disagree) that stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by the strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.

**Table 8.26k: CSR and Stakeholder Engagement**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
G1.	Telecommunication companies in Nigeria have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement.	12.7%	34.4%	33.6%	11.9%	7.3%
G2.	The most valuable stakeholders to these companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors.	13.6%	41.7%	27.1%	13.6%	4.1%
G3.	Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.	14.6%	41.2%	29.3%	11.4%	3.5%
G4.	The stakeholder engagement of these companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders.	10.0%	40.1%	32.5%	12.7%	4.6%
G5.	The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.	7.0%	24.9%	33.1%	25.5%	9.5%
G6.	CSR programmes and projects are provided based on the outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community.	6.0%	33.1%	36.0%	18.7%	6.2%
G7.	The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by the strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.	16.0%	51.5%	23.8%	6.5%	2.2%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.26l, the respondents (57.2%) identify the strategic business interest of the companies as the need to improve relations with customers, employees, business partners and host communities. It is followed by the strategic need to give something back to the society on ethical and moral grounds (14.1%) and the need to improve the economic performance of long-term profitability (9.5%). Three other interests are: availing of public incentives of tax reduction/exemptions (8.7%); bowing to pressure from external stakeholders (8.1%) and reducing the negative impact of business operations on the environment (2.4%).

**Table 8.26l: Which of the following is the most strategic business interest of Nigerian telecommunication in CSR?**

H1	Strategic Business Interest	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
a.	To improve relations with customers, employees, business partners and host communities.	211	57.2	57.2
b.	To improve the economic performance of long-term profitability	35	9.5	66.7
c.	To bow to pressure from external stakeholders	30	8.1	74.8
d.	To avail of public incentives of tax reduction/exemptions	32	8.7	83.5
e.	To reduce the negative impact of business operations on the environment	9	2.4	85.9
f.	To give something back to the society on ethical and moral grounds	52	14.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.26m, two programmes represent the dominant CSR activity in Nigeria. 69.1% of the respondents identify Sports & Entertainment/Show business as the dominant activity, while 10.6% are of the view that the dominant CSR activity is Entrepreneurship & Small Business Promotion. Other CSR activities are Education & Training Interventions (9.5%); Environmental protection programmes (6.0%); Welfare services to clinic & special homes (2.7%); and Infrastructural Development in communities (2.2%).

**Table 8.26m:** Which is the dominant CSR activity in Nigeria?

H2		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
a.	Sports & Entertainment/Show business	255	69.1	69.1
b.	Environmental protection programmes	22	6.0	75.1
c.	Education & Training Interventions	35	9.5	84.6
d.	Welfare services to clinic & special homes	10	2.7	87.3
e.	Entrepreneurship & Small Business Promotion	39	10.6	97.8
f.	Infrastructural Development in communities	8	2.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.26n, the respondents identified four (4) prevalent CSR modes in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. The first is the economic mode (41.5%), the second is the philanthropic mode (27.1%), the third is the compensatory mode (16.8%) and the fourth is the corporate citizenship mode (14.6%).

**Table 8.26n:** Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

H3		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
a.	Philanthropic mode	100	27.1	27.1
b.	Economic mode	153	41.5	68.6
c.	Compensatory mode	62	16.8	85.4
d.	Corporate Citizenship mode	54	14.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Similarly, Table 8.26o shows the common mode(s) adopted by telecommunication companies for reporting their CSR activities in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. The first three common reporting modes of CSR are: advertisement/promotional campaigns (41.5%), media/press briefing (20.9%) and annual reports philanthropic mode (11.4%). Four other



reporting modes that are rarely used are publications on websites (4.9%), word-of-mouth (2.4%), CSR report (3.0%) and email/postal letter (1.9%).

**Table 8.25o:** What is the common mode(s) adopted by these companies for reporting its CSR activities?

H4		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
a.	Advertisement/Promotional campaigns	205	55.6	55.6
b.	Annual reports	42	11.4	66.9
c.	Media/Press Briefings	77	20.9	87.8
d.	Publications on websites	18	4.9	92.7
e.	Word-of-mouth	9	2.4	95.1
f.	CSR reports	11	3.0	98.1
g.	E-mail/ Postal letter	7	1.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Table 8.25p highlights the valuable stakeholder groups in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. The three valuable stakeholder groups are customers (27.1%), shareholders/owners (24.4%) and regulatory agencies (17.9%). Others are wholesalers/distributors (5.4%), professional association (0.8%), industry experts (0.8%), bank/financial institutions (2.7%), human rights/civil society organisations (2.7%), employees/unions (1.6%), host communities (5.7%), media organisations (6.5%) and competitors/rival companies (4.3%).

**Table 8.25p:** Which of the following is the most valuable stakeholder group of the telecommunication companies in Nigeria?

H5.	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
• Shareholders/Owners	90	24.4	24.4
• Wholesalers/Distributors	20	5.4	29.8
• Professional Associations	3	0.8	30.6
• Industry Experts/Consultants	3	0.8	31.4
• Customers	100	27.1	58.5
• Regulatory Agencies	66	17.9	76.4
• Bank/Financial Institutions	10	2.7	79.1
• Human Rights/Civil Society Organisations	10	2.7	81.8
• Employees/Employee Unions	6	1.6	83.5
• Host Communities	21	5.7	89.2
• Media Organisations	24	6.5	95.7
• Competitors/Rival Companies	16	4.3	100.0
Total	369	100.0	

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Beyond the voluntary demonstration of empathy to the society, Table 8.25q shows a number of future potential of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. 83.7% agree (3.6% disagree) that future CSR could be targeted at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions; 85.1% agree (4.1% disagree) that CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training with a view to complementing government effort; 77.5% agree (5.7% disagree) that future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria; 72% agree (9.5% disagree) that CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities; and 65% agree (13.6% disagree) that CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.

**Table 8.25q:** Future potential of CSR in the Telecom Industry

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
I1.	Future CSR could be targeted at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.	47.4%	36.3%	12.7%	3.3%	0.3%
I2.	In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training.	44.2%	40.9%	10.8%	3.0%	1.1%
I3.	Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.	41.5%	36.0%	16.8%	4.9%	0.8%
I4.	CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.	37.9%	34.1%	18.4%	7.9%	1.6%
I5.	CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.	29.8%	35.2%	21.4%	8.7%	4.9%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Table 8.26r showcases the perception of entrepreneurship in the telecommunication industry. 54.5% of the respondents agree (30.6% disagree) that entrepreneurship is a process of creating a job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country; 62.9% agree (22.4% disagree) that entrepreneurship is a situation when an individual consciously retires

from other people’s jobs and settles down to create a personal and fully-owned business; 69.1% agree (15.4% disagree) that entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit; 85.1% agree (4.6% disagree) that entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities; and 84.0% agree (6.8% disagree) that entrepreneurship is the acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provides an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing existing firms.

**Table 8.26r: Perception of Entrepreneurship in the Telecom Industry**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
J1.	Entrepreneurship is a process of creating a job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.	26.3%	28.2%	14.9%	17.6%	13.0%
J2.	Entrepreneurship occurs when an individual consciously retires from other people’s jobs and settles down to create a personal and fully-owned business.	22.8%	40.1%	14.6%	15.4%	7.0%
J3.	Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.	24.7%	44.4%	15.4%	11.1%	4.3%
J4.	Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.	39.8%	45.3%	10.3%	3.5%	1.1%
J5.	Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provides an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing existing firms.	42.0%	42.0%	9.2%	5.4%	1.4%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Table 8.26s indicates that Nigerian telecommunication companies exhibit entrepreneurial innovativeness in a number of ways. Firstly, 76.4% agree (6.2% disagree) that telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors. Secondly, 67.2% agree (7.9% disagree) that these companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions. Thirdly, 49.6% agree (17.1% disagree) that telecommunication companies encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave in novel ways. Lastly, 60.8% agree (13.9% disagree) that these companies provide supports for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.

**Table 8.26s: Innovativeness in the Telecom Industry**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
K1.	Most telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors.	25.5%	50.9%	17.3%	5.1%	1.1%
K2.	The companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions.	15.7%	51.5%	24.9%	6.5%	1.4%
K3.	They encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave in novel ways.	9.2%	40.4%	33.3%	14.1%	3.0%
K4.	The companies provide supports for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.	11.7%	49.1%	25.5%	11.7%	2.2%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

On proactiveness, Table 8.26t indicates that Nigerian telecommunication companies demonstrated some level of proactiveness in four areas. Firstly, 51.2% agree (20.9% disagree) that the companies favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations. Besides, 58.8% agree (14.1% disagree) that the companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities. Thirdly, 51.8% agree (26.3% disagree) that the companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market. However, 42.9% agree (26.6% disagree) that telecommunication companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.

**Table 8.26t: Proactiveness in the Telecom Industry**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
L1.	Dominant telecommunication companies in Nigeria favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations.	16.0%	35.2%	27.9%	14.4%	6.5%
L2.	The companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities	11.1%	47.7%	27.1%	12.7%	1.4%
L3.	These companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market.	11.7%	40.1%	22.0%	20.6%	5.7%
L4.	The companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.	9.8%	33.1%	30.6%	19.8%	6.8%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Moreover, Table 8.26u shows modest level of autonomy and skills development among the telecommunication companies in Nigeria. 57.7% of the respondents agree (12.2% disagree)

that the Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets. Secondly, 46.9% agree (19% disagree) that these companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base. Furthermore, 44.7% agree (21.2% disagree) that telecommunication companies support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence. Whereas, 36.6% of the respondents agree (24.4% disagree) that support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills. 44.7% agree (23% disagree) that telecommunication companies provide support for the host community to elicit their collaboration for the business of peace. Apart from the interventions above, 42.8% agree (21.9% disagree) that training and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.

**Table 8.26u:** Autonomy & Skills Development in the Telecom Industry

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
M1.	Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets.	12.2%	45.5%	30.1%	10.0%	2.2%
M2.	The companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base.	6.2%	40.7%	34.1%	17.1%	1.9%
M3.	The companies support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence.	9.5%	35.2%	34.1%	16.3%	4.9%
M4.	Support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills.	9.5%	27.1%	39.0%	20.3%	4.1%
M5.	Telecommunication companies provide support for host community to elicit their collaboration for the business of peace.	7.6%	37.1%	32.2%	18.4%	4.6%
M6.	Training and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.	8.4%	34.4%	35.2%	17.3%	4.6%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Table 8.26v below shows that the telecommunication companies demonstrated a fair level of altruism in the industry. In the first instance, 50.2% of the respondents agree (17.9% disagree) that telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile. Secondly, 48.8% agree (25.2% disagree) that Nigerian telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society. Lastly, 37.1% agree (34.7% disagree) that

telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.

**Table 8.26v: Altruism in the Telecom Industry**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
N1.	Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile.	11.4%	38.8%	32.0%	11.7%	6.2%
N2.	Telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society.	7.9%	40.9%	26.0%	20.1%	5.1%
N3.	Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.	8.4%	28.7%	28.2%	24.7%	10.0%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

With regards to shared vision, Table 8.26w also shows a fair level of shared vision in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. In the first area, 45.2% agree (24.4% disagree) that telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impacts on entrepreneurship development. 42% of the respondents agree (26.6% disagree) that most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and the Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development. Thirdly, 45% agree (29% disagree) that these companies support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication; while 39.1% agree (20.9% disagree) that the telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.

**Table 8.26w: Shared Vision in the Telecom Industry**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
O1.	Telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impacts on entrepreneurship development.	11.1%	34.1%	30.4%	17.9%	6.5%
O2.	Most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and the Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development.	10.8%	31.2%	31.4%	18.2%	8.4%
O3.	They support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication.	4.6%	40.4%	26.0%	22.2%	6.8%
O4.	Telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.	7.9%	31.2%	40.1%	17.1%	3.8%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

In Table 8.26x, the telecommunication industry has a fair degree of socialisation in four key areas in the industry. 47.7% of the respondents agree (26% disagree) that telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community. Secondly, 46.9% agree (22.2% disagree) that telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society, while 41.5% agree (27.6% disagree) that Nigerian telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.

**Table 8.26x: Socialisation in the Telecom Industry**

SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
P1.	Telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community.	11.4%	36.3%	26.3%	19.2%	6.8%
P2.	Telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society.	9.2%	37.7%	30.9%	16.8%	5.4%
P3.	Most telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.	7.9%	33.6%	30.9%	21.1%	6.5%

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

#### **8.4: Validation of Research Propositions/Testing of Hypotheses**

From the reviewed literature in chapters 3 and 4, four (4) propositions emerged which aligned with the research objectives. Each of the propositions was further divided into issue-specific hypotheses. Consequently, a total of nine (9) hypotheses were formulated to strengthen the four (4) propositions. The findings are presented below sequentially.

**8.4.1: Proposition 1:** The perception of CSR by the stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is large a philanthropic perspective.

⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication is not a philanthropic perspective.

⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication is a philanthropic perspective.

Six perceptions of CSR given by the respondents were ranked using Friedman Rank Test Statistics and the hypothesis was tested using Chi-Square Test Statistics. The perception of CSR with the best ranking is serial number 1 in Table 8.27, which reflects CSR as a

voluntary, ethical and moral obligation required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large. The probability values ( $p=0.000$  for all the six definitions) associated with the values of Chi-Square Statistics of 314.401, 216.000, 52.531, 186.569, 142.125 and 132.883 are all less than .05 indicating a significant relationship. Based on these estimates, the study found that the stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication is a philanthropic perspective.

**Table 8.27:** Friedman Rank Test & Chi-Square Test Statistics on perception of CSR

Perception of CSR	Mean Rank	Chi-Square Estimates
1. CSR refers to voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	4.35	314.401 (df=4, p=0.00)
2. CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reductions from government.	3.81	216.000 (df=4, p=0.00)
3. CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employees' motivation and their financial performance.	2.64	52.531(df=4, p=0.00)
4. CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing the negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.	3.28	186.569 (df=4, p=0.00)
5. CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.	3.53	142.125 (df=4, p=0.00)
6. CSR is a strategy for improving corporations' economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.	3.38	132.883 (df=4, p=0.00)
Overall: N=369, Chi-Square=237.762, df=5, Asymp. Sig.=0.000		

**Source:** Survey (2014)

#### 8.4.2: Discussion of Finding

The literature describes CSR as fashionable and nebulous (Crowther and Aras, 2010; Ismail, 2009) as well as an umbrella term which accommodates many practices and theories (Blowfield and Frynas, 2005). Endless debates and meanings to CSR elicited reaction from Porter (2003) who described CSR as a religion with many priests. True to the assertions above, this study found that the meaning of CSR in Nigeria is diverse and the varied meanings are mostly influenced by stakeholders' perception of corporate involvement. However, the common meaning of CSR based on ranking is that which views CSR as a voluntary, ethical and moral obligation required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large. Previous studies support the finding above. According to Smith (2011), the Fortune Global survey of 500 corporations found divergence in the meanings of CSR and most corporations from different locations/industries lack consistency in the usage of CSR. The corporations used sustainability erroneously as a synonym of CSR in their reports.



Besides, a global survey of 1,122 CEOs found that CEOs understood CSR as a policy that sustainably retains existing employees and attracts new ones to organisations (Marcel van Marrewijk, 2003; Gond et al., 2008). Another survey, in France, found that the understanding of CSR is woven around the benefits accruable to stakeholder groups; and employee stakeholders were identified as the most visible group (Humière and Chauveau, 2001). Consequently, scholars posited that the meaning given to CSR is dependent on national cultural practices/norms (Amaeshi et al., 2006; Helg, 2007).

Through conceptual lenses, CSR is defined as an acceptable means designed by corporations for achieving a synergy of economic, environmental and social objectives or triple bottom line obligations (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011; Haskins, 1999; Kotler and Lee, 2005) or corporate social involvement in the realm of philanthropy, environmental protection, corporate citizenship, business trust/fair trade, consumer protection, socially responsible investment, green marketing, corporate altruism, sustainable development (Carroll, 1999; Lantos, 2001; Crowther and Rayman-Bacchus, 2004; Carroll, 2004; Amaeshi et al., 2006, Nelson, 2007; Ismail, 2009, Natufe, 2011, George and Kuye, 2012). It has been viewed by some as a policy of corporations to merge stakeholders' social and environmental concerns with the business strategies of corporations for long-term sustainability (Charities Aid Foundation 2007; Jamali, and Mirshak, 2006; Till and Nowak, 2000).

From a marketing perspective, CSR is a PR tool for gaining competitive advantage, building emotional loyalty from employees and customers as well as an opportunity for reputation building and trust from the public and public officials (Babiak and Wolfe, 2006; Business 4 Better, 2013). Although, using CSR as a PR tool for selfish economic ends has been described as a smokescreen (Sweeney, 2009; Mintzberg, 1984; Grant, 2007; Szuster, 2008) and a shield to cover-up unethical practices (Mullerat, 2010). The purpose of CSR from all the meanings given above is for corporations to foster good relationships with the stakeholders in the host communities (Virvilaite and Daubaraite, 2011). Therefore, it is safe to conclude that there is no one-size-fits-all with regards to the meaning of CSR (Marcel van Marrewijk, 2003); the meanings given to CSR are deliberately crafted to fit corporations' philosophies and priorities (Helg, 2007; Osemene, 2012). Moon (2002) was therefore justified describing CSR as a 'cluster concept' (p.4).

**8.4.3: Proposition 2:** The perception of entrepreneurship by the stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is essentially an attempt to set businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship of the Nigerian telecommunication is not setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship of the Nigerian telecommunication is setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

In testing the hypothesis, all the perceptions given by 369 respondents were ranked using the Friedman Rank Test Statistics and the hypothesis was tested using Chi-Square Test Statistics. The perception of entrepreneurship with the best ranking is serial number 5 in Table 8.28, which perceives entrepreneurship as acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provides an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing existing firms. Apart from the Friedman Rank Test Statistic, which shows a mean rank of 3.45, the probability values (p=0.000 for the five definitions) associated with the Chi-Square values of 34.509, 116.108, 1777.924, 323.778 and 303.507 are all less than .05 indicating there is a significant relationship. We therefore conclude based on the Chi-Square Test Statistics estimates that stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship of the Nigerian telecommunication is setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.

**Table 8.28:** Friedman Rank & Chi-Square Tests on the Perception of Entrepreneurship

Perception of Entrepreneurship	Mean Rank	Chi-Square Estimates
1. Entrepreneurship is a process of creating a job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.	2.58	34.509 (df=4, p=0.00)
2. Entrepreneurship occurs when an individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create a personal and fully-owned business	2.71	116.108 (df=4, p=0.00)
3. Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.	2.87	177.924 (df=4, p=0.00)
4. Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.	3.39	323.778 (df=4, p=0.00)
5. Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provides an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.	3.45	303.507 (df=4, p=0.00)
N=369, Chi-Square=140.660, df=4, Asymp. Sig.=0.000		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

#### **8.4.4: Discussion of Findings**

While the research found that the Stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship of the Nigerian telecommunication is setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation, the widely-held perception given by the Nigerian respondents is a conscious attempt by individuals to set up their own businesses for self-reliance, wealth creation, self-employment and self-sufficiency. The emerging definition of entrepreneurship in Nigeria puts the emphasis on job creation, self-employment, community development and wealth creation. This conceptualisation aligns with a number of theoretical and empirical studies which defined entrepreneurship as tapping economic opportunities, job creation, wealth creation and economic development (Leibenstein, 1968; Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; Szerb, 2007; Brixiova, 2010; Anyadike et al., 2012). From the development scholars, entrepreneurship assumes the meaning of an engine for catalysing economic growth and development in less developed societies (Hall, 2000; Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2006).

Besides, entrepreneurship is viewed as a radical breakthrough innovation, strategic advantage-seeking and opportunity-seeking behaviour (Lassen, 2007). It is also a mechanism for creating small businesses with the intention of creating additional jobs (Stangler and Robert, 2009). Institutional driven entrepreneurship is an innovative social activity which entails sacrificing private profits for public concerns (Dee, 1998; Austin and Reficco, 2009). In view of the slippery meanings of entrepreneurship, it has been suggested that the concept be viewed as either a 'top-down process' or a 'bottom-up process'. By top-down process, entrepreneurship connotes initiatives driving businesses to foster higher innovation and development of new ventures, while a bottom-up process views entrepreneurship as an attempt by new starters or firms to create new businesses by exploiting available opportunities (Bosma, Stam and Wennekers, 2011; Nyström, 2012). The way people perceive a concept has serious impact on how it is defined. In a study designed to find out the capabilities of two different types of entrepreneur, it was found that the meanings given to the two types of entrepreneur were based on the perceptions of the respondents and this had impact on the outcome of the study. From a theoretical viewpoint, the finding is supported by the human capital theory which views people with education, experience and training as having better intuition, competence and better cognitive abilities (Coleman, 2007; Kim et al., 2006).

**8.4.5: Proposition 3:** Future CSR activities could potentially fund entrepreneurship education, start-up capital for small businesses, procurement of equipment, establishment of business clusters/incubations and instrument for political risk mitigation.

**Hypothesis 3a**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential for funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential for funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

**Hypothesis 3b**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training.

**Hypothesis 3c**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.

**Hypothesis 3d**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential as funding for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential as funding for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.

**Hypothesis 3e**

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: Future CSR does not have potential as instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: Future CSR has potential as instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.

There are five hypotheses under the third proposition. To confirm their acceptability or otherwise, questionnaire items I1, I2, I3, I4 and I5, which elicited responses on future potential of CSR from the respondents, were verified under one-tail test using Chi-Square Test Statistics. The results are presented sequentially in Tables 8.29-8.32 below.

**Table 8.29:** Future CSR has potential for funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	1	73.8	-72.8
Disagree	12	73.8	-61.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	47	73.8	-26.8
Agree	134	73.8	60.2
Strongly Agree	175	73.8	101.2
Total	369		
<b>Chi-Square</b>	321.176 <sup>a</sup>		
<b>df</b>	4		
<b>Asymp. Sig.</b>	.000		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Tables 8.29, probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 321.176 is less than .05 indicating that the one-tail test is significant. Based on Chi-Square=321.176 and P-value= 0.000, the study found that future CSR has potential for funding entrepreneurship education in primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

**Table 8.30:** Future CSR has potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	4	73.8	-69.8
Disagree	11	73.8	-62.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	40	73.8	-33.8
Agree	151	73.8	77.2
Strongly Agree	163	73.8	89.2
Total	369		
<b>Chi-Square</b>	323.507 <sup>a</sup>		
<b>df</b>	4		
<b>Asymp. Sig.</b>	.000		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Similarly, Tables 8.30 shows that the probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 323.507 is less than .05 indicating that the one-tail test is significant. Based on the estimates, Chi-Square=323.507 and P-value=0.000, the study found that future CSR has potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training research.

**Table 8.31:** Future CSR has potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	3	73.8	-70.8
Disagree	18	73.8	-55.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	62	73.8	-11.8
Agree	133	73.8	59.2
Strongly Agree	153	73.8	79.2
Total	369		
<b>Chi-Square</b>	244.482 <sup>a</sup>		
<b>df</b>	4		
<b>Asymp. Sig.</b>	.000		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Tables 8.31, probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 244.482 is less than .05 indicating that the one-tail test is significant. The finding based on the estimates, Chi-Square = 244.482 and P-value= 0.000 is that future CSR has potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.

**Table 8.32:** Future CSR has potential as funding for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	6	73.8	-67.8
Disagree	29	73.8	-44.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	68	73.8	-5.8
Agree	126	73.8	52.2
Strongly Agree	140	73.8	66.2
Total	369		
<b>Chi-Square</b>	186.244 <sup>a</sup>		
<b>df</b>	4		
<b>Asymp. Sig.</b>	.000		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Tables 8.32, it is evident that the probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 186.244 is less than .05 indicating that the one-tail test is significant. On the strength of the estimates, Chi-Square =186.244, P-value= 0.000), the study found that future CSR has potential for the purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities. This finding is supported by stakeholder theory, which views CSR as tools for stakeholder management (Garriga and Mele, 2004).

**Table 8.33:** Future CSR has potential as instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	18	73.8	-55.8
Disagree	32	73.8	-41.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	79	73.8	5.2
Agree	130	73.8	56.2
Strongly Agree	110	73.8	36.2
Total	369		
<b>Chi-Square</b>	126.786 <sup>a</sup>		
<b>Df</b>	4		
<b>Asymp. Sig.</b>	.000		

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

Finally, Table 8.33, like previous tables, shows that the probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 126.786 is less than .05 indicating that the one-tail test is significant. With the estimates, Chi-Square=126.786 and P-value=0.000, the study found that future CSR has potential as instrument for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.

#### **8.4.6: Discussion of Findings**

The five findings above (see Tables 8.29-8.32) revealed that future CSR could be used for entrepreneurship development in several ways, namely: funding entrepreneurship education at all levels, provision of start-up venture capital for new SMEs, building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for SMEs; purchasing equipment and important tools for the disadvantaged; and could be potent instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria. The findings are supported by several case studies of MNCs around the globe. Scholars argued that CSR finds relevance in developing African countries where government efforts are inadequate to redress the challenges of poverty, unemployment, conflicts, low quality education, infrastructure-deficient health systems, poverty-induced child labour, violation of human rights of communities and sustainable development facing the society; therefore there is the need for support through CSR investment, which represents their contribution to sustainable development in poverty-ridden nations (Frynas, 2005; Frynas, 2008; Murphy, 2010; Roy, 2010; Ufadhili et al., 2005).

Besides, intervention by private sector corporations through coordinated CSR programmes is justified because of governance deficit, the poverty trap and other social challenges facing developing countries (Raimi et al.; 2013; Raimi, Patel and Adelopo, 2014). Private intervention is also desirable to cushion the negative impact of market failure and

government inefficiency in meeting the basic welfare needs of the citizens in developing countries (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). In several communities, social problems of unemployment and poverty caused by ineffective public policies have left the citizens disillusioned and feeling hopeless. And as stakeholders, the private sector corporations have a duty to support the poor, hopeless and disillusioned who can no more “wait for a possible ‘trickle-down effect’ from governments” (Warhurst, 2001: 59).

Moreover, CSR as a support aid is designed to foster social relationships between the corporation and its hosts as well as confer social license (legitimacy) and economic licence (brand loyalty) on the corporations in the society at large (Clary and Snyder, 1999; Aguilera et al., 2007). It is reported that Adidas, General Electric, Microsoft, Chevron, NBC, CISCO, IBM, Nestle, Google, Intel, Johnson & Johnson, Unilever, Wal-Mart Nike, BP and other MNCs have willingly taken up community and national issues which greatly impacted on the society (Murphy, 2010; Natufe, 2011; Porter and Kramer, 2011). Similarly, Charitoudi, Giannarakis and Lazarides (2011) reported that corporations utilised their CSR investments as economic relief for supporting their poor customers suffering from economic recession. Similarly, Murphy (2010) reported that the CSR initiatives of Aramex and Injaz corporations are targeted at youth unemployment and constraints facing the SMEs in the Middle East and Southeast Asia. The initiatives grew to become an entrepreneurship education programme (EEP) in the region.

ZAIN Bahrain provides community support services directed at environmental issues, education, youth engagement, female empowerment and child-oriented philanthropy and Research & Development (R&D) on technological progress. An internship programme called GenNext was developed as the Future University Network provides students with a hands-on experience of work in the company (Zain Bahrain, 2013).

In Iraq, Western Zagros Limited, a Canadian-owned company integrates the wellbeing of the local communities into its business operations for long-term benefits. Its CSR programmes cover community redevelopment, employment for locals, educational support, health and water supply. The corporation takes on these commitments following the UN Global Compact and MDGs (Western Zagros Annual Report, 2012).

In Côte d’Ivoire (Africa), Porter and Kramer (2011) reported a distinct CSR refocused for creating shared value (CSV) between corporations and their farmers/suppliers. The initiative has improved farming techniques, access to better technologies and enhanced food production. Similarly, Visafone Telecommunication in Nigeria supports entrepreneurship



development by reducing the cost of calls for big corporations and small and medium size enterprises (Visafone Communication Limited, 2013).

The insights from empirical studies are instructive. Uwuigbe et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between corporate environmental visibility (measured by total asset) and the level of CSR disclosures and found that there is a significant association between corporate environmental visibility and the level of CSR disclosures among listed firms in Nigeria. In another study, Uwuigbe (2011) found a significant positive impact between management ownership and the level of CSR disclosures among firms. All these studies do not focus on the developmental perspective of CSR. Recent study on the adequacy of legislation on CSR and the effectiveness of regulatory agencies in Nigeria found that the extant laws on CSR are adequate, and that the regulatory agencies are fairly effective in the enforcement of these laws (Raimi et al., 2014). Closely related to the present research is a study from Malaysia by Ismail et al. (2014) which investigated the developmental outcomes of CSR programmes in schools from the viewpoints of the 273 teachers as stakeholders. The study found that indeed CSR programmes impacted positively on the development of the schools when viewed from improved school wellness, students' academic achievement, and overall school academic achievement.

From case study, Airtel Nigeria Limited supports schools, healthcare centres and welfare homes with its CSR investment (Owonibi, 2012; Ibe, 2012). Etisalat Nigeria Limited, like other telecommunication companies in the region, focused its CSR programmes on education, health and environment and building meaningful relationships with the stakeholders through peaceful engagement (CSR Report, 2010). Furthermore, Murphy (2010) reported that Chevron established a CSR initiative tagged Chevron Pacific Indonesia (CPI) to support small and micro enterprises (SMEs). The scheme has trained over 4,000 small local businesses and cooperatives. The model provided financial support to the tune of \$1.3 million in 2001 to small businesses and more than \$114 million in 2009.

Furthermore, the Microsoft Youth Spark Initiative (MYSI) is a Corporate Social Investment targeted at entrepreneurship development. By design, it is aimed at promoting entrepreneurship and self-employment among 300 million youth across 100 countries (Techtalsk, 2013). In Singapore, Wales, Ireland, Vietnam, Thailand, Malaysia and China, Luetkenhors (2004) reported that MNCs are building business linkages with their CSR initiatives. Their established linkages in the regions include: Singapore's Local Industry Upgrading Programme, the Source Wales Programme, Ireland's National Linkage

Programme and the programmes of Unilever in Vietnam, Toyota in Thailand, Intel in Malaysia, Motorola in China etc.

Beyond several case studies across the globe, the Business-4-Better (2013) survey found that about 60% of the 173 mid-sized corporations target their CSR investments on education to enhance the literacy capacity of the host community; 45% utilise their CSR on environmental issues; 40% target youth services; 40% are tied to economic development; 30% to disaster relief and 20% to entertainments/arts/cultural issues.

From the negative angle, Fooks, Gilmore, Collin, Holden and Lee (2013) reported that British-American Tobacco selfishly targeted its CSR programmes at the host community and national issues for the purpose of neutralising the negative impact of its products on the society, as well as avoiding the plausibility of harsh regulation and reprimands on tobacco production. This trick has been working for the organisation, but counterproductive to the wellbeing of the society. Some MNCs provide governments of developing nations with bribes and military hardware/ammunitions for suppressing opposition groups (Leigh and Evans, 2009; Fooks et al., 2013).

In countries where there are conflicts over resources and ecological disasters caused by corporations, supporting communal and national issues through well-coordinated CSR programmes and projects could be compensatory (Mordi et al., 2012), desirable (George and Kuye, 2012) and a political risk mitigation tool (Moen, 2012) or mechanism for conflict reconciliation between public and private sectors (Fooks et al., 2013). Involvement of corporations in the community and national issues in several hostile communities had been beneficial in creating the Business of Peace (BOP) across the globe (Nelson, 2000). Related to political risk mitigation is the use of CSR for lobbying and gaining the support of politicians in pursuance of certain agendas (Hillman, Keim and Schuler, 2004; Bonardi and Keim, 2005). To close the discussion in this section, the MNCs are taking up social issues because globalisation expects corporations to operate in their host environment “with an enlarged understanding of responsibility” as well as imposing on them the mandate to “help to solve political problems in cooperation with state actors and civil society actors” (p. 918). The various studies discussed above are aligned with the standpoints of human capital and stakeholder theories. Members of the public have stakes and legitimate claims; one of these is human capital development.

**8.4.7: Proposition 4:** In view of the strategic nature of CSR activities in the Nigerian telecommunication industry there is likelihood of a relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship.

⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

The above hypothesis is the bedrock of the whole research because the CSRE conceptual model is built on the relationship between CSR and Entrepreneurship. The hypothesis was tested using Chi-Square Test Statistics and later its validity and predictability was measured using structural equation modelling (SEM) and Multiple Linear Regression. For testing the hypothesis, two relevant questions, B1 (CSR definition with the highest mean rank) and Question J5 (Entrepreneurship definition with the highest mean rank) were cross-tabulated to aid computation of the Chi-Square Test Statistics as shown below.

**Table 8.34:** There is no significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

		Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.					
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	Strongly Disagree	0	1	0	0	3	4
	Disagree	2	0	4	7	4	17
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	0	4	6	18	8	36
	Agree	0	4	17	81	45	147
	Strongly Agree	2	4	11	61	87	165
Total		4	13	38	167	147	369
		Value		df		Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square		62.464 <sup>a</sup>		16		.000	
Likelihood Ratio		49.588		16		.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association		18.459		1		.000	
N of Valid Cases		369					

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

From Tables 8.34, probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 62.464 is less than .05 indicating that the one-tail test is significant. The finding arising from inferential statistics, Chi-Square=62.464 (P-value= 0.000), shows that there is significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship. CSRE model is therefore measureable and predictable . The result of hypothesis 4a is not categorical and needs to be further validated through a confirmatory factor analysis using structural equation modelling (SEM).

### **8.5: Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)**

After testing hypothesis 4, its result, which was found to be significant, using Chi-Square Test Statistics, was validated using structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM has attracted attention of researchers for a long time because of its confirmatory and causality determination potential among multivariate relationships. The hypothesis to be validated is hereby re-stated below:

- ⇒ H<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.
- ⇒ H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

This section gives insight into: What is structural equation modelling (SEM)? What are the steps involved in SEM? And what are the estimates for determining the fit of the CSRE model?

According to Byrne (1994), structural equation modelling (SEM) is a useful statistical method for confirming hypothetical relationships in multivariate analysis, that is, where both the dependent and independent variable have multiple factors. Whereas, Ullman (1996) described SEM as a tool which allows treatment of data analysis with multivariate relationships involving one or more independent variables against one or more dependent variables. It is more advanced than factor analysis and multiple regression analysis, but combines essential rudiments of both techniques for confirming intercorrelated dependent relationships simultaneously within a model (Hair et al., 1998; Sweeney, 2009). In other words, SEM allows researchers opportunity for computation of simultaneous equations with several dependent variables (Smith, 2004; Shook et al., 2004; Daud, Mohamed and Alhamali, 2009).

The SEM technique, unlike exploratory factor analysis (EFA), provides a more reliable assessment of discriminant validity in research (Daud, Mohamed and Alhamali, 2012). SEM could be evaluated using LISREL or Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) with maximum likelihood or other techniques for data analysis. The AMOS software package is often used by researchers because it is simple and much more advanced than its peers (Miles, 2000). For this research, the AMOS software package was preferred. SEM analysis, irrespective of software packages used, requires five basic steps, namely: model specification, model identification, model estimation, model testing and model modification if the initial model

fails measurement of fit (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004; Sweeney, 2009). These steps were systematically followed in this research. A brief explanation and the application of the five steps in this research are discussed below.

**8.5.1: Model specification**

SEM requires specification of a model. A model in research is a representation which aids exploration/confirmation of relationships between different variables (Nargundkar, 2010). The model serves as a proxy or representation of reality and is often represented as a specific quantitative formulation to explain a theory (Lipsey and Chrystal, 1995). With regards to this research, the specified model examines the relationship between CSR and Entrepreneurship within a novel CSRE framework. The SEM model is presented below:

$$CSR=f(ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC, SEC) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$ENT=f(INC, PRC, EADC, AC, SVC, SC) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Since, the research is interested in the relationship between CSR and ENT, then,

$$CSRE= f(CSR, EnT)\dots \dots \dots (3)$$

$$CSRE=f(ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC, SEC, INC, PRC, EADC, AC, SVC, SC) \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

Where,

CSR= Corporate Social Responsibility (Independent variable)

ENT= Entrepreneurship (Dependent variable)

CSRE= Corporate Socially Responsible Entrepreneurship

ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC and SEC=Mean average of the five CSR constructs

INC, PRC, EADC.AC, SVC and SC=Mean average of the six Entrepreneurship constructs

**8.5.2: Model Identification**

The second stage of SEM is model identification, which implies determining and finding a unique solution to parameters in the research model (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004; DeVault, 2008). Without model identification, the model estimates will be misleading. Years ago, Ullman (1996) advised that only models that are identified can really be estimated. Therefore, three types of model could be identified while using SEM: (a) under-identified model, (b) just-identified model and (c) over-identified model (Kelloway, 1998; Sweeney, 2009). The three types have implications in empirical analysis that rely on SEM. For an under-identified equation, the parameters of the equation have no interpretation, because there is inadequate information for obtaining meaningful estimates. Under-identified cannot

generate unique values for the model coefficients because there is arbitrariness in value determination (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). Another reason why it cannot generate unique values is because the number of unknowns exceeds the number of equations with negative degrees of freedom (Maruyama, 1998; Kelloway, 1998; Kaplan, 2000). For a Just-identified or exactly identified equation, the parameters of the equation have an interpretation, because there is just enough information for obtaining meaningful estimates. The just-identified model is described as having a single estimate for each parameter with zero degrees of freedom (Maruyama, 1998). A just-identified model will always provide one unique solution that will perfectly reproduce the correlation matrix (Kelloway, 1998); however, the solution is uninteresting because it cannot be generalised (Hair et al., 2006). For an over-identified equation, the parameters of the equation also have an interpretation, because there is more than enough information for obtaining meaningful estimates. An over-identified model is that which has more indicators than unknown variables with positive degrees of freedom (Maruyama, 1998). In an over-identified model, there are a number of possible solutions, and the task of the researcher using SEM analysis is to select the solution that comes closest to explaining the observed data within some margin of error (Kelloway, 1998). The CSRE model in this research is an over-identified model with several indicators and unknown variables. It is therefore important to use SEM to determine the most effective solution for explaining the CSR-Entrepreneurship model.

### **8.5.3: Model Estimation**

The third step in SEM analysis is a model estimation, which is designed to come up with numerical values for free parameters within the adopted research model. The purpose of the estimation process is to find out a particular fitting function to minimise the difference between  $\Sigma$  (model implied/theoretical correlation matrix) and  $S$  (observed correlation matrix); in other words, to generate parameter values which show that the theoretical covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  is as close as possible to the empirical covariance matrix  $S$  (DeVault, 2008; Sweeney, 2009). There are several estimation techniques for fitting the parameter values/ minimise the difference between  $\Sigma$  and  $S$ . The widely used and reported in research include: maximum likelihood (ML), unweighted least squares (UWLS), generalized least squares (GLS) and weighted least squares (WLS) (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2000; Hair et al, 2006; DeVault, 2008). This research has chosen the generalized least squares (GLS) technique as the appropriate model estimation technique because the CSRE model is a simplified linear model.

#### **8.5.4: Model Testing**

The fourth step in a SEM analysis is model testing. This entails assessing how well the adopted model fits the data, that is, how well the theoretical model is supported by the results of the data analysis (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004, Yuan, 2005). Another description of model testing is the extent a hypothesized model is consistent with the analysed data (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). The degree of closeness of  $\Sigma$  (theoretical correlation matrix) and  $S$  (observed correlation matrix), the better the fit of the model and its acceptability (Sweeney, 2009). However, if the observed covariance matrix is statistically different from the covariance structure of the model, this implies that there is no fitness, the model or the data should be rejected (Fornell, 1983; DeVault, 2008) or modified for further testing until the desired level of fit is achieved (Sweeney, 2009). This research intends to test the fit of CSR-Entrepreneurship model, which has been defined as:  $CSRE=f(ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC, SEC, INC, PRC, EADC, AC, SVC, SC)$  by observing the difference between the theoretical covariance and the covariance of the observed matrix.

#### **8.5.5: Model Modification**

Following from step four, the final step is the model modification. When the result of the SEM does not fit, an indication that the model is not good enough, the theoretical model requires modification of the factors within the constructs which could improve the fit of the research modified model (Hair et al., 2006; Sweeney, 2009). Fit of a model must satisfy three characteristics, namely: (a) the model fit index should range from 0 (indicating lack of fit) to 1 (indicating perfect fit); (b) the model should be independent of sample size; and (c) the model should have distributional properties to enhance interpretation of outcome (Fan et al., 1999; Smith, 2004). Model modification is premised on compliance with the threshold and decision rules in SEM analysis.

In making a decision on the fit of a model, there are incremental fit indices, absolute fit indices and Chi-Square goodness of fit measure (Lei and Wu, 2007). Incremental fit indices in SEM analysis are Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). They measure the increase in fit relative to a baseline model; the higher the values of incremental indices the better the fit of the model. A SEM model is regarded as fit or acceptable if the Normed Fit Index (NFI) exceeds 0.90 (Byrne, 1994) or 0.95 (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) exceeds 0.93 (Byrne, 1994; Barrett, 2007; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Apart from the above, there are absolute fit indices like Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), which measure the extent to which the model reproduces the sample covariance matrix. The higher the values of GFI and AGFI as well as lower values of RMSEA the better the fit of the research model (Lei and Wu, 2007; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). For the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index the threshold is 0.90 or greater (Hooper Coughlan and Mullen, 2008; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007); For RMSEA, the threshold is less than 0.08 (Browne and Cudeck, 1993), but the ideal is less than 0.05 (Stieger, 1990). Alternatively, the upper confidence interval of the RMS should not exceed 0.08 (Hu and Bentler, 1998).

With regards to the Chi-Square goodness of fit, it is also known as the discrepancy function or likelihood ratio Chi-Square. In AMOS, the Chi-Square value is called CMIN. If the Chi-Square is not significant ( $p > 0$ ), the model is regarded as acceptable, meaning that the observed covariance matrix is similar to the predicted covariance matrix. If the Chi-Square is significant ( $p = 0$ ), the model is regarded as unacceptable. However, the result of Chi-Square index should be ignored where the sample size exceeds 200. The inadequacy of Chi-Square index would be compensated for by the fit of other indices (like GFI, CFI and RMSEA). In which case, the fit of the model will be acceptable (Moss, 2009).

**8.5.6: Model Estimation and Testing**

$$CSR = f(ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC, SEC) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$ENT = f(INC, PRC, EADC, AC, SVC, SC) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

This research is interested in the relationship between CSR and ENT, then,

$$CSRE = f(CSR, ENT) \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

$$CSRE = f(ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC, SEC, INC, PRC, EADC, AC, SVC, SC) \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

Where,

CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility (Independent variable)

ENT = Entrepreneurship (Dependent variable)

CSRE = Corporate Social Responsible-Entrepreneurship model

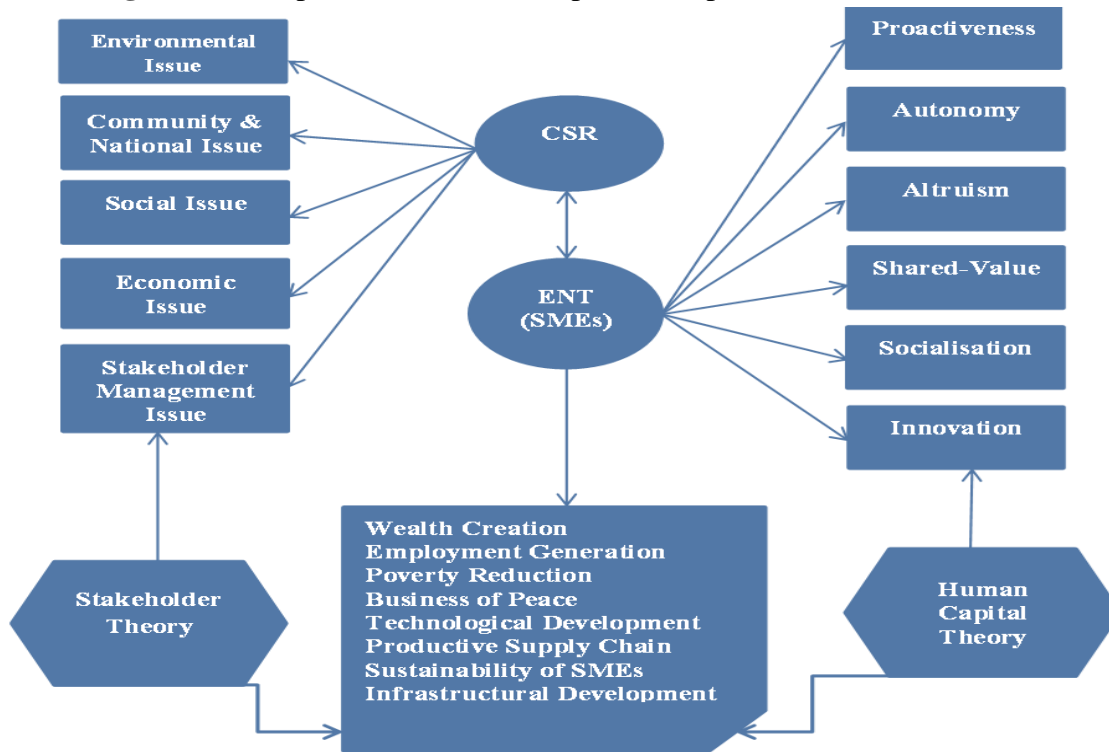
ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC and SEC = Mean average of the five CSR constructs

INC, PRC, EADC.AC, SVC and SC = Mean average of the six Entrepreneurship constructs

The mathematical model stated above is explained by the CSRE research model in Figure 8.2 below, which was validated using structural equation modelling.



**Figure 8.2:** Proposed CSR and Entrepreneurship Research Model



The AMOS software package identified variables within the CSRE model and re-classified them into observed, unobserved, endogenous and exogenous variable. From the above model, the observed, endogenous variables include:

- SEC = Stakeholder Engagement Construct
- EIC = Economic Issues Construct
- EIC = Social Issues Construct
- CNIC = Community and National Issues Scale
- ENVC = Environmental Management Construct

However, the observed, exogenous variables include:

- INC = Entrepreneurial Innovation Scale
- PRC = Entrepreneurial Proactiveness Scale
- EADC = Entrepreneurial Autonomy & Skill Development Scale
- AC = Altruism Construct
- SVC = Shared Vision Construct
- SC = Socialisation Construct

The only unobserved endogenous variable is the CSRE research model. The values of the variables within the CSRE model were estimated using the mean of the CSR and entrepreneurship constructs.

### 8.5.7: Result of the Model Estimation I

After computing the mean values for all the variables in the CSRE model using SPSS, the path diagram was drawn in the AMOS software package and then the data was run to generate SEM estimates/fit indices. The SEM estimates/fit indices from the generalized least squares (GLS) technique are as provided below (Tables 8.34a – 8.34f).

**Table 8.34a:** General Least Square Estimates

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CSRE	<---	INC	-.072	.063	-1.147	.251
CSRE	<---	PRC	-.010	.049	-.213	.831
CSRE	<---	EADC	-.351	.089	-3.954	***
CSRE	<---	AC	-.234	.093	-2.515	.012
CSRE	<---	SVC	.112	.050	2.249	.025
CSRE	<---	SC	.127	.063	2.027	.043
SEC	<---	CSRE	1.000			
EIC	<---	CSRE	.570	.212	2.688	.007
SIC	<---	CSRE	1.441	.377	3.822	***
CNIC	<---	CSRE	2.175	.479	4.538	***
ENVC	<---	CSRE	.554	.305	1.815	.070

**Source:** SEM Output

**Table 8.34b:** Covariances

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
PRC	<-->	EADC	.704	.300	2.351	.019	
EADC	<-->	AC	-.860	.286	-3.006	.003	
AC	<-->	SVC	.503	.234	2.148	.032	
SVC	<-->	SC	.752	.250	3.012	.003	
INC	<-->	PRC	.985	.273	3.610	***	
INC	<-->	SC	-.123	.177	-.694	.487	

**Source:** SEM Output

**Table 8.34c:** CMIN (Chi-Square Test)

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	27	292.312	39	.000	7.495
Saturated model	66	.000	0		
Independence model	11	380.678	55	.000	6.921

**Source:** SEM Output

**Table 8.34d:** RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	9.766	.808	.674	.477
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	10.058	.749	.699	.625

**Source:** SEM Output

**Table 8.34e:** Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI
	Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
Default model	.232	-.083	.259	-.097	.222
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

**Source:** SEM Output

**Table 834f: RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.133	.119	.147	.000
Independence model	.127	.115	.139	.000

**Source:** SEM Output

From Tables 8.34a – 8.34f, the Chi-Square Test indicates that the CSRE model is significant (Chi-Square=292.312, DF=39, p=0.000 < 0.05 threshold). The Chi-Square Index (CMIN) is high and affects the fit of the model because the sample size has exceeded 200. SEM outputs for other fit criteria are: GFI =.808 (< 0.90 minimum), NFI =.232 (<< 0.90 minimum) and RMSEA =.133 (> 0.08). Considering the fact that CMIN and other fit criteria do not meet the minimum threshold, the CSRE model needs to be modified for further estimation. Consequently, the model was amended using factors with the highest factor loading in the CSR and Entrepreneurship constructs.

#### **8.5.8: Modified Model Estimation II**

The modified CSRE model is represented by a new relationship below.

$$\text{CSRE} = f(\text{ENVC3}, \text{CNIC3}, \text{SIC3}, \text{EIC3}, \text{SEC3}, \text{INC2}, \text{PRC3}, \text{EADC3}, \text{AC3}, \text{SVC3}, \text{SC3}) \quad (5)$$

Where,

CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility (Independent variable)

ENT = Entrepreneurship (Dependent variable)

CSRE = CSR-Entrepreneurship model

ENVC3, CNIC3, SIC3, EIC3 and SEC3 = Mean average of the five CSR constructs

INC3, PRC3, EADC3.AC3, SVC3 and SC3 = Mean average of the six Entrepreneurship constructs

Having observed the behaviours of the factors within the CSRE model, a decision was made to boost the model fit by including factors with the highest factor loading in the CSR and Entrepreneurship constructs. In practice, a model could be improved to “assess the fit of each construct and its items individually to determine whether there are any items that are particularly weak” (Hooper et al., 2008: 56). Guided by the recommendations above, the CSR-E constructs were re-appraised by selecting factors with the highest loading. For some constructs, two factors were selected, and for others only one construct was selected as shown in Table 8.35 below.

**Table 8.36:** CSR-E Constructs with the highest factor loading in EFA

SN	Renamed Factor	Factor Loading (1 <sup>st</sup> Best)	Factor Loading (2 <sup>ND</sup> Best)
1.	ENVC3 (C3, C4)	0.811 (C4)	0.792 (C3)
2.	CNIC3 (D3, D6)	0.779 (D3)	0.738 (D6)
3.	SIC3(E2, E4)	0.843 (E2)	0.784 (E4)
4.	EIC3 (F4, F5)	0.947 (F5)	0.935 (F4)
5.	SEC3 (G4, G6)	0.677 (G6)	0.665 (G4)
6.	INC3 (K3)	0.941 (K3)	-
7.	PRC3 (L3)	0.752 (L3)	-
8.	EADC3 (M2, M3)	0.754 (M3)	0.725 (M2)
9.	AC3 (N2, N3)	0.833 (N2)	0.811 (N3)
10.	SVC3 (O2, O3)	0.786 (O2)	0.785 (O3)
11.	SC3 (P2, P3)	0.782 (P2)	0.764 (P3)

**Source:** Survey Research (2014)

From Table 8.36, CSR factors ENVC3, CNIC3, SIC3, EIC3 and SEC3 have the highest factor loading in EFA and were selected, while factors INC3, PRC3, AC3, SVC3 and SC3 with the highest factor loading in the Entrepreneurship construct qualified for selection.

### 8.5.9: Results of Modified Model Estimation II

After modification of the model as explained above, the data was re-run in the AMOS software package for the second time. The SEM results are as provided below (Tables 8.36a to 8.36f).

**Table 8.37a:** General Least Square Estimates

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CSRE	<---	INC3	.000	.026	.016	.987
CSRE	<---	PRC3	.000	.026	.016	.987
CSRE	<---	EADC3	.000	.019	.016	.987
CSRE	<---	AC3	.000	.007	-.016	.987
CSRE	<---	SVC3	-.001	.040	-.016	.987
CSRE	<---	SC3	.000	.017	.016	.987
SEC3	<---	CSRE	1.000			
EIC3	<---	CSRE	328.691	20105.862	.016	.987
CNIC3	<---	CSRE	-7.138	447.904	-.016	.987
ENVC3	<---	CSRE	-183.239	11223.832	-.016	.987

**Source:** SEM Output

**Table 8.37b: Variance**

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
INC3	.607	.046	13.092	***	
PRC3	.844	.068	12.418	***	
EADC3	.639	.052	12.374	***	
AC3	.488	.042	11.583	***	
SVC3	.581	.053	10.966	***	
SC3	.636	.052	12.287	***	
e11	.694	.054	12.737	***	
e10	.671	.050	13.327	***	
e9	.566	.050	11.315	***	
e8	.750	.062	12.045	***	
e7	2.803	.231	12.114	***	

**Source:** SEM Output

**Table 8.37c: CMIN**

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	20	188.715	46	.000	4.103
Saturated model	66	.000	0		
Independence model	11	221.941	55	.000	4.035

Source: SEM Output

**Table 8.37d: RMR, GFI**

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.524	.907	.866	.632
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.527	.890	.868	.742

Source: SEM Output

**Table 8.37e: Baseline Comparisons**

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.150	-.017	.189	-.022	.145
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Source: SEM Output

**Table 8.37f: RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.092	.078	.106	.000
Independence model	.091	.079	.103	.000

Source: SEM Output

From Tables 8.37a – 8.37f, the modified model estimation showed a significant improvement when the new estimates were compared with the former. The Chi-Square has reduced, but still significant (Chi-Square = 188.715, DF = 46,  $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ). However, other fit criteria (especially GFI and RMSEA) have been met satisfactorily; this indicates that the CSRE model has a good fit. The GFI = 0.907 is within the threshold of 0.90 or 0.95 and RMSEA = 0.078 (LO) is within the 0.05 - 0.08 threshold. On the strength of these fit estimates (GFI, RMSEA), the CSRE model is accepted as fit and theoretically sound to explain CSR and entrepreneurship relationships.

It is important to mention that there are controversies over thresholds/cut-offs of fit indices among scholars. For instance, Hayduk et al. (2007) argue that the cutoff for a fit index could be misleading or a subject of misuse in several instances. It is therefore advisable to work around the cut-offs, but researchers need to be cautious against strict adherence to them.

Furthermore, some scholars queried the use of single indicative thresholds to determine model fit or otherwise (Beauducel and Wittmann, 2005; Fan and Sivo, 2005; Marsh et al., 2004; Yuan, 2005). They vehemently opposed “the notion that a single threshold-value can

be applied to any particular approximate fit index under all measurement and data conditions” (Barrett, 2007: 815). The danger in sticking to indicative thresholds like GFI, NFI, CFI, RMSEA, AGFI, RMR and SRMR is that some bad models with approximate fit indices may erroneously be accepted as fit, while some good models that could not meet the approximate fit indices are hurriedly described and poorly fit or badly fit (Marsh et al., 2004; Barrett, 2007).

Consequently, if the fit indices of research models fall within the approximate thresholds, and have good predictability potential they could be accepted as fit. Markland (2007: 851) posited that “Paul Barrett offers a challenging and timely call for a re-examination of fit assessment strategies in structural equation modelling.” In place of the fit indices, attention should be given by researchers to Chi-Square Test and potential of models with predictive accuracy (Markland, 2007). The divergent positions with regards to making decisions on the basis of a single indicative threshold/cut-off were taken into consideration in making categorical statement of the fit of CSR-Entrepreneurship model. The model failed the Chi-Square fit index because of a large sample above 200, which is backed by SEM theory, but passed the GFI and RMSEA indices.

### **8.6: Multiple Linear Regression Analysis**

For testing the predictability of the CSR-Entrepreneurship model, the multiple linear regression analysis (MLRA) was used. Nathans, Oswald and Nimon (2012) explain that multiple linear regression (MLRA) has found acceptability in the social and behavioural sciences as a standard statistical technique or analytic because it enables researchers to explain clearly the behaviour of multiple independent variables with a single dependent variable by interpreting the coefficients of the independent variables otherwise called beta weights. More importantly, the beta weights associated with different independent variables are heavily relied on when interpreting MLRA results as well as prediction of the effects of multiple independent variables on the single dependent variable (Nimon, Gavrilova and Roberts, 2010; Zientek, Carpraro and Capraro, 2008; Nathans et al., 2012). Guided by the best practice in MLRA above, this research hypothesised the CSRE relationship is as stated below.

⇒ There is no significant relationship between five CSR dimensions and entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

For hypothesis, the regression model and equations are as shown below:

$$ENT = f(\text{CSR}) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$CSR=f(ENVC, CNIC, SIC, EIC \& SEC) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Multiple Linear regression equation is hereby stated as:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_nX_n + \varepsilon, \text{ where } i = 1,2, \dots, n\dots \dots (3)$$

Rewrite to fit the above,

$$ENT = a + b_1ENVC + b_2CNIC + b_3SIC + b_4EIC + b_5SIC + b_6SEC + \varepsilon \dots \dots (4)$$

Where,

ENT = Entrepreneurship (Dependent variable non-metric); CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility (Main independent variable); ENVC = Environmental Issue Construct (Independent variable); CNIC = Community & National Issue Construct (Independent variable); SIC = Social Issue Construct (Independent variable); EIC = Economic Issue Construct (Independent variable); and SEC= Stakeholder Issue Construct (Independent variable)

**Control variables (Not measured, but included as control)**

Location of respondent

Sex

Age

Marital Status

Educational Qualification

The final estimates of MLRA are as presented below in Tables 8.37a and 8.37b.

**Table 8.38a:** CSR as a support aid is a significant predictor of entrepreneurship development.

Coefficients					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	12.176	1.628		7.479	.000
ENVC	-.009	.041	-.016	-.230	.818
CNIC	-.018	.042	-.034	-.439	.661
SIC	.028	.056	.035	.502	.616
SEC	.230	.052	.286	4.435	.000
EIC	.191	.071	.144	2.680	.008
Location of respondent	.025	.081	.016	.314	.754
Sex	-.257	.433	-.032	-.593	.553
Age	-.290	.237	-.101	-1.227	.221
Marital Status	.621	.518	.094	1.199	.231
Educational Qualifications	-.283	.158	-.105	-1.790	.074

a. Dependent Variable: MENT  
b. Predictors: (Constant), Educational Qualifications, EIC , Location of respondent in Lagos, Sex, SIC , Marital Status, SEC , ENVC, CNIC, Age

**Source:** Multiple Linear Regression Result (2014)

**Table 8.38b: Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Change Statistics		Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.395 <sup>a</sup>	.156	.132	3.220	.156	6.620	10	358 <sup>a</sup>	.000	1.795
a. Predictors: (Constant), Educational Qualifications, EIC , Location of respondent in Lagos, Sex, SIC , Marital Status, SEC , ENVC, CNIC, Age										
b. Dependent Variable: MENT										

**Source:** Multiple Linear Regression Result (2014)

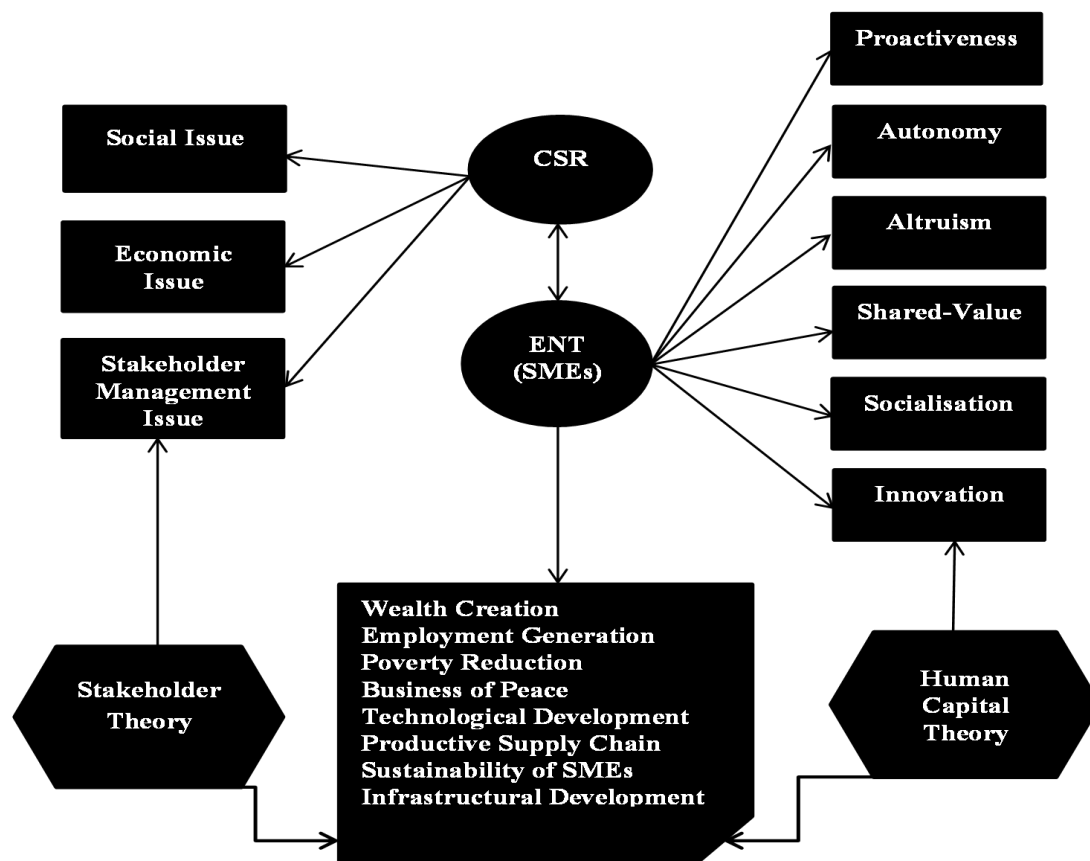
$$ENT = 12.176 - 0.009 (ENVC) - 0.018 (CNIC) + 0.028 (SIC) + 0.230 (SEC) + 0.191 (EIC)$$

When the level of entrepreneurship development (ENT) was predicted, it was found that CSR spending on stakeholder engagement (Beta = 0.230,  $p < .05$ .) and CSR spending on economic issues (Beta = 0.191  $p < .05$ .) were significant predictors, while CSR spending on environmental issue (Beta=-0.009, $p > .05$ , n.s.), CSR spending on community/national issues (Beta = 0.018,  $p > .05$ , n.s.) and CSR spending on social issues (Beta = 0.028,  $p > .05$ , n.s) were not significant predictors.

The overall model fit was  $R^2 = 0.156$ . The implication of the first two results is that CSR spending on stakeholder engagement and economic issues have direct impact on entrepreneurship development. Such CSR spending helps to grow small businesses. However, CSR investments on environmental, community/national issues and social issues do not have impact on entrepreneurship development in Nigeria at present. In essence, the five-predictor model was able to account for 15.6% of the variance in entrepreneurship development. Based on the results above, the conceptual CSRE model is amended as shown Figure below. In the amended CSRE model, two CSR dimensions (environmental issues, community & national issues) were dropped because they do not impact entrepreneurship.



**Figure 8.3:** Amended CSR-Entrepreneurship Model



The reason for this marginal but important result is because the bulk of CSR investment of Nigerian telecommunication companies is channelled into programmes/projects which give momentary benefits to the people, but do not help in any way towards entrepreneurship development. The outcomes of the MLRA as explained above fit the reality in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. The dominant CSR activities reported by the leading telecommunication companies in Nigeria on their websites and annual reports are philanthropic spending directed at social and community issues (Amaeshi et al., 2006; Helg, 2007). The CSR investments are in the forms of donations, charities, health support services and sponsorship for sports, musical events, cultural & entertainment programmes, promotional raffles, promotional activities (Osemene, 2011; Ibe, 2012; Owonibi, 2012; Airtel, 2012; Etisalat CSR Report, 2010; MTN, 2013).

Similarly, Ufadhili et al. (2005) report that the most common CSR activities in Kenya and Zambia are corporate donations to health institutions, donations to sports associations, the entertainment industry, education and training; intervention support for HIV/AIDS; aid to

agriculture for food security; aid to religious bodies as charities as well as palliatives for the economically disadvantaged children in orphanages.

The implication of the eight (8) research findings discussed above is that the CSRE model is valid and has potential as a private sector development model (PSDM) for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria. In concluding this chapter, the summary of all findings arising from the quantitative data analysis is given in Tables 8.41a and 8.41b below.

**Figure 8.39a: Research Findings**

SN	Hypothesis Statements	Df /Level of Sig.	Chi-Square P-Value	Decision
1.	Stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication is a philanthropic perspective.	5(5%)	237.762 (0.000)	Supported
2.	Stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship of the Nigerian telecommunication is setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation.	4(5%)	140.660 (0.000)	Supported
3.	Future CSR has potential for funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.	4(5%)	321.176 (0.000)	Supported
4.	Future CSR has potential as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training.	4(5%)	323.507 (0.000)	Supported
5.	Future CSR has potential for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.	4(5%)	244.482 (0.000)	Supported
6.	Future CSR has potential as funding for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.	4(5%)	186.244 (0.000)	Supported
7.	Future CSR has potential as instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria	4(5%)	126.786 (0.000)	Supported
8.	There is significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship.	16(5%)	62.464 (0.000)	Supported
	Multiple Linear Regression Analysis	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>Multiple Regression</b>	<b>Decision</b>
		0.156.	(0.000)	Supported

**Source:** Survey Result (2014)

**Table 8.39b: Summary of Estimates from SEM Analysis**

Stage	Chi-Square	Probability level	Df	GFI	NFI	AGFI	RMSEA	Decision on Fit
Estimation 1	816.910	.000	39	0.808	0.232	.674	.115	Weak fit
Estimation 2	188.715	.000	46	0.907	0.150	.866	0.078	Good fit

**Source:** AMOS Result (2014)

## **8.7: Chapter Summary**

This chapter focused on the data analysis for quantitative research method. It starts with the test of reliability and validity of the data collected through the web-enabled CSREQ questionnaire. This was followed with presentation of the demographics of the respondents and descriptive statistics. More importantly, the hypotheses were tested using inferential statistics such as Chi-Square Test, Friedman Rank Test and Multiple Linear Regression Test. All nine tested hypotheses were supported. The validity and predictability of the CSR-Entrepreneurship model was ascertained using structural equation modelling (SEM). The outcome of the SEM validation was positive, as the model has good fit. The predictability of CSRE was also ascertained by the multiple linear regression analysis (MLRA). The chapter's findings justified the presumption of this research that CSR could be a viable private sector development model (PSDM) for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria and could be replicated in other developing countries with governance gap and infrastructural deficits.

# CHAPTER NINE

## SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

*Red Motley: "Nothing happens until somebody sells something" (Tracy, 2008: 173)*

### **9.0: Introduction**

This concluding chapter discusses the main findings of the thesis. The chapter has five sections. Section 9.1 gives an overview of the study in relations to previous research works. Section 9.2 presents the summary of the issues discussed in all the nine chapters. Section 9.3 focuses on discussion of findings from the research, while Section 9.4 looks at the conclusions. Section 9.5 presents the contributions to knowledge. Section 9.6 examines the research implication of the research. Section 9.7 discusses the limitations/generaliseability of the research. Section 9.8 concludes with discussion plan for publication and dissemination of knowledge.

### **9.1: Overview of the Study**

The aim of this research is to explore entrepreneurship development through corporate social responsibility – A study of the Nigerian telecommunication industry. In the quest to gather relevant literature to support the research, it was observed that there are few theoretical and empirical studies that discuss the plausibility of stimulating Entrepreneurship Development through CSR in Nigeria. Most previous studies in Nigeria and across the globe focused more on the relationship between CSR and financial performance metrics like improved profitability, enhanced customer patronage, positive stock market rating, reputation building, ease of access to bank loans, social security net/poverty reduction and other economic measurements of performance (Waddock and Graves, 1997; Walsh, Weber and Margolis, 2003; Sweeney, 2009; Raimi et al., 2013; Raimi et al., 2014). However, this research relies on studies which discuss the developmental side of CSR as a instrument for complementing the deficient role of the state in developing countries (Frynas, 2005; Frynas, 2008; Idemudia, 2011), especially in Nigeria where poverty, lack of inclusiveness, corruption, crime, unemployment, bad governance and underdevelopment have become endemic (Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012; Ite, 2007; Watts, 2005; Young, 1999). The current research is therefore the first attempt in Nigeria (based on reviewed literature and knowledge of the author) to explore the plausibility of CSR investments supporting entrepreneurship development.

Leading studies in Nigeria in the field of CSR include Amaeshi et al. (2006), which found that CSR activities in Nigeria are essentially philanthropic donations directed at education, health, sports, capacity building and infrastructural development in neglected host communities. But Hassan's (2007) study found that CSR activities of the Nigerian foods and beverages industry impacted on the financial performance of the industry. From the political and conflict risk perspective, several works in Nigeria correlate the CSR activities of multinational oil companies with environmental issues, human rights, endemic conflicts over oil resources with host communities and inadequacy compensation (Watts, 2005; Raimi and Adeleke, 2010; Natufe, 2001; Natufe, 2011, Moen, 2012; George, Kuye and Onokala, 2012; Nwadiakor and Igwe, 2013). Researchers prescribed more extensive social involvement in Nigeria as one of the sustainable means for dousing the turbulence in the Niger Delta region and consequently making the region business friendly (Worika, 2004; Olong, 2012; Jerome, 2012; George, Kuye and Onokala, 2012).

More importantly, the present study, which attempts to refocus CSR as a private sector developmental model (PSDM) for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria is justified because of failing public sector programmes leading to worsening poverty, lack of inclusiveness, corruption, crime, unemployment, bad governance and underdevelopment (Amaeshi et al., 2006; Akhuemonkhan et al., 2012; Roy, 2010; Young, 1999).

Guided by the aim of the research as justified and discussed above, the four (4) research objectives which underpin the study are as listed below:

- i. To examine stakeholders' perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry;
- ii. To examine stakeholders' perception of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry;
- iii. To examine the future entrepreneurship development activities that CSR could potentially support in the Nigeria Telecommunication industry;
- iv. To examine the relationship between CSR and Entrepreneurship Development in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

From the four (4) research objectives stated above, a total of four (4) research questions were formulated to keep the purpose of the research in focus:

- i. What are the stakeholders' perceptions of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

- ii. What are the stakeholders' perceptions of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
- iii. What are the future entrepreneurial development activities that CSR could potentially support in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
- iv. Is there a relationship between CSR and Entrepreneurship Development in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

In order to situate this research to the existing body of knowledge in the fields of CSR and entrepreneurship, four (4) research propositions and eight (8) hypotheses were formulated and tested. The propositions relate to the qualitative aspect of the thesis, while both the propositions and hypotheses find relevance with the quantitative aspect. Merging qualitative and quantitative findings show how the primary data collected through interview and questionnaire provide support for CSR-Entrepreneurship model. The 4 propositions and 9 hypotheses were confirmed and supported.

In pursuance of the research, two theories provided the required theoretical grounding: human capital theory (HCT) and stakeholder theory (SHT). HCT is built around the works of Schultz (1971), which describes the entrepreneur "as a form of human capital" for propelling economic progress and technological development in the society (Klein and Cook, 2006). HCT presupposes that for a nation to attain economic and technological development, its human capital has to be well trained and educated to be able to initiate the desired economic and technological changes (Klein and Cook, 2006). The proponents of HCT strongly advocate education, training and experience associated with capacity-building as vital elements for stimulating entrepreneurial activity among individuals and nations (Becker, 1994; Klein and Cook, 2006; Simpeh, 2011; Klein and Cook, 2006). The economic growth and development of East Asia, Hong Kong, Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan is linked to emphasis on human capital development (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008).

SHT, on the other hand, states that corporations exist to meet the needs of multiple stakeholders with varying claims in the operating environment (Ismail, 2009). From another perspective, SHT postulates that corporations owe individuals and groups triple bottom-line obligations (Haskins, 2009) as well as "support, reliance, intense scrutiny and comments" as direct and indirect beneficiaries in the fortunes and miseries of corporations (Knox and Maklan, 2004: 509). The SHT was developed to balance the diverse interests of stakeholders and reposition the corporation within a broader theory of the firm (Garriga and Mele, 2004; Freeman, Wick and Parmar, 2004). Therefore, corporations are described as socially

responsible when they recognise and integrate stakeholders' interests into all their decision-making processes (Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Gibson, 2000).

## **9.2: Summary of the Chapters**

In pursuit of the three (3) research objectives, this thesis is structured in nine (9) chapters. The chapters are mutually intertwined, with one chapter leading on to another. Chapter 1 is the heart of the entire research. It gives a background on the emerging issues that have brought CSR and entrepreneurship into limelight in recent times. Thereafter, the justifications for the study, problem statements, research objectives, contributions of the study to knowledge, research methodology, scope & limitation of the study and significance of the study were discussed sequentially.

Chapter 2 provided useful background information on the strengths and weaknesses of the Nigerian business and regulatory environment. In addition, it highlighted the impact of deregulation of the telecommunication industry on services, economic growth, employment and the different CSR programmes reported by the leading service providers. The chapter also discusses relevant laws, which provide legal and regulatory backing for CSR in the industry. The chapter submits that Nigeria has an adequate legal and an effective regulatory environment, hence the telecommunication industry is in a position to refocus CSR as a support aid for entrepreneurship development as conceptualised by this research.

Chapters 3 and 4 are dedicated to review of literature on CSR and entrepreneurship respectively. In chapter 3, the researcher explored the literature for scholarly insights on the nature, evolution and dynamics of CSR. The review highlighted major definitional constructs of CSR from academic and organisational viewpoints, the diverse perspectives of CSR, the argument for and against CSR, and the drivers of CSR, without forgetting the barriers limiting compliance. The chapter revealed that the origin of CSR is a philosophy rooted in ethics held by people across cultures and countries at different times that spanned several decades. The six major perspectives of CSR constructs identified are instrumental, normological, embedded, utilitarian, negative duty and positive duty perspectives. The chapter concluded that there is no universal definition for CSR, but there is consensus that its meaning and measurement reflect a focus on triple-bottom lines – economic, social and environmental.

Chapter 4 is a continuation of the literature review, but focused on entrepreneurship. The chapter started by exploring the definitional constructs of entrepreneurship through academic

and institutional lenses, and concluded by highlighting the typologies of entrepreneurship and common measurements. Also, emerging issues with regards to entrepreneurship and CSR synergy were discussed. Moreover, the chapter highlighted the various definitions of SMEs as well as previous entrepreneurship interventions programmes (EIPs) from 1961 to 2013. Discussion on the operational constraints facing the sector in Nigeria was given due consideration. The chapter proposed CSR-Entrepreneurship synergy as a better framework for bridging the governance and infrastructural gaps facing entrepreneurship in Nigeria.

Chapter 5 critiqued dominant CSR and Entrepreneurship theories, and adopted human capital theory (HCT) and stakeholder theory (SHT), as two theories which best provide a coherent underpinning for the research. The rationale for a meta-theory was clearly discussed and justified. The significance of the chapter is that it provided a strong basis for chapter six for development of propositions and hypotheses which leveraged on the meta-theoretical framework of Chapter 5.

Chapter 6 unveiled the research methodology adopted for conducting this research. The methodological issues discussed include ontology (reality), epistemology (knowledge), research paradigm, methods/design/strategies/techniques and concludes with ethical issues. The philosophical standpoint of the thesis is pragmatism (an amalgam of interpretivism and positivism) and the methodological position is mixed research methods (combination of quantitative and qualitative methods). They are preferred because both allow for theoretical, data and methodological triangulations.

Chapter 7 is the qualitative aspect of the data analysis (entitled Data Analysis I), which presented the findings from the interview instrument. The analysis of the interview responses from 9 corporate executives of leading telecommunication companies in Nigeria was done using content and thematic analyses (CTA). At the end of the qualitative data analysis, all the three research propositions were supported and confirmed.

Chapter 8 is the quantitative segment of the data analysis (entitled Data Analysis II). It presented the findings from the web-enabled questionnaire instrument. The data collected from 369 respondents were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship was validated with structural equation modelling (SEM) and the predictability of the model was tested using Multiple Linear Regression Analysis. At the end, all nine hypotheses were supported.



Chapter 9 as the concluding chapter gave an overview of the study, summary of the chapter, discussion of findings, conclusions, contributions to knowledge, research implication of the research, limitations/generaliseability of the research, plan for publication and dissemination of knowledge.

### **9.3: Discussion of Findings**

The findings from the study are discussed below based on four research questions.

#### **9.3.1: Stakeholders' Perception of Corporate Social Responsibility**

The first finding indicates that the perception of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is essentially a philanthropic perspective. The common perception of CSR given by the respondents is a voluntary, ethical and moral obligation required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large. Other perceptions of CSR in the telecommunication industry reflect similar viewpoints but with different wordings. The views of the corporate managers interviewed also varied, but when all the definitions are harmonised, they point to the same meaning as above. To some managers CSR is purely an ethical-cum-moral issue; but to others with an environmental mind-set, CSR is akin to environmental sustainability and preservation of the ecosystem. In essence, there is hardly a consensus on the meaning of CSR, however all the meanings “point towards the same fundamental principle: that a company is responsible for providing more philanthropic benefits than just profits for the shareholders. It has a role to play in treating its employees well, preserving the environment, developing a sound corporate governance, supporting philanthropy, fostering human rights, respecting cultural differences and helping to promote fair trade, among others. All are meant to have a positive impact on the communities, cultures, societies and environments in which companies operate” (The Economists Intelligence Unit, 2005: 6). The varied but similar meanings of CSR confirmed that there is lack of consensus on what CSR really means (Perrini, 2006; Sweeney, 2009). When critically examined, the tone of the definitions from the corporate executives of the leading telecommunication firms reflected the stakeholder view of the meaning of CSR. This finding is supported in the literature (Carlisle and Faulkner, 2004; Haskins, 2007; Sweeney and Coughlan, 2008; Sweeney, 2009).

#### **9.3.2: Stakeholders' Perception of Entrepreneurship**

The second finding study indicates that the perception of entrepreneurship in the Nigerian telecommunication industry is largely an emphasis on setting up of businesses for self-employment and wealth creation. The general perception of entrepreneurship within the

Nigerian context (i.e. the views of the respondents and corporate managers from the telecommunication companies in Nigeria) when summed up is that entrepreneurship is a conscious attempt by individuals to set up their own businesses for self-reliance, wealth creation, self-employment and self-sufficiency. The Nigerian definition of entrepreneurship puts emphasis on job creation, self-employment, community development and wealth creation. This finding aligns with the previous findings. For example, a number of theoretical studies emphasize that entrepreneurship connotes tapping economic opportunities, job creation, wealth creation, economic development (Leibenstein, 1968; Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; Szerb, 2007; Brixiova, 2010; Anyadike et al., 2012). From other perspectives, entrepreneurship can simply be viewed as an engine that drives economic growth and community development (Hall, 2000; Kauffmann, 2005; Newberry, 2006; Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2006) and as an antidote to poverty reduction, job creation, technological progress and innovation (Kerr, 2007; Brixiova, 2010).

### **9.3.3: Future Entrepreneurship Activities that CSR Could Potentially Support**

Research question three came up with five key findings. From the qualitative analysis in chapter 7, the nine (9) corporate managers interviewed noted that the future potential of CSR for entrepreneurship development in Nigeria, when effectively utilised, includes: (a) business development; (b) promotion of skills acquisition/mechanism for facilitating specialised training for SMEs, (c) boosting infrastructural facilities; (d) private-sector support for government policies like MDs/Transformation Agenda; (e) a tool for conflict mitigation in turbulent communities/a medium for partnership in the development process of nations with a governance gap and stimulation of MDGs. Likewise, the quantitative analysis in chapter 8 identified five future CSR potentials. Firstly, the respondents indicated that future CSR could fund entrepreneurship education in primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. Secondly, future CSR could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees after undergoing entrepreneurship training. Thirdly, future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria. Furthermore, future CSR could be used for purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities. Finally, future CSR could be a good instrument for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like the Niger Delta and Northern Nigeria.

These findings aligned with human capital theory, which posited that human capacity-building, education and provision of specialised training to the citizens are effective means

for stimulating entrepreneurial activity in the economy (Shultz, 1971; Becker, 1975; Simpeh, 2011); they finding are also supported by stakeholder theory which views CSR as tools for stakeholder management and honouring social contracts respectively (Garriga and Mele, 2004).

With regards to political risk mitigation mentioned as a future potential of CSR (Chapter 8), Ite (2007: 217) identified the MNCs-community relations model of Shell Petroleum Development Corporation (SPDC) in Nigeria as an active mechanism for bridging the governance gap and mitigating conflict in the turbulent Niger Delta region in Nigeria. It is a partnership between SPDC and the government to improve the wellbeing of the host communities in the region.

For this research, the study of Jenkins (2005) and Frynas (2005) on the prospects of developmental-oriented CSR in developing countries provided additional support for the above findings. The theoretical study of Raimi et al. (2014) and the empirical work of Raimi et al. (2015) justified the plausibility of utilising CSR as tools for mitigating poverty, insecurity and underdevelopment in a number of ways ranging from capacity-building, support for SMEs through micro-credits, establishment of the apprenticeships scheme, creation of technology business incubation centres, funding clusters development of infrastructure in industrial parks and provision of sustainable welfare support services to marginalised communities and disadvantaged groups. Some notable studies reported that MNCs like Shell, Exxon and Total have embraced this initiative as each earmark annually over US\$ 100 million on CSR investment or community investment (Frynas, 2008). However, CSR playing a developmental role can only attract the private sector corporations if the governance issue in developing countries is resolved (Frynas, 2008) as well as other inhibiting factors/issues related to institutional corruption, human capital/expertise etc. (Frynas, 2005). An instance of the importance of governance with regards to developmental CSR is the case of Angola, where the government got multimillion dollar intervention assistance from multinational corporations, but the substantial fund has no developmental benefits to the citizens (Frynas and Wood, 2001; Frynas, 2008). Therefore, the role of government in the developmental CSR proposed by this research should be strictly provision of a legal and regulatory framework and an enabling environment for the workability of the model (Porter and Kramer, 2011; Raimi et al., 2013).

### **9.3.4: Relationship between CSR and Entrepreneurship Development**

The eight research finding indicates that there is a significant relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship. Put differently, it means that the five CSR constructs have the potential to stimulate and predict the level of entrepreneurship in Nigeria. The validity of CSR-Entrepreneurship model was confirmed using structural equation modelling (SEM), while its predictability was tested with Multiple Linear Regression Analysis (MLRA). Both analytics confirmed the functional relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship. In particular, it was also found that CSR-E model is theoretically sound (after model adjustment) to explain CSR and entrepreneurship relationships in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. With regard to predictability, out of the five CSR constructs (environmental, community/national, social, economic and stakeholder issues constructs), only environmental issue construct (EIC) and stakeholder engagement issues construct (SEC) had marginal impacted on entrepreneurship in Nigeria.

The weak relationship between CSR constructs on entrepreneurship development in Nigeria as shown in the finding above is supported by the annual reports of the telecommunication companies which indicated philanthropic donations to schools, hospitals and environmental issues as their basic focus (Owonibi, 2012; Airtel, 2012; Etisalat CSR Report, 2010; MTN, 2013). The most popular CSR activities reported by companies in Nigeria are the philanthropic spending directed at social and community issues (Amaeshi et al., 2006; Helg, 2007). The CSR investments are dispensed as donations, charities, health support services and sponsorship for sports, musical events, cultural & entertainment programmes, promotional raffles and promotional activities (Osemene, 2011; Ibe, 2012). They only support economic issues that impact on return on investment, market share and reputation with investing public. Even in other developing African countries like Kenya and Zambia the same activities have been reported: focus on health institutions; donations to sports associations, entertainments industry, education and training; intervention support for HIV/AIDS; aid to religious bodies as charities (Ufadhili et al., 2005).

### **9.4: Conclusions**

The motivation for undertaking the current study is because there are few empirical studies that explored entrepreneurship development through CSR (i.e. promotion of small businesses in Nigeria using CSR investments). At present, this field of research is an emerging area (Jamali and Mirshak, 2007) because of “methodological shortcomings and the lack of empirical evidence on the impact of CSR” (Frynas, 2008: 276). In the face of limited insight

on developmental-oriented CSR from developing countries, scholars such as Sharp (2006), Newell and Frynas (2007), Frynas (2008) and Idemudia (2010) call for theoretical and empirical studies in these area. For the investigation, a mixed research method was considered suitable due to the multidisciplinary nature of this research and because such hybrid method allows for triangulation (Castellan, 2009; Saunders et al., 2012). In the methodology literature, it was confirmed that 80% of the CSR research in developed countries adopted the quantitative method indicating high preference for positivist paradigm, whereas CSR research from the developing countries favour qualitative research method (Lockett et al. 2006; Visser, 2008). The use of mixed research methods in the present study has therefore enriched qualitative and quantitative research traditions from Nigeria. Using the 87-item CSRE instrument and semi-structured interview instrument, the relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship development in the Nigerian telecommunication industry was investigated.

At end of the investigation, it was found that the stakeholders' perception of CSR in the industry is largely a philanthropic perspective; while the perception of entrepreneurship in the same industry is the act of setting up businesses for self-employment and wealth creation. Furthermore, the dominant CSR activity vis-a-vis entrepreneurship development is sports and entertainments, but entrepreneurship development was poorly focused. With regards to the potentials of future CSR, the study found that CSR could be effective means for funding entrepreneurship education; funding start-up businesses for unemployed graduates/trainees; funding business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses; funding purchase of equipment and tools for poor artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities; and it could be besides, an effective instrument for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.

With regards to the direction of causality between CSR and Entrepreneurship (CSR-E), it was established that generally there is a significant relationship between the two constructs. Specifically however, out of the five dimensions of CSR only two CSR dimensions (environment and stakeholder management dimensions) are significant predictor of entrepreneurship. The study has therefore provided the literature with an expanded measure of CSR incorporating entrepreneurship dimension, as opposed to viewing CSR dimensions in terms of social, economic and environmental dimensions. According to Green Paper (2001), the nuance socially responsible corporation is far from merely complying with the minimum legal obligations stipulated by government or as contained in international protocols like UN Global Compact, rather it extends to boosting human capital, sustaining the environment and

improving relations with multiple stakeholders. A renewed understanding of CSR is sought which is believed would open the way for integrating social development with improved business competitiveness/economic motives (Emerson, 2003; Green Paper, 2001).

### **9.5: Contributions to Knowledge**

From the findings so far discussed taking cognisance of the limitations below, this study has given an enhanced understanding of CSR and entrepreneurship from the Nigerian stakeholders' perspectives. CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication context is largely a philanthropic perspective, while entrepreneurship is perceived as attempt to set up small businesses for self-employment and wealth creation. The researcher developed an integrated definition of CSR that incorporates development issues especially funding small businesses with CSR investment of corporations; this emerging perspective of CSR is styled in the literature developmental-oriented CSR.

Secondly, the study has modestly bridged the theoretical and empirical gap in the literature on the developmental-oriented CSR. The research has therefore filled the “methodological shortcomings and the lack of empirical evidence on the impact of CSR” (Frynas, 2008: 276). In theory and practice, CSR-Entrepreneurship model justified the plausibility of refocusing CSR investment for stimulating entrepreneurship in Nigeria, where small businesses face a number of environmental challenges. The model also responds to Roy's (2010) prescription for the enhancement of Africa's CSR investments. CSR-Entrepreneurship model has therefore provided the theoretical and empirical possibility of Roy's (2010) call for action and highlighted potentials of CSR investments when used for developmental purposes.

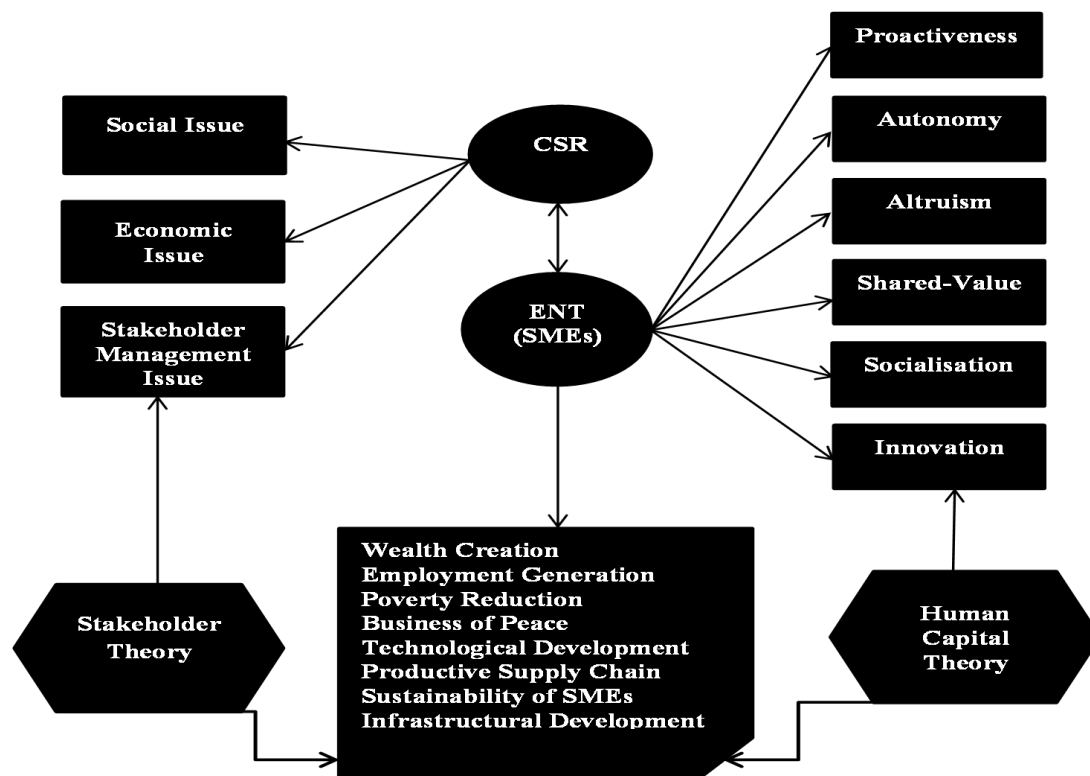
Thirdly, the study contributed to research methodology through the development of CSRE questionnaire which measures the relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship. The web-enabled questionnaire has been used for collecting data at an organisational level of analysis. The instrument is useful for measuring the relationship between CSR dimensions on entrepreneurship orientation of corporations. The second methodological contribution relates to the use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and Multiple Regression Analysis for measurement of relationships and ascertaining predictability respectively.

Fourthly, the study justified the potential of CSR as a Private-Sector Development Model (PSDM) for small business development within and outside the value chain of the Nigerian telecommunication industry (see Figure 9.1). The stakeholder and human capital theories provide sound grounding for the validated CSR-Entrepreneurship model. The marriage of

these two theories from the fields of CSR and entrepreneurship is another contribution to theory building and adaptation in research. The validation of stakeholder theory has once again justified its relevance in explaining business-society relationships. The human capital theory on the other hand confirmed that the most effective and potent means for stimulating entrepreneurship by the private sector is through investment in people, capacity-building, skills development and related human development mechanism. Related to the PSDM contribution, this research has justified the potential of CSRE as an enduring mitigation tool for dousing conflicts over natural resources in turbulent host communities with multiple stakeholders' interests when complemented with other policy measures.

Finally, the study has contributed to knowledge through publication of the developmental perspective of CSRE in the Social Responsibility Journal (SRJ) and Greenleaf's Book Chapter on developmental-oriented CSR. Another paper entitled 'Corporate social responsibility, Waqf system and Zakat system as faith-based model for poverty reduction' was adjudged as a Highly Commended Paper throughout 2014 by the World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development, Emerald Group Publishing Limited. They have all been peer-reviewed and published.

**Figure 9.1:** Validated CSR-Entrepreneurship (CSRE) Model



Although the developmental prospects of SMEs as discussed above are specific to the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry, the SMEs in other sectors of the Nigerian economy and other countries are catalysts for economic growth and development. In the developing countries, the SMEs have been identified as the vehicle for economic growth and poverty eradication (Apulu, Latham and Moreton, 2011; Okpara, 2011; Osetimehin, Jegede, Akinlabi and Olajide, 2012). Also, Europe after the global economic crisis is beginning to appreciate the strength of the SMEs as a powerful engine of sustainable employment, economic growth and technological innovation. Besides, more than 99% of all European enterprises corresponding to over 20 million enterprises, about 67% of the total employment and 60% of the GDP (Kakabadse, Lee-Davies and Theodorakopoulos, 2011). Nigeria SMEs are not less important, as 97% of Nigerian business enterprises are in the SMEs sub-sector, and they provide about 50% employment to the citizens (Agwu and Emeti, 2014); they also contribute about 1% to the Nigeria's GDP (Oyelara-Oyeyinka, 2008; Soludo, 2007).

## **9.6: Research Implication of Research findings**

### **9.6.1: Academic Implication**

From the academic lenses, the study has unveiled the potential of CSR-Entrepreneurship model in the sense that, it provided further understanding on the development-oriented CSR perspective which scholars remarked has not been well researched from theoretical and empirical viewpoints. The present perspective of CSR is philanthropic, while future CSR is developmental. Entrepreneurship development and its attendant benefits of wealth creation, employment generation, poverty-reduction and technological progress fall within the developmental perspective. Secondly, through interviews with the corporate executives of leading telecommunication companies and stakeholders' viewpoints in the web-enabled questionnaires, the study ascertained that CSR could be a potent mechanism for small business development, poverty reduction, and start-up venture capitals for SMEs, as well as tool for wealth creation and instruments for fortifying government policies like MDGs and the Transformation Agenda in Nigeria. Thirdly, the study also confirmed that the stakeholder theory (SHT) and human capital theory (HCT) are relevant theoretical underpinning for explaining CSR-Entrepreneurship relationships in the Nigerian telecommunication industry.

### **9.6.2: Practical Implications and Recommendations**

For academic researchers, developing a meta-theoretical framework for CSRE model from the stakeholder theory (SHT) and human capital theory (HCT) has provided opportunity for



further empirical investigation on the prospect of refocusing CSR for entrepreneurship development or what has been styled the developmental-oriented CSR.

For policymakers in corporations, the key findings on the future potentials of CSR for entrepreneurship development could be exploited as a private sector development model (PSDM) for strengthening small businesses facing weak institutional support and infrastructural deficits in the telecommunication industry in Nigeria. This type of framework is otherwise called ‘building business linkages (BBLs)’ for SMEs. The inherent benefits of BBLs for the Nigerian telecommunication industry as depicted in the validated CSRE model in Figure 9.1 above include: (a) Wealth Creation, (b) Employment Generation for the locals, (c) Poverty Reduction, (d) Business of Peace, (e) Technological Development, (f) Productive Supply Chain, (g) Sustainability of SMEs and (h) Infrastructural Development for SMEs.

For the practitioners especially CSR managers and consultants, refocusing CSR investments to support entrepreneurship education at the three levels of education is a worthwhile prescription for promoting self-employment, self-sufficiency and self-reliance. MNCs like Microsoft, Cisco, Chevron, Bill Gates Foundation et cetera have initiated developmental programmes in support of SMEs and entrepreneurship in Indonesia and the Middle-East for the purpose of giving back to the society. The developmental-oriented CSR model proposed by this study is a better coordinated CSR investment than the philanthropic CSR model which is the common norm in the Nigerian telecommunication industry at the moment.

Another important practical implication is that the validated CSRE questionnaire instrument has proven to be an effective tool for measuring the relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship. The five CSR dimensions in the questionnaire instrument are useful for measuring the effectiveness of environmental, economic, social, community and stakeholder management issues, while the six entrepreneurship dimensions are useful for measuring entrepreneurial orientation of the Nigerian telecommunication companies.



Flowing from the practical implications above, the following recommendations are proposed.

- i. It is suggested that policy makers at governmental and corporate levels work together at ensuring that CSR activities are strategically targeted at supporting capacity development of disadvantaged host communities, suppliers, distributors, small businesses and artisans. The principle of voluntarism that drives conventional CSR should guide the embedding of a developmental CSR. In other words, a developmental CSR should strictly be pursued as a private-sector driven model because there is preference for private-sector led development initiatives over corrupt-ridden public-sector initiatives.
- ii. Related to the point above, the role of the government in the process of refocusing CSR as a entrepreneurship developmental mechanism should be strictly regulatory. The government should provide an enabling environment for a smooth business-society relationship. The government should encourage voluntary participation of telecommunication companies as opposed to coercive measures on CSR. The 2008 proposed CSR Bill could not be approved into law by the National Assembly (the legislative arm) because the private-sector organisations argued that the provisions of the Bill were akin to double taxation and disincentives to entrepreneurship.
- iii. To ensure corporations leverage their CSR programmes and support services on the society, there is need for effective communication with stakeholders. It is advised that corporations communicate their CSR programmes through periodic social, accounting and environmental reporting using communication channels like newspapers, radio, TV, websites, annual reports and other promotional media. In the same vein, corporations should fortify their corporate affairs department to handle complaints from consumers, suppliers, dealers, media, host communities and other stakeholders in order to maintain a competitive edge, good image and enduring reputation with stakeholders in Nigeria.
- iv. While working to promote sustainable means of accelerating entrepreneurship development in Nigeria through developmental CSR focused on small business development, there is need for the civil society groups to be vigilant with regards to CSR activities that subvert national independence as well as social involvements

designed as green washing to neutralise the negative impact of operations of telecommunication companies and corporate misbehaviour in host communities.

- v. It is recommended that CSR investments be earmarked by the telecommunication companies for entrepreneurship education and skills acquisition in Nigeria as obtained in nations, where CISCO, NBC/Cappy Plc, Microsoft and other MNCs are impacting on the lives of people and communities. Entrepreneurship and other skills acquisition training should be practically-oriented, to make Nigerians self-reliant, self-driven and self-employed after the period of graduation. To make the effort fruitful, it is also suggested that corporations invest in the capacity-building of lecturers and instructors teaching entrepreneurship education and other skills acquisition courses at the three levels of education in Nigeria.
- vi. The nation's Economics team is advised to consider the viability of the CSR-Entrepreneurship framework for redressing the challenges of poverty, insecurity, unemployment and economic stagnation. This can better be actualised through a sound partnership between governments, advocacy groups and business corporations in Nigeria in the areas of crime prevention, empowerment and national development. These pragmatic moves would promote old and new small businesses in an emerging economy like Nigeria.
- vii. Finally, the practical insight from the research revealed a number of issues about survey in developing countries. To fortify survey strategy and ensure replicability of survey-oriented research of this nature in developing countries, there is need for public institutions and corporations to accord researchers the needed support when undertaking surveys because the social-economic benefits arising from research impact on economic growth and academic development. Secondly, to increase institutional participation in survey, an award system could be institutionalized by the Government in developing countries as a motivation for corporations to support or promote research. Thirdly, it is advised that researchers treat data collected from corporations and other institutional bodies with the utmost confidentiality, as misuse of data/information by researchers is often advanced as the main reason for not granting access to researchers. Researchers should give serious attention to design and validation of structured questionnaire and interview questions before undertaking

surveys. This recommendation is necessary to ensure that questionnaire items and interview schedules measure what they are designed to measure.

### **9.7: Limitations/Generaliseability of the Research Findings**

Although the experimental research design followed in carrying out this research was planned to ensure thoroughness, objectivity and minimisation of error, there are obvious limitations in a study of this magnitude in terms of generaliseability of findings, level of analysis/depth of the research and data collection because of sensitivity of the research, choice of sampling technique/sample size, choice of analytics and logistic constraints.

#### **9.7.1: Generaliseability**

In academic research, generaliseability is an important consideration; it is the researcher's extension of findings and conclusions from a given study sample to the whole population (Guthrie, 2010). Therefore, the eight (8) findings from this study represent the perceptions of stakeholders in Nigerian telecommunication industry. For the other sectors of the economy and the entire Nigeria as a country, the findings although applicable, can be generalised with caution, because the sample size and the sampling techniques relate to the telecommunication industry. For the qualitative aspect, a sample of 9 telecommunication companies was selected using purposive sampling technique from a population of 25 companies. From the total 25 telecommunication companies in Nigeria, only 13 companies are fully operational; the remaining 12 companies are at the verge of liquidation for non-performance. Therefore, the 9 sampled companies represent 69.2% of the functional companies in the industry. The use of purposive sampling procedure is therefore justified and the findings are representative and could be generalised as the viewpoints of the stakeholders on CSR and Entrepreneurship relationships in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. Even official report from the Central Bank of Nigeria (2010) indicates that the 9 companies used as samples in this study are the strong drivers of the Nigerian economy; they contributed to the growth of real GDP from 3.8% in 2000 to 6.8 % in 2010. These telecommunication companies also contributed 8.27% to total GDP in the first quarter of 2014 (NBS, 2014).

Similarly, the quantitative aspect of the research adopts snowballing sampling technique in the absence of a sampling frame. From the population of 65 million telephone service subscribers in Lagos, the study selected a sample size of 384 using a snowballing sampling technique. The findings arising from the research can be generalised for two justifications. One, the process of sample size determination before snowballing was through Parten's

(1950) sample size formula, which had been used in several studies on account of its precision in specifying adequate and representative sample size (Guthrie, 2010; Hashimu and Ango, 2012; Ross, Clark & Padgett, 2006;). For an exploratory research of this nature, a complete sample frame is not really important especially where such does not exist. To prevent sample error, bias and misleading findings which may affect generaliseability of the research, the study started the snowballing sampling with the 27 knowledgeable individuals who participated in the pilot survey. They included 10 telecommunication experts in the industry, 8 academic staff with knowledge of CSR and entrepreneurship and 9 students in the business schools. They were requested to send to the web-survey to their network of individuals with the knowledge of CSR and Entrepreneurship. These steps foreclose arbitrariness and misleading responses which may affect the generaliseability of the findings. With these precautions, the findings from this research can be relied upon as reflection of the views of the stakeholders in the Nigerian telecommunication industry, but not the generality of Nigerians.

#### **9.7.2: Limitation by the Level of Analysis**

The second limitation relates to the adopted level of analysis. With regards to analysis, there are four levels of analysis depending on the goal of investigation, namely: micro goals (individual level), meso goals (organisational level), macro goals (country/national level) and supra goals (transnational/global level) analyses (Aguilera et al., 2007). Researchers are therefore at liberty to adopt the level of analysis that fits the depth of enquiry being carried out. For this research, the organisational level approach (meso level) was chosen because the research problem is organisational-oriented. Within the organisational context chosen, 9 leading telecommunication companies were selected from a total of 25 registered telecommunication companies, while 384 telephone subscribers were chosen from Lagos at 95% confidence level and 7% confidence interval (as explained in chapter 6). However, the findings at the organisational level of analysis (based on the samples and cross sectional data) cannot be generalised as representative at the national level. Future research should have larger samples and longitudinal data for more assertive and representative results. In spite of this limitation, the present study has provided useful insight on the potentials of CSR and entrepreneurship in Nigeria. For robust findings, it is anticipated that the findings obtained from the present study will spur future researchers to explore country and transnational analysis. In spite of the obvious limitation, this study found solace in the principle of interpretative research which states that: “generalization is not sought from the setting of a

population; rather it supplies an understanding of the deeper structure of a phenomenon that can inform other settings” (Ololube, 2006: 112).

### **9.7.3: Limitation of the Data Collected**

Third limitation of this study pertains to the data collected on CSR-Entrepreneurship research in telecommunication industry in Nigeria. The companies approached for interview were reluctant; they were apprehensive and suspicious that the study could be tacit marketing intelligence research. Gaining confidence of the telecommunication companies took some time even with a support letter from the Research Supervisor. Approval by the companies creates a myriad of limitations with regards to number of interviewees, diversity in terms of status in organisations and gender identity of interviewees. Based on the field reality, the findings arising from the 9 interviews granted are therefore limited to the telecommunication industry. The ideal would have been to do interviews with more than one manager per company and possibly distribute questionnaires to a cross-section of telecommunication employees. For the web-enabled questionnaire, however, access was easy because the respondents were telephone subscribers and members of the public; they were keen to take part during the pilot survey and signified their intention to be part of the final survey. They saw completion of the web-enabled questionnaire as an opportunity to express their views on the strengths and weaknesses of CSR and entrepreneurship relationships in telecommunication industry. The mixed research methods used, therefore, should compensate any inadequacies and limitations of data from both the interview and web-enabled questionnaire techniques.

The present study although exploratory, has shown the plausibility of refocusing CSR as mechanism for entrepreneurship development as well as its future potentials, but has not provided answers to why developmental CSR has not been adopted by Nigerian telecommunication companies. Future explanatory research in the direction mentioned above would provide richer and more in-depth information on why corporations have preference for CSR as a support aid for sports, reputation-building, marketing and philanthropy as against developmental CSR that this research proposed.

### **9.7.4: Limitation of Survey Strategy**

The fourth limitation of this study relates to the use of survey strategy as an instrument for data gathering. The widespread criticisms against survey as the primary data gathering instrument relate to bias and subjectivity. The criticism of critics of interview-based survey is

that the data analysis opens the door for manipulation, and that the final outcomes are often biased and subjective because the researcher may transcribe audio-taped interviews based on a preconceived line of thought and prejudices (Bell, 1999; Saunders et al., 2012). This vital observation was noted throughout the period of this study. In particular, the researcher ensured objectivity as much as possible while applying content and thematic analyses for transcribing, coding and interpreting audio-taped data collected during interviews granted to corporate executives of 9 leading telecommunication companies in Nigeria. Future survey could expand on the diversity of interviewees and gender representation or outright replication of study as a multi-sectoral comparative study or cross-country study and the findings re-validated using the present survey strategy or other research strategies including case studies and ethnography.

#### **9.7.5: Limitation by Timeframe and Financial Resources**

Furthermore, the present study is limited by timeframe and financial resources. In reality, the time allowed for conduct of academic research is limited, unlike a national survey or census that may take couple of years. As at the time of submission, the macro-economic factors in the economy as they relate to the research might have changed. Therefore, the findings as well as scope of issues covered within the limited timeframe can be generalised with caution as reflecting the views of Nigerians. The findings of this research are only minor reflections of the viewpoints of the Nigerian stakeholders on the subject. Related to timeframe is the constraint of financial resources. To conduct a national survey research, substantial resources, both human and financial, would be required. To overcome this limitation, the coverage of the research was trimmed down to a sample of 384 respondents (for web survey) and 9 telecommunication companies (for interview survey). In spite of the limitations above, this study is unique and distinct as because it opens the space further studies on synergy between CSR and entrepreneurship in Nigeria as a developing nation and other developing nations in Africa with similar socio-economic and developmental challenges.

#### **9.8: Plans for Publication and Dissemination of Knowledge**

In view of the importance of this research, the ideas contained in this research are being systematically disseminated to the academic community and industry through participation in faculty paper presentations, seminars/workshops, conferences and publication in academic journals. So far, nine papers with direct and indirect links have emerged from the thesis (see Publication & Declaration, Page v).

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## Appendix I: Ethical Approval

### SECTION 4. Declaration and Signatures

I have read the *Responsibilities of the Researcher* guidelines at <http://www.dmu.ac.uk/roscop/ethics/ppt-and-governance/responsibilities-of-the-researcher.aspx> and I will comply with them.

Signature of Researcher:



Date: 27/02/2014

Students Only

This form must be agreed with your Supervisor prior to authorisation by the Designated Officer and a copy of the research proposal (Application for Registration (RDCR) form) must be attached to this application.

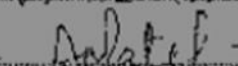
Programme of Study:

PhD

Name of Supervisor:

Asim Khatib

Signature of Supervisor:



Date: 27/02/14

### SECTION 3. Additional Codes of Ethics

Which Code of Research Ethics will be adhered to during the course of your research?

Name: Section 3.2.2, sub-section 3.2.2.1  
Codes of research ethics relating to research on humans.

Web address:  
<http://dmu.ac.uk/roscop/ethics/research/documents/graduate-school/loop/2012-new/codeofpractice-2012-master-0110document.pdf>

Some types of research activity require additional advance ethical approval to be given from the relevant governing body. For example, advance NRES approval is required where participants include NHS patients or social care users. It is the responsibility of the researcher to ascertain whether such approval is required and to obtain this where necessary.

My study requires additional approval  yes/no

I have obtained additional approval from

Reference number:

Date of approval:

Signature of Designated Officer:



Date: 3/03/14

Designated officers:

Can Research Students?  
1370 507 (Disability and Student Records)  
Other Research Students: 1370 507 (Student)  
Undergraduate Students

Head of Research  
- Faculty Lead of Research Students  
Module Leader  
- Head of Postgraduate Studies  
- 1370 507 (Student)

Dr Anthony Fawcett  
Prof Gareth Dringwill  
Dr Haya Goh  
Martin Kurbet

## Appendix II: Introductory Letter from DMU for data collection



2<sup>nd</sup> April 2016

To whom it may concern

### Re: Lukman RAIMI

This is to confirm that Mr. Lukman Raimi is currently conducting a doctoral level research on "Corporate Social Responsibility and Entrepreneurship in the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry: A Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) in the Department of Accounting and Finance, Leicester Business School, De Montfort University, United Kingdom.

This research is in partial fulfilment of his Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree and will fully comply with the University's code of conduct on ethics and associated procedures. Therefore, respondents and focus organisations are guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality.

I shall be grateful for all the co-operation and assistance extended to him. Please do feel free to contact me in case of further information or enquiries.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Anil Patel". The signature is written in a cursive style with a long horizontal stroke underneath the name.



## Appendix IIb: Introductory Letter to NCC from Student



NCC/HPR/OM/RL/VOL.1/01/11/2012

November 19, 2012

Mr. Raimi Lukman  
Doctoral Student,  
De Montfont University, Leicester-UK,  
Lecturer, Yaba College of Technology, Lagos,  
P.M.B. 2011, Yaba,  
Lagos.

Dear Sir,

**Re: Request for Research Sponsorship/Collaboration for CSR Survey**

The subject matter refers.

We write to acknowledge receipt of your letter dated August 13, 2012 on 28<sup>th</sup> September, 2012 on the above subject, requesting for sponsorship/collaboration from the Commission. We wish to inform you that your request is being reviewed and shall notify you on further developments in this regard.

We would also like to commend your efforts towards Research and Development in the Nigerian Telecommunications industry.

Please accept the assurances of our esteemed regards.

Yours faithfully,

**Lolita S. Emakpore (Mrs.)**  
Director, Policy, Competition & Economic Analysis  
For: Executive Vice Chairman/Chief Executive

# Appendix III: Final Questionnaire Instrument



## Corporate Socially Responsible Entrepreneurship Questionnaire (CSREQ) Corporate Social Responsibility for Entrepreneurship Development

I am a Doctoral student in the Faculty of Business and Law, De Montfort University, Leicester, United Kingdom. Currently, I am undertaking a research on the above topic. This self-administered questionnaire is designed to generate information from you on the prospect of refocusing CSR as catalyst for entrepreneurship in the Telecommunication Industry. Please be assured that the data generated are purely for this research, and will be treated with the utmost anonymity and confidentiality. Your cooperation is hereby solicited. Kindly give sincere response to all the questions. Thank you for your anticipated participation.

If you have any questions or clarification about the study, please contact **Raimi, Lukman** on phone numbers +2438023462555 or email to [Lukman.raimi@email.dmu.ac.uk](mailto:Lukman.raimi@email.dmu.ac.uk), [luq\\_man2001@yahoo.com](mailto:luq_man2001@yahoo.com)

**Instruction: Please mark or tick the appropriate box.**

### SECTION A: PERSONAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS

A1. Location of respondent in Lagos \_\_\_\_\_ (E.g. Ikeja, Island, Alimosho, Somolu etc)

A2. Sex: Male  Female

A3. Age  
(a) 16 – 25 years   
(b) 26 – 35 years   
(c) 36 – 45 years   
(d) 46 – 55 years   
(e) 56 years above

A4. Marital status:  
(a) Single  (b) Married   
(c) Divorced  (d) Widow

A5. Educational qualifications  
(a) Primary School  (d) Bachelor   
(b) Secondary School  (e) Master and Doctoral   
(c) ND/NCE  (f) Others \_\_\_\_\_ (Specify)

A6. Which type of telephone user are you?  
(a) Self-employed business owner   
(b) Student   
(c) Unemployed person   
(d) Private sector employee   
(e) Public servant

A7. How would you describe your knowledge about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the Telecommunication industry?

- (a) Extensive  (b) High   
 (c) Fair  (d) Poor

A8. Could you also describe your knowledge about the term Entrepreneurship in the Telecommunication industry?

- (a) Extensive  (b) High   
 (c) Fair  (d) Poor

A9. Based on your response in A7 above, how often do you observe the CSR activities of the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

- (a) Weekly   
 (b) Monthly   
 (c) Quarterly   
 (d) Bi-annually   
 (e) Annually   
 (f) Occasionally

**SECTION B: CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY SCALE (CSRS)**

<b>Part I: Meaning of CSR in the Telecom Industry</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
B1.	CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.					
B2.	CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government					
B3.	CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.					
B4.	CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations to reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.					
B5.	CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations to improve relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.					
B6.	CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.					
<b>Part II: CSR as Environmental Management Issues</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
C1.	Telecommunication companies have environmental management policy on waste reduction and control.					
C2.	These companies monitor the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations.					
C3.	They are proactive in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products.					
C4.	Telecommunication companies ensure clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes.					
C5.	Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations.					
C6.	Telecommunication companies consider environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services					

<b>Part III: CSR as Community and National Issues</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
D1.	Telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities.					
D2.	They involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities.					
D3.	They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.					
D4.	Telecommunication companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities.					
D5.	They have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate					
D6.	They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.					
D7.	The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for the disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.					
D8	The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.					
<b>Part IV: CSR as Social Issues</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
E1.	Nigerian Telecommunication companies get involved in academic and education programmes.					
E2.	They facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level.					
E3.	They support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories.					
E4.	Telecommunication companies provide scholarships to indigent and brilliant students in the formal school system.					
E5.	Telecommunication companies support women empowerment and widow issues.					
E6.	Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.					
<b>Part V: CSR as Economic Issues</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
F1.	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government.					
F2.	CSR participation of telecommunication companies promotes the strategic business interest of long run profitability.					
F3.	The CSR programmes boost corporate reputation of telecommunication companies in the eyes of government and the public.					
F4.	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners.					
F5.	The CSR programmes are adopted by telecommunication companies for the benefits of revenues and costs optimisation.					
F6.	Telecommunication companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.					

Part VI: CSR and Stakeholder Engagement in the Telecom Industry							
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD	
G1.	Telecommunication companies in Nigeria have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement.						
G2.	The most valuable stakeholders of telecommunication companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors.						
G3.	Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.						
G4.	The stakeholder engagement of telecommunication companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders.						
G5.	The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.						
G6.	CSR programmes and projects are provided based on outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community.						
G7.	The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.						

**Part VII: CSR Objectives, Modes and Activities in The Telecom Industry**

On the strength of the various issues raised above, express your views on the following by ticking any of the options provided:

H1. Which of the following is the most strategic business interest of Nigerian telecommunication in CSR?

- (a) To improve relations with customers, employees, business partners and host communities.
- (b) To improve economic performance of long-term profitability
- (c) To bow to pressure from external stakeholders
- (d) To avail of public incentives of tax incentives/exemptions
- (e) To reduce the negative impact of their operations on the environment
- (f) To give something back to the society on ethical and moral grounds

H2. Which is the dominant CSR activity in Nigeria?

- (a) Sports & Entertainment/Showbiz
- (b) Environmental protection programmes
- (c) Education & Training Interventions
- (d) Welfare services to clinic & special homes
- (e) Entrepreneurship Development & Small Business Promotion
- (f) Infrastructural Development in communities

H3. Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

- (a) Philanthropic mode
- (b) Economic mode
- (c) Compensatory mode
- (d) Corporate Citizenship mode

H4. What is the common mode(s) adopted by these companies for reporting its CSR activities?

- (a) Advertisement/Promotional campaigns
- (b) Annual reports
- (c) Media/Press Briefings
- (d) Publications on websites
- (e) Words of mouth
- (f) CSR reports
- (g) Newsletter by Email



<b>Part II: Entrepreneurial Innovativeness of Telecom Industry</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
K1.	Most telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors.					
K2.	Telecommunication companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions.					
K3.	They encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave novel ways.					
K4.	Telecommunication companies provide supports for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.					
<b>Part III: Entrepreneurial Proactiveness of Telecom Industry</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
L1.	Dominant telecommunication companies in Nigeria favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations.					
L2.	Telecommunication companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities					
L3.	The telecommunication companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market.					
L4.	Telecommunication companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.					
<b>Part IV: Entrepreneurial Autonomy &amp; Skill Development of Telecom Industry</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
M1.	Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets.					
M2.	Telecommunication companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base.					
M3.	They support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence.					
M4.	Support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills.					
M5.	Telecommunication companies provide support for host community to elicit their collaboration for business of peace.					
M6.	Trainings and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.					
<b>Part V: Altruism of Telecom Industry</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
N1.	Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile.					
N2.	Telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society.					
N3.	Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.					

<b>Part VI: Shared Vision of Telecom Industry</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
O1.	Telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impact on entrepreneurship development.					
O2.	Most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development.					
O3.	They support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication.					
O4.	Telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.					
<b>Part IV: Socialisation of Telecom Industry</b>						
SN	Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree nor Disagree (N) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)	SA	A	N	D	SD
P1.	Telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community.					
P2.	Telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society.					
P3.	Most telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.					

**THANK YOU for taking time to complete this survey.**



## Appendix IV: Final Semi-Structured Interview Schedule



### **SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW**

#### **Corporate Social Responsibility for Entrepreneurship Development**

I am a Doctoral student in the Faculty of Business and Law, De Montfort University, Leicester, United Kingdom. Currently, I am undertaking a research on the above title. This structured interview is being conducted to generate information from you or your organisation on the prospect of refocusing CSR as support mechanism for entrepreneurship in the Nigerian Telecommunication Industry. **Please be assured that information generated is purely for this research, and will be treated with the utmost confidentiality it deserves.** Your cooperation is hereby solicited. Kindly give sincere response to the questions. Thank you for your participation.

### **STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (SIS)**

#### ***About You***

- 1) What is your position or job title in your telecommunication company? Do not mention the name of your company?
- 2) What is your role in that company with regards to promoting corporate social responsibility (CSR) and Entrepreneurship/Small business development?
- 3) How long have you been in the company playing the roles in 2 above?

#### ***About Your Company, CSR and Entrepreneurship***

- 1) What is the meaning of CSR within the Nigeria context?
- 2) What are the dominant CSR activities in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
- 3) What is the degree of engagement of stakeholders on CSR activities in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
- 4) What are the host community and national issues targeted by CSR by the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
- 5) What is the prevalent mode of CSR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?
- 6) What is the meaning of entrepreneurship in the Nigeria context?
- 7) What are the future entrepreneurial activities that CSR as a support aid could impact on in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

**THANK YOU for granting this interview**

**Raimi, Lukman**

Email: Lukman.Raimi@emial.dmu.ac.uk & Luq\_man2001@yahoo.com

## APPENDIX V: Frequency Tables 1-87

### Location of respondent in Lagos

Table 1		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Lagos Island/Victoria Island Axis	48	13.0	13.0	13.0
	Mainland/Yaba/Apapa Axis	34	9.2	9.2	22.2
	Somolu/Bariga/Oworonshoki Axis	93	25.2	25.2	47.4
	Ikeja/Agege/Alimosho Axis	58	15.7	15.7	63.1
Valid	Mushin/Oshodi/Isolo Axis	32	8.7	8.7	71.8
	Ikorodu/Kosofe Axis	38	10.3	10.3	82.1
	Badagry/Epe Axis	20	5.4	5.4	87.5
	Other locations	46	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

### Sex

Table 2		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Male	280	75.9	75.9	75.9
Valid	Female	89	24.1	24.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

### Age

Table 3		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	16-25 Years	90	24.4	24.4	24.4
	26-35 Years	91	24.7	24.7	49.1
Valid	36-45 Years	89	24.1	24.1	73.2
	46-55 Years	82	22.2	22.2	95.4
	56 Years Above	17	4.6	4.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

### Marital Status

Table 4		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Single	146	39.6	39.6	39.6
	Married	220	59.6	59.6	99.2
Valid	Divorced	1	.3	.3	99.5
	Widow/Widower	2	.5	.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

### Educational Qualifications

Table 5		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Primary School	1	.3	.3
	Secondary School	18	4.9	4.9
	National Diploma/National Certificate of Education	80	21.7	21.7
Valid	Higher National Diploma	22	6.0	6.0
	Bachelor's Degree	135	36.6	36.6
	Master and Doctoral Degree	108	29.3	29.3
	Others	5	1.4	1.4
	Total	369	100.0	100.0

**Which type of telephone user are you?**

Table 6		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Self-employed business owner	50	13.6	13.6	13.6
	Student	118	32.0	32.0	45.5
	Unemployed person	9	2.4	2.4	48.0
	Private sector employee	102	27.6	27.6	75.6
	Public sector employee	90	24.4	24.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**How would you describe your knowledge about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the Telecommunication industry?**

Table 7		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extensive	42	11.4	11.4	11.4
	High	214	58.0	58.0	69.4
	Fair	91	24.7	24.7	94.0
	Poor	22	6.0	6.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Could you also describe your knowledge about the term Entrepreneurship in the Telecommunication industry?**

Table 8		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extensive	23	6.2	6.2	6.2
	High	193	52.3	52.3	58.5
	Fair	134	36.3	36.3	94.9
	Poor	19	5.1	5.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Based on your response in A7 above, how often do you observe the CSR activities of the Nigerian telecommunication industry?**

Table 9		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weekly	37	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Monthly	51	13.8	13.8	23.8
	Quarterly	41	11.1	11.1	35.0
	Bi-annually	9	2.4	2.4	37.4
	Annually	37	10.0	10.0	47.4
	Occasionally	194	52.6	52.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.**

Table 10		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	1.1	1.1	1.1
	Disagree	17	4.6	4.6	5.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	36	9.8	9.8	15.4
	Agree	147	39.8	39.8	55.3
	Strongly Agree	165	44.7	44.7	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government.**

Table 11		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	18	4.9	4.9	4.9
	Disagree	26	7.0	7.0	11.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	50	13.6	13.6	25.5
	Agree	168	45.5	45.5	71.0
	Strongly Agree	107	29.0	29.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.**

Table 12		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	52	14.1	14.1	14.1
	Disagree	70	19.0	19.0	33.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	88	23.8	23.8	56.9
	Agree	119	32.2	32.2	89.2
	Strongly Agree	40	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.**

Table 13		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	21	5.7	5.7	5.7
	Disagree	40	10.8	10.8	16.5
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	76	20.6	20.6	37.1
	Agree	172	46.6	46.6	83.7
	Strongly Agree	60	16.3	16.3	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.**

Table 14		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	26	7.0	7.0	7.0
	Disagree	36	9.8	9.8	16.8
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	73	19.8	19.8	36.6
	Agree	156	42.3	42.3	78.9
	Strongly Agree	78	21.1	21.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.**

Table 15		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	25	6.8	6.8	6.8
	Disagree	40	10.8	10.8	17.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	77	20.9	20.9	38.5
	Agree	153	41.5	41.5	79.9
	Strongly Agree	74	20.1	20.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies have environmental management policy on waste reduction and control.**

Table 16		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	47	12.7	12.7	12.7
	Disagree	76	20.6	20.6	33.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	116	31.4	31.4	64.8
	Agree	91	24.7	24.7	89.4
	Strongly Agree	39	10.6	10.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**These companies monitor the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations.**

Table 17		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	80	21.7	21.7	21.7
	Disagree	115	31.2	31.2	52.8
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	80	21.7	21.7	74.5
	Agree	71	19.2	19.2	93.8
	Strongly Agree	23	6.2	6.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They are proactive in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products.**

Table 18		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	107	29.0	29.0	29.0
	Disagree	113	30.6	30.6	59.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	61	16.5	16.5	76.2
	Agree	69	18.7	18.7	94.9
	Strongly Agree	19	5.1	5.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies ensure clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes.**

Table 19		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	132	35.8	35.8	35.8
	Disagree	106	28.7	28.7	64.5
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	66	17.9	17.9	82.4
	Agree	41	11.1	11.1	93.5
	Strongly Agree	24	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations.**

Table 20		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	70	19.0	19.0	19.0
	Disagree	70	19.0	19.0	37.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	106	28.7	28.7	66.7
	Agree	93	25.2	25.2	91.9
	Strongly Agree	30	8.1	8.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies consider environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services.**

Table 21		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	60	16.3	16.3	16.3
	Disagree	115	31.2	31.2	47.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	97	26.3	26.3	73.7
	Agree	72	19.5	19.5	93.2
	Strongly Agree	25	6.8	6.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities.**

Table 22		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	44	11.9	11.9	15.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	93	25.2	25.2	40.4
	Agree	160	43.4	43.4	83.7
	Strongly Agree	60	16.3	16.3	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities.**

Table 23		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	29	7.9	7.9	7.9
	Disagree	78	21.1	21.1	29.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	120	32.5	32.5	61.5
	Agree	112	30.4	30.4	91.9
	Strongly Agree	30	8.1	8.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.**

Table 24		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	35	9.5	9.5	9.5
	Disagree	71	19.2	19.2	28.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	104	28.2	28.2	56.9
	Agree	125	33.9	33.9	90.8
	Strongly Agree	34	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities.**

Table 25		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	44	11.9	11.9	11.9
	Disagree	80	21.7	21.7	33.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	121	32.8	32.8	66.4
	Agree	93	25.2	25.2	91.6
	Strongly Agree	31	8.4	8.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate.**

Table 26		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	45	12.2	12.2	12.2
	Disagree	93	25.2	25.2	37.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	107	29.0	29.0	66.4
	Agree	95	25.7	25.7	92.1
	Strongly Agree	29	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.**

Table 27		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	16	4.3	4.3	4.3
	Disagree	63	17.1	17.1	21.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	120	32.5	32.5	53.9
	Agree	128	34.7	34.7	88.6
	Strongly Agree	42	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for the disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.**

Table 28		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	33	8.9	8.9	8.9
	Disagree	92	24.9	24.9	33.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	122	33.1	33.1	66.9
	Agree	98	26.6	26.6	93.5
	Strongly Agree	24	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication of deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.**

Table 29		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	37	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Disagree	80	21.7	21.7	31.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	105	28.5	28.5	60.2
	Agree	119	32.2	32.2	92.4
	Strongly Agree	28	7.6	7.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Nigerian Telecommunication companies get involved in academic and education programmes.**

Table 30		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	46	12.5	12.5	16.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	69	18.7	18.7	34.7
	Agree	171	46.3	46.3	81.0
	Strongly Agree	70	19.0	19.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level.**

Table 31		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	25	6.8	6.8	6.8
	Disagree	73	19.8	19.8	26.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	85	23.0	23.0	49.6
	Agree	157	42.5	42.5	92.1
	Strongly Agree	29	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories.**

Table 32		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	21	5.7	5.7	5.7
	Disagree	74	20.1	20.1	25.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	102	27.6	27.6	53.4
	Agree	129	35.0	35.0	88.3
	Strongly Agree	43	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies provide scholarships to indigent and brilliant students in the formal school system.**

Table 33		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	15	4.1	4.1	4.1
	Disagree	50	13.6	13.6	17.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	95	25.7	25.7	43.4
	Agree	163	44.2	44.2	87.5
	Strongly Agree	46	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies support women empowerment and widow issues.**

Table 34		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	32	8.7	8.7	8.7
	Disagree	82	22.2	22.2	30.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	139	37.7	37.7	68.6
	Agree	89	24.1	24.1	92.7
	Strongly Agree	27	7.3	7.3	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.**

Table 35		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	19	5.1	5.1	8.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	66	17.9	17.9	26.3
	Agree	185	50.1	50.1	76.4
	Strongly Agree	87	23.6	23.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government.**

Table 36		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	43	11.7	11.7	15.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	136	36.9	36.9	52.0
	Agree	117	31.7	31.7	83.7
	Strongly Agree	60	16.3	16.3	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR participation of telecommunication companies promotes the strategic business interest of long run profitability.**

Table 37		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	1.1	1.1	1.1
	Disagree	34	9.2	9.2	10.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	84	22.8	22.8	33.1
	Agree	182	49.3	49.3	82.4
	Strongly Agree	65	17.6	17.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The CSR programmes boost corporate reputation of these companies in the eyes of government and the public.**

Table 38		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Disagree	17	4.6	4.6	6.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	74	20.1	20.1	26.3
	Agree	190	51.5	51.5	77.8
	Strongly Agree	82	22.2	22.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners.**

Table 39		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	39	10.6	10.6	13.8
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	101	27.4	27.4	41.2
	Agree	177	48.0	48.0	89.2
	Strongly Agree	40	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The CSR programmes are adopted for the benefits of revenues and costs optimisation.**

Table 40		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Disagree	38	10.3	10.3	12.5
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	104	28.2	28.2	40.7
	Agree	160	43.4	43.4	84.0
	Strongly Agree	59	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.**

Table 41		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Disagree	21	5.7	5.7	7.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	69	18.7	18.7	26.0
	Agree	191	51.8	51.8	77.8
	Strongly Agree	82	22.2	22.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	



**Telecommunication companies in Nigeria have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement.**

Table 42		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	27	7.3	7.3	7.3
	Disagree	44	11.9	11.9	19.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	124	33.6	33.6	52.8
	Agree	127	34.4	34.4	87.3
	Strongly Agree	47	12.7	12.7	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The most valuable stakeholders to these companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors.**

Table 43		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	15	4.1	4.1	4.1
	Disagree	50	13.6	13.6	17.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	100	27.1	27.1	44.7
	Agree	154	41.7	41.7	86.4
	Strongly Agree	50	13.6	13.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.**

Table 44		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	42	11.4	11.4	14.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	108	29.3	29.3	44.2
	Agree	152	41.2	41.2	85.4
	Strongly Agree	54	14.6	14.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The stakeholder engagement of these companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders.**

Table 45		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	17	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	47	12.7	12.7	17.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	120	32.5	32.5	49.9
	Agree	148	40.1	40.1	90.0
	Strongly Agree	37	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.**

Table 46		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	35	9.5	9.5	9.5
	Disagree	94	25.5	25.5	35.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	122	33.1	33.1	68.0
	Agree	92	24.9	24.9	93.0
	Strongly Agree	26	7.0	7.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR programmes and projects are provided based on outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community.**

Table 47		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	23	6.2	6.2	6.2
	Disagree	69	18.7	18.7	24.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	133	36.0	36.0	61.0
	Agree	122	33.1	33.1	94.0
	Strongly Agree	22	6.0	6.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.**

Table 48		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Disagree	24	6.5	6.5	8.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	88	23.8	23.8	32.5
	Agree	190	51.5	51.5	84.0
	Strongly Agree	59	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Which of the following is the most strategic business interest of Nigerian telecommunication in CSR?**

Table 49		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To improve relations with customers, employees, business partners and host communities.	211	57.2	57.2
	To improve economic performance of long-term profitability	35	9.5	66.7
	To bow to pressure from external stakeholders	30	8.1	74.8
	To avail of public incentives of tax reduction/exemptions	32	8.7	83.5
	To reduce the negative impact of business operations on the environment	9	2.4	85.9
	To give something back to the society on ethical and moral grounds	52	14.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	

**Which is the dominant CSR activity in Nigeria?**

Table 50		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sports & Entertainment/Showbiz	255	69.1	69.1
	Environmental protection programmes	22	6.0	75.1
	Education & Training Interventions	35	9.5	84.6
	Welfare services to clinic & special homes	10	2.7	87.3
	Entrepreneurship & Small Business Promotion	39	10.6	97.8
	Infrastructural Development in communities	8	2.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	

**Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?**

Table 51		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Philanthropic mode	100	27.1	27.1	27.1
	Economic mode	153	41.5	41.5	68.6
	Compensatory mode	62	16.8	16.8	85.4
	Corporate Citizenship mode	54	14.6	14.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**What is the common mode(s) adopted by these companies for reporting its CSR activities?**

Table 52		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Advertisement/Promotional campaigns	205	55.6	55.6	55.6
	Annual reports	42	11.4	11.4	66.9
	Media/Press Briefings	77	20.9	20.9	87.8
	Publications on websites	18	4.9	4.9	92.7
	Words of mouth	9	2.4	2.4	95.1
	CSR reports	11	3.0	3.0	98.1
	E mail/ Postal letter	7	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Which of the following is the most valuable stakeholder group of the telecommunication companies in Nigeria?**

Table 53		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Shareholders/Owners	90	24.4	24.4
	Wholesalers/Distributors	20	5.4	29.8
	Professional Associations	3	.8	30.6
	Industry Experts/Consultants	3	.8	31.4
	Customers	100	27.1	58.5
	Regulatory Agencies	66	17.9	76.4
	Bank/Financial Institutions	10	2.7	79.1
	Human Rights/Civil Society Organisations	10	2.7	81.8
	Employees/Employee Unions	6	1.6	83.5
	Host Communities	21	5.7	89.2
	Media Organisations	24	6.5	95.7
	Competitors/Rival Companies	16	4.3	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	

**Future CSR could be target at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.**

Table 54		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.3	.3	.3
	Disagree	12	3.3	3.3	3.5
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	47	12.7	12.7	16.3
	Agree	134	36.3	36.3	52.6
	Strongly Agree	175	47.4	47.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training.**

Table 55		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	1.1	1.1	1.1
	Disagree	11	3.0	3.0	4.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	40	10.8	10.8	14.9
	Agree	151	40.9	40.9	55.8
	Strongly Agree	163	44.2	44.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.**

Table 56		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	.8	.8	.8
	Disagree	18	4.9	4.9	5.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	62	16.8	16.8	22.5
	Agree	133	36.0	36.0	58.5
	Strongly Agree	153	41.5	41.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.**

Table 57		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Disagree	29	7.9	7.9	9.5
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	68	18.4	18.4	27.9
	Agree	126	34.1	34.1	62.1
	Strongly Agree	140	37.9	37.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.**

Table 58		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	18	4.9	4.9	4.9
	Disagree	32	8.7	8.7	13.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	79	21.4	21.4	35.0
	Agree	130	35.2	35.2	70.2
	Strongly Agree	110	29.8	29.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Entrepreneurship is a process of creating job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.**

Table 59		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	48	13.0	13.0	13.0
	Disagree	65	17.6	17.6	30.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	55	14.9	14.9	45.5
	Agree	104	28.2	28.2	73.7
	Strongly Agree	97	26.3	26.3	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Entrepreneurship occurs when individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create personal and fully owned business**

Table 60		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	26	7.0	7.0	7.0
	Disagree	57	15.4	15.4	22.5
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	54	14.6	14.6	37.1
	Agree	148	40.1	40.1	77.2
	Strongly Agree	84	22.8	22.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.**

Table 61		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	16	4.3	4.3	4.3
	Disagree	41	11.1	11.1	15.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	57	15.4	15.4	30.9
	Agree	164	44.4	44.4	75.3
	Strongly Agree	91	24.7	24.7	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.**

Table 62		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	1.1	1.1	1.1
	Disagree	13	3.5	3.5	4.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	38	10.3	10.3	14.9
	Agree	167	45.3	45.3	60.2
	Strongly Agree	147	39.8	39.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.**

Table 63		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Disagree	20	5.4	5.4	6.8
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	34	9.2	9.2	16.0
	Agree	155	42.0	42.0	58.0
	Strongly Agree	155	42.0	42.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Most telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors.**

Table 64		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	1.1	1.1	1.1
	Disagree	19	5.1	5.1	6.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	64	17.3	17.3	23.6
	Agree	188	50.9	50.9	74.5
	Strongly Agree	94	25.5	25.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions.**

Table 65		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Disagree	24	6.5	6.5	7.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	92	24.9	24.9	32.8
	Agree	190	51.5	51.5	84.3
	Strongly Agree	58	15.7	15.7	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave novel ways.**

Table 66		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Disagree	52	14.1	14.1	17.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	123	33.3	33.3	50.4
	Agree	149	40.4	40.4	90.8
	Strongly Agree	34	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The companies provide supports for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.**

Table 67		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Disagree	43	11.7	11.7	13.8
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	94	25.5	25.5	39.3
	Agree	181	49.1	49.1	88.3
	Strongly Agree	43	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Dominant telecommunication companies in Nigeria favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations.**

Table 68		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	24	6.5	6.5	6.5
	Disagree	53	14.4	14.4	20.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	103	27.9	27.9	48.8
	Agree	130	35.2	35.2	84.0
	Strongly Agree	59	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities**

Table 69		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Disagree	47	12.7	12.7	14.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	100	27.1	27.1	41.2
	Agree	176	47.7	47.7	88.9
	Strongly Agree	41	11.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**These companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market.**

Table 70		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	21	5.7	5.7	5.7
	Disagree	76	20.6	20.6	26.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	81	22.0	22.0	48.2
	Agree	148	40.1	40.1	88.3
	Strongly Agree	43	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.**

Table 71		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	25	6.8	6.8	6.8
	Disagree	73	19.8	19.8	26.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	113	30.6	30.6	57.2
	Agree	122	33.1	33.1	90.2
	Strongly Agree	36	9.8	9.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets.**

Table 72		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Disagree	37	10.0	10.0	12.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	111	30.1	30.1	42.3
	Agree	168	45.5	45.5	87.8
	Strongly Agree	45	12.2	12.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base.**

Table 73		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	1.9	1.9	1.9
	Disagree	63	17.1	17.1	19.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	126	34.1	34.1	53.1
	Agree	150	40.7	40.7	93.8
	Strongly Agree	23	6.2	6.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**The companies support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence.**

Table 74		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	18	4.9	4.9	4.9
	Disagree	60	16.3	16.3	21.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	126	34.1	34.1	55.3
	Agree	130	35.2	35.2	90.5
	Strongly Agree	35	9.5	9.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills.**

Table 75		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	15	4.1	4.1	4.1
	Disagree	75	20.3	20.3	24.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	144	39.0	39.0	63.4
	Agree	100	27.1	27.1	90.5
	Strongly Agree	35	9.5	9.5	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies provide support for host community to elicit their collaboration for business of peace.**

Table 76		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	17	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	68	18.4	18.4	23.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	119	32.2	32.2	55.3
	Agree	137	37.1	37.1	92.4
	Strongly Agree	28	7.6	7.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Trainings and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.**

Table 77		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	17	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	64	17.3	17.3	22.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	130	35.2	35.2	57.2
	Agree	127	34.4	34.4	91.6
	Strongly Agree	31	8.4	8.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile.**

Table 78		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	23	6.2	6.2	6.2
	Disagree	43	11.7	11.7	17.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	118	32.0	32.0	49.9
	Agree	143	38.8	38.8	88.6
	Strongly Agree	42	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society.**

Table 79		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	19	5.1	5.1	5.1
	Disagree	74	20.1	20.1	25.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	96	26.0	26.0	51.2
	Agree	151	40.9	40.9	92.1
	Strongly Agree	29	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.**

Table 80		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	37	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Disagree	91	24.7	24.7	34.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	104	28.2	28.2	62.9
	Agree	106	28.7	28.7	91.6
	Strongly Agree	31	8.4	8.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impact on entrepreneurship development.**

Table 81		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	24	6.5	6.5	6.5
	Disagree	66	17.9	17.9	24.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	112	30.4	30.4	54.7
	Agree	126	34.1	34.1	88.9
	Strongly Agree	41	11.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development.**

Table 82		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	31	8.4	8.4	8.4
	Disagree	67	18.2	18.2	26.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	116	31.4	31.4	58.0
	Agree	115	31.2	31.2	89.2
	Strongly Agree	40	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**They support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication.**

Table 83		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	25	6.8	6.8	6.8
	Disagree	82	22.2	22.2	29.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	96	26.0	26.0	55.0
	Agree	149	40.4	40.4	95.4
	Strongly Agree	17	4.6	4.6	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.**

Table 84		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	14	3.8	3.8	3.8
	Disagree	63	17.1	17.1	20.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	148	40.1	40.1	61.0
	Agree	115	31.2	31.2	92.1
	Strongly Agree	29	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community.**

Table 85		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	25	6.8	6.8	6.8
	Disagree	71	19.2	19.2	26.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	97	26.3	26.3	52.3
	Agree	134	36.3	36.3	88.6
	Strongly Agree	42	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

**Telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society.**

Table 86		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	20	5.4	5.4	5.4
	Disagree	62	16.8	16.8	22.2
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	114	30.9	30.9	53.1
	Agree	139	37.7	37.7	90.8
	Strongly Agree	34	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	



**Most telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.**

Table 87		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	24	6.5	6.5	6.5
	Disagree	78	21.1	21.1	27.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	114	30.9	30.9	58.5
	Agree	124	33.6	33.6	92.1
	Strongly Agree	29	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	369	100.0	100.0	

## APPENDIX VI: Descriptive Statistics of CSR & Entrepreneurship Scales

**Descriptive Statistics of Meaning of CSR in the Telecom Industry**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	369	1	5	4.22	.882
CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government	369	1	5	3.87	1.064
CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.	369	1	5	3.07	1.228
CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.	369	1	5	3.57	1.064
CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.	369	1	5	3.61	1.133
CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.	369	1	5	3.57	1.128
Valid N (listwise)	369				

**Descriptive Statistics of CSR as Environmental Issues**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Telecommunication companies have environmental management policy on waste reduction and control.	369	1	5	3.00	1.178
These companies monitor the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations.	369	1	5	2.57	1.200
They are proactive in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products.	369	1	5	2.40	1.228
Telecommunication companies ensure clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes.	369	1	5	2.24	1.230
Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations.	369	1	5	2.85	1.227
Telecommunication companies consider environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services	369	1	5	2.69	1.157
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of CSR as Community and National Issues

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities.	369	1	5	3.57	1.003
They involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities.	369	1	5	3.10	1.071
They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.	369	1	5	3.14	1.124
The companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities.	369	1	5	2.96	1.133
They have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate	369	1	5	2.92	1.144
They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.	369	1	5	3.32	1.024
The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for the disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.	369	1	5	2.97	1.065
The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication of deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.	369	1	5	3.06	1.115
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of CSR as Social Issues

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Nigerian Telecommunication companies get involved in academic and education programmes.	369	1	5	3.65	1.035
They facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level.	369	1	5	3.25	1.072
They support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories.	369	1	5	3.27	1.084
Telecommunication companies provide scholarships to indigent and brilliant students in the formal school system.	369	1	5	3.47	1.008
Telecommunication companies support women empowerment and widow issues.	369	1	5	2.99	1.052
Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.	369	1	5	3.86	.946
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of CSR as Economic Issues

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government.	369	1	5	3.46	1.010
CSR participation of telecommunication companies promotes the strategic business interest of long run profitability.	369	1	5	3.73	.894
The CSR programmes boost corporate reputation of these companies in the eyes of government and the public.	369	1	5	3.88	.861
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners.	369	1	5	3.53	.935
The CSR programmes are adopted for the benefits of revenues and costs optimisation.	369	1	5	3.61	.947
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.	369	1	5	3.87	.877
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of CSR and Stakeholder Engagement

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Telecommunication companies in Nigeria have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement.	369	1	5	3.33	1.076
The most valuable stakeholders to these companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors.	369	1	5	3.47	1.019
Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.	369	1	5	3.52	.992
The stakeholder engagement of these companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders.	369	1	5	3.38	.985
The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.	369	1	5	2.95	1.080
CSR programmes and projects are provided based on outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community.	369	1	5	3.14	.994
The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.	369	1	5	3.73	.884
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of Future Potentials of CSR

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Future CSR could be target at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.	369	1	5	4.27	.826
In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training.	369	1	5	4.24	.843
Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.	369	1	5	4.12	.915
CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.	369	1	5	3.99	1.013
CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.	369	1	5	3.76	1.116
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of Operational Meaning of Entrepreneurship

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Entrepreneurship is a process of creating job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.	369	1	5	3.37	1.377
Entrepreneurship occurs when individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create personal and fully owned business	369	1	5	3.56	1.199
Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.	369	1	5	3.74	1.082
Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.	369	1	5	4.19	.839
Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.	369	1	5	4.18	.906
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of Entrepreneurial Innovativeness

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Most telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors.	369	1	5	3.95	.855
The companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions.	369	1	5	3.74	.849
They encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave novel ways.	369	1	5	3.39	.941
The companies provide supports for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.	369	1	5	3.56	.919
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics Entrepreneurial Proactiveness

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Dominant telecommunication companies in Nigeria favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations.	369	1	5	3.40	1.114
The companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities	369	1	5	3.54	.899
These companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market.	369	1	5	3.31	1.098
The companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.	369	1	5	3.19	1.075
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics Entrepreneurial Autonomy & Skills Development

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets.	369	1	5	3.56	.908
The companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base.	369	1	5	3.32	.895
The companies support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence.	369	1	5	3.28	1.006
Support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills.	369	1	5	3.18	.994
Telecommunication companies provide support for host community to elicit their collaboration for business of peace.	369	1	5	3.25	.993
Trainings and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.	369	1	5	3.25	.990
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of Altruism

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile.	369	1	5	3.37	1.035
Telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society.	369	1	5	3.26	1.031
Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.	369	1	5	3.01	1.129
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of Shared Vision

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impact on entrepreneurship development.	369	1	5	3.25	1.079
Most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development.	369	1	5	3.18	1.111
They support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication.	369	1	5	3.14	1.032
Telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.	369	1	5	3.22	.950
Valid N (listwise)	369				

### Descriptive Statistics of Socialisation

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community.	369	1	5	3.26	1.103
Telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society.	369	1	5	3.28	1.026
Most telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.	369	1	5	3.15	1.050
Valid N (listwise)	369				

## Appendix VII: Reliability Test of the Pilot Questionnaire Instrument

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	21	77.8
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	6	22.2
	Total	27	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.946	87

**ANOVA with Cochran's Test**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		365.482	20	18.274	690.257	.000
	Between Items	1059.394	86	12.319		
Within People	Residual	1712.423	1720	.996		
	Total	2771.816	1806	1.535		
Total		3137.298	1826	1.718		

Grand Mean = 3.22

For the pilot, a total of 27 participants were used. They were given the initial hard copy questionnaire to complete and return with a week. The whole pilot exercise took a month (March 1- 30, 2014).



## Appendix VIII: Reliability Test of the Final Questionnaire Instrument

<b>Reliability Statistics of CSRE Instrument</b>		
<b>Case Processing Summary</b>		
	N	%
Valid	369	100.0
Cases Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
Total	369	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.926	87

<b>ANOVA with Cochran's Test</b>						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		5546.167	368	15.071	8052.652	.000
	Between Items	12050.846	86	140.126		
Within People	Residual	35439.291	31648	1.120		
	Total	47490.138	31734	1.497		
Total		53036.304	32102	1.652		

Grand Mean = 3.30

### Reliability Analysis of Meaning of CSR Scale

<b>Case Processing Summary</b>		
	N	%
Valid	369	100.0
Cases Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
Total	369	100.0

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.682	.670	6

<b>ANOVA with Cochran's Test</b>						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		1009.478	368	2.743	265.460	.000
	Between Items	269.825	5	53.965		
Within People	Residual	1605.509	1840	.873		
	Total	1875.333	1845	1.016		
Total		2884.811	2213	1.304		

Grand Mean = 3.65

## Reliability Analysis of Environmental Issue Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.887	.887	6

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		2043.844	368	5.554	205.716	.000
	Between Items	145.061	5	29.012		
Within People	Residual	1155.939	1840	.628		
	Total	1301.000	1845	.705		
Total		3344.844	2213	1.511		

## Reliability Analysis of Community & National Issue Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.885	.885	8

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		1922.934	368	5.225	192.105	.000
	Between Items	124.528	7	17.790		
Within People	Residual	1549.847	2576	.602		
	Total	1674.375	2583	.648		
Total		3597.309	2951	1.219		

Grand Mean = 3.13

## Reliability Analysis of Social Issue Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.844	.842	6

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		1327.699	368	3.608	270.413	.000
	Between Items	177.295	5	35.459		
Within People	Residual	1032.371	1840	.561		
	Total	1209.667	1845	.656		
Total		2537.366	2213	1.147		

Grand Mean = 3.41

## Reliability Analysis of Economic Issue Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.735	.739	6

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		807.837	368	2.195	96.310	.000
	Between Items	58.925	5	11.785		
Within People	Residual	1069.908	1840	.581		
	Total	1128.833	1845	.612		
Total		1936.671	2213	.875		

Grand Mean = 3.68

## Reliability Analysis of Stakeholder Engagement Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.721	.716	7

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		975.448	368	2.651	181.217	.000
	Between Items	145.484	6	24.247		
Within People	Residual	1631.945	2208	.739		
	Total	1777.429	2214	.803		
Total		2752.877	2582	1.066		

Grand Mean = 3.36

## Reliability Analysis of Future Potentials of CSR Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.798	.808	5

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		917.604	368	2.493	117.502	.000
	Between Items	64.005	4	16.001		
Within People	Residual	739.995	1472	.503		
	Total	804.000	1476	.545		
Total		1721.604	1844	.934		

Grand Mean = 4.08

## Reliability Analysis of Meaning of Entrepreneurship Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.619	.619	5

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		879.861	368	2.391	191.632	.000
	Between Items	199.889	4	49.972		
Within People	Residual	1339.711	1472	.910		
	Total	1539.600	1476	1.043		
Total		2419.461	1844	1.312		

Grand Mean = 3.81

## Reliability Analysis of Entrepreneurial Innovativeness Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.712	.714	4

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		628.402	368	1.708	115.452	.000
	Between Items	63.149	3	21.050		
Within People	Residual	542.351	1104	.491		
	Total	605.500	1107	.547		
Total		1233.902	1475	.837		

Grand Mean = 3.66

## Reliability Analysis of Entrepreneurial Proactiveness Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.724	.729	4

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		888.331	368	2.414	35.390	.000
	Between Items	24.257	3	8.086		
Within People	Residual	734.493	1104	.665		
	Total	758.750	1107	.685		
Total		1647.081	1475	1.117		

Grand Mean = 3.36

## Reliability Analysis of Entrepreneurial Autonomy & Skills Development Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.852	.852	6

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		1182.707	368	3.214	65.370	.000
	Between Items	32.118	5	6.424		
Within People	Residual	874.382	1840	.475		
	Total	906.500	1845	.491		
Total		2089.207	2213	.944		

Grand Mean = 3.30

## Reliability Analysis of Altruism Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.821	.821	3

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		923.498	368	2.510	53.623	.000
	Between Items	25.964	2	12.982		
Within People	Residual	331.369	736	.450		
	Total	357.333	738	.484		
Total		1280.831	1106	1.158		

Grand Mean = 3.21

## Reliability Analysis of Shared Vision Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.830	.830	4

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		1064.087	368	2.892	5.809	.121
	Between Items	2.858	3	.953		
Within People	Residual	541.892	1104	.491		
	Total	544.750	1107	.492		
Total		1608.837	1475	1.091		

Grand Mean = 3.20

## Reliability Analysis of Socialisation Scale

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	369	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	369	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.754	.756	3

### ANOVA with Cochran's Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Cochran's Q	Sig
Between People		831.203	368	2.259	6.698	.035
	Between Items	3.745	2	1.873		
Within People	Residual	408.921	736	.556		
	Total	412.667	738	.559		
Total		1243.870	1106	1.125		

Grand Mean = 3.23



## Appendix IX: Factor Analysis of CSR & Entrepreneurship Scales

### Factor Analysis: Meaning of CSR Scale

#### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.741
Approx. Chi-Square	336.083
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df
Sig.	.000

#### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

Meaning of CSR	Factor	
	1	2
CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	.238	-.300
CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government	.503	-.165
CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.	.630	.245
CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.	.506	-.148
CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.	.570	.235
CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.	.656	.285

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 18 iterations required.

### Factor Analysis: Environmental Management Issue Scale

#### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.881
Approx. Chi-Square	1131.570
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df
Sig.	.000

#### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Telecommunication companies have environmental management policy on waste reduction and control.	.646	-.292
These companies monitor the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations.	.780	-.221
They are proactive in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products.	.792	-.041
Telecommunication companies ensure clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes.	.811	.135
Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations.	.727	.260
Telecommunication companies consider environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services	.796	.175

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 15 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Community and National Issues Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.911
Approx. Chi-Square		1284.787
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	28
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities.	.654	-.259
They involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities.	.708	-.097
They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.	.779	-.130
The companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities.	.674	.237
They have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate	.718	.488
They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.	.738	.070
The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for the disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.	.702	.053
The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication of deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.	.676	-.235

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 19 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Social Issues Scale

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.822
Approx. Chi-Square		933.790
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	15
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Nigerian Telecommunication companies get involved in academic and education programmes.	.739	.033
They facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level.	.843	.415
They support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories.	.741	.204
Telecommunication companies provide scholarships to indigent and brilliant students in the formal school system.	.784	-.233
Telecommunication companies support women empowerment and widow issues.	.635	.016
Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.	.434	-.271

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

2 factors extracted. 13 iterations required.

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring

## Factor Analysis: Economic Issues

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.783
Approx. Chi-Square		426.673
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	15
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government.	.482	-.193
CSR participation of telecommunication companies promotes the strategic business interest of long run profitability.	.753	.090
The CSR programmes boost corporate reputation of these companies in the eyes of government and the public.	.680	.370
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners.	.437	.176
The CSR programmes are adopted for the benefits of revenues and costs optimisation.	.581	-.304
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.	.532	-.070

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 18 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Stakeholder Engagement Scale

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.765
Approx. Chi-Square		522.323
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	21
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Telecommunication companies in Nigeria have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement.	.514	.228
The most valuable stakeholders to these companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors.	.611	-.263
Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.	.287	-.167
The stakeholder engagement of these companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders.	.665	.205
The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.	.672	.200
CSR programmes and projects are provided based on outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community.	.677	.303
The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.	.260	-.266

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 7 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Future Potentials of CSR Scale

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.811
Approx. Chi-Square		576.782
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	10
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Future CSR could be target at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.	.721	.239
In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training.	.717	.333
Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.	.738	-.062
CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.	.699	-.084
CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.	.570	-.419

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. Attempted to extract 2 factors. More than 25 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Meaning of Entrepreneurship

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.640
Approx. Chi-Square		293.485
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	10
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Entrepreneurship is a process of creating job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.	.506	-.536
Entrepreneurship occurs when individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create personal and fully owned business	.671	-.264
Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.	.592	-.082
Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.	.428	.522
Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.	.479	.376

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 20 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Entrepreneurship Innovativeness

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.685
Approx. Chi-Square		288.752
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	6
Sig.		.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Most telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors.	.669	.375
The companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions.	.651	.220
They encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave novel ways.	.632	-.212
The companies provide supports for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.	.619	-.348

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. Attempted to extract 2 factors. More than 25 iterations required. (Convergence=.006). Extraction was terminated.

## Factor Analysis: Entrepreneurship Proactiveness Scale

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.723
Approx. Chi-Square		307.934
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	6
Sig.		.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Dominant telecommunication companies in Nigeria favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations.	.519	-.207
The companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities	.675	-.218
These companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market.	.752	.241
The companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.	.650	.260

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 9 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Entrepreneurial Autonomy & Skill Development Scale

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.857
Approx. Chi-Square		847.308
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	15
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets.	.680	.350
The companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base.	.725	.358
The companies support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence.	.754	-.073
Support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills.	.688	-.184
Telecommunication companies provide support for host community to elicit their collaboration for business of peace.	.682	-.156
Trainings and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.	.720	-.186

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 9 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Altruism

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.705
Approx. Chi-Square		405.576
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	3
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile.	.703	-.143
Telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society.	.833	.043
Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.	.811	.119

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 7 iterations required.

## Factor Analysis: Shared Vision

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.801
Approx. Chi-Square		542.841
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	6
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impact on entrepreneurship development.	.760	.276
Most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development.	.786	.052
They support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication.	.785	-.052
Telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.	.667	-.243

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. Attempted to extract 2 factors. More than 25 iterations required..

## Factor Analysis: Socialisation

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.673
Approx. Chi-Square		279.354
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	3
	Sig.	.000

### Factor Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor	
	1	2
Telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community.	.611	-.147
Telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society.	.782	.058
Most telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.	.764	.120

Extraction Method: Alpha Factoring.<sup>a</sup>

a. 2 factors extracted. 7 iterations required.

## Appendix X: Inferential Statistics

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Meaning of CSR

Meaning of CSR	Mean Rank
CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	4.35
CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government	3.81
CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.	2.64
CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.	3.28
CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.	3.53
CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.	3.38
N=369, Chi-Square=237.762, df=5, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Environmental Issues

Environmental Issues	Mean Rank
Telecommunication companies have environmental management policy on waste reduction and control.	4.16
These companies monitor the effluent (dangerous liquid chemicals) arising from the generating sets installed in residential locations.	3.40
They are proactive in the disposal of paper and polythene wastes arising from their recharge cards and packaging of other products.	3.06
Telecommunication companies ensure clean and green environment by recycling their recharge card wastes.	2.80
Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is considered by the telecommunication companies when installing their transmission masts and generating sets in residential locations.	3.91
Telecommunication companies consider environmental impact of wastes and pollutants when developing new products/services	3.68
N=369, Chi-Square=217.131, df=5, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Community & National Issues

Community & National Issues	Mean Rank
Telecommunication companies donate to charity bodies, clinics and schools in their host communities.	5.65
They involve their employees in volunteering works and projects in the host communities.	4.35
They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.	4.60
The companies have purchasing policies that favour local suppliers and small businesses in the host communities.	4.10
They have recruitment policies that favour the host communities where they operate	3.96
They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.	4.96
The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for the disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.	4.06
The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to support eradication of deadly diseases including malaria and HIV/AIDS.	4.32
N=369, Chi-Square=199.174, df=7, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	



### Friedman Test: Ranks of Social Issues

Social Issues	Mean Rank
Nigerian Telecommunication companies get involved in academic and education programmes.	4.01
They facilitate specialised education and training to increase society's literacy level.	3.17
They support educational projects like building classroom blocks, libraries, workshops and laboratories.	3.22
Telecommunication companies provide scholarships to indigent and brilliant students in the formal school system.	3.61
Telecommunication companies support women empowerment and widow issues.	2.68
Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development.	4.31
N=369, Chi-Square=291.064, df=5, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Economic Issues

Economic Issues	Mean Rank
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR with passion for the benefit of tax reduction or exemption from the government.	3.03
CSR participation of telecommunication companies promotes the strategic business interest of long run profitability.	3.59
The CSR programmes boost corporate reputation of these companies in the eyes of government and the public.	3.94
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR as a social investment for creating shared value with their suppliers and small business owners.	3.24
The CSR programmes are adopted for the benefits of revenues and costs optimisation.	3.32
Telecommunication companies adopt CSR to increase customer brand loyalty and market rating.	3.89
N=369, Chi-Square=111.087, df=5, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Stakeholder Engagement

Stakeholder Engagement	Mean Rank
Telecommunication companies in Nigeria have in place a mechanism for stakeholder engagement.	4.01
The most valuable stakeholders to these companies are shareholders, regulators, governments and investors.	4.30
Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.	4.29
The stakeholder engagement of these companies is a consensus-building process between the companies and their stakeholders.	4.03
The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.	3.13
CSR programmes and projects are provided based on outcome of engagement with the stakeholders as end-users in the host community.	3.54
The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.	4.71
N=369, Chi-Square=190.667, df=6, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Future Potentials of CSR

Future Potentials of CSR	Mean Rank
Future CSR could be target at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.	3.28
In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training.	3.21
Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.	3.06
CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.	2.88
CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.	2.57
N=369, Chi-Square=91.642, df=4, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Meaning of Entrepreneurship

Meaning of Entrepreneurship	Mean Rank
Entrepreneurship is a process of creating job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.	2.58
Entrepreneurship occurs when individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create personal and fully owned business	2.71
Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.	2.87
Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.	3.39
Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.	3.45
N=369, Chi-Square=140.660, df=4, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Entrepreneurship Innovativeness

Entrepreneurship Innovativeness	Mean Rank
Most telecommunication companies in Nigeria actively respond to the adoption of new ways of doing things and learning from competitors.	2.88
The companies are willing to try new ways of doing things and seek unusual, novel solutions.	2.59
They encourage small businesses working with them to think and behave novel ways.	2.15
The companies provide supports for their suppliers, distributors and retail outlets on novel ways of doing business for mutual benefits.	2.38
N=369, Chi-Square=107.824, df=3, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Entrepreneurship Proactiveness

Entrepreneurship Proactiveness	Mean Rank
Dominant telecommunication companies in Nigeria favour a strong emphasis on Research & Development, technological leadership, and innovations.	2.55
The companies market a large variety of new lines of products or services beneficial to consumers, small businesses and host communities	2.72
These companies promptly respond to customers' tastes and preference in the market.	2.44
The companies promptly respond to the constraints facing their suppliers and distributors for mutual benefits.	2.29
N=369, Chi-Square=34.198, df=3, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Entrepreneurship Autonomy & Skills Development

	Mean Rank
Nigerian telecommunication companies provide business support for their suppliers and retail outlets.	4.07
The companies provide intervention for suppliers and retail outlets for growth of their clients' revenue base.	3.54
The companies support the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) working with them for self-reliance and independence.	3.46
Support interventions are provided by the telecommunication companies to the small businesses for the purpose of building their technical skills.	3.20
Telecommunication companies provide support for host community to elicit their collaboration for business of peace.	3.40
Trainings and knowledge sharing are offered by telecommunication companies to small businesses and suppliers to boost their marketing and management skills.	3.32
N=369, Chi-Square=77.278, df=5, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Entrepreneurship Altruism

Entrepreneurship Altruism	Mean Rank
Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of doing something worthwhile.	2.18
Telecommunication companies stimulate entrepreneurship for the purpose of doing something useful for the society.	2.03
Telecommunication companies engage in entrepreneurial activities for the purpose of developing science and technology.	1.79
N=369, Chi-Square=54.841, df=2, Asymp. Sig.=0.000	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Shared Value

Shared Value	Mean Rank
Telecommunication companies have a commonality of purpose that impact on entrepreneurship development.	2.56
Most telecommunication companies support in theory national vision like millennium development goals (MDGs), Vision 20:2020 and Transformation Agenda targeted at entrepreneurship development.	2.47
They support in practice national vision targeted at poverty eradication.	2.45
Telecommunication companies reflect critically on the shared assumptions they have about their stakeholders.	2.51
N=369, Chi-Square=2.927, df=3, Asymp. Sig.=0.403	

a. Friedman Test

### Friedman Test: Ranks of Socialisation

Socialisation	Mean Rank
Telecommunication companies often adopt cooperative projects and programmes in their host community.	2.04
Telecommunication companies use apprentices and mentors to transfer knowledge as part of their entrepreneurship development programme in the society.	2.03
Most telecommunication companies adopt stakeholder engagements, dialogues and retreats to interact with their host community.	1.94
N=369, Chi-Square=3.983, df=2, Asymp. Sig.=0.136	

a. Friedman Test

## Chi-square Testing

Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms \* How would you describe your knowledge about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the Telecommunication industry?

Crosstabulation of J5 X A8

		How would you describe your knowledge about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the Telecommunication industry?				Total
		Extensive	High	Fair	Poor	
Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	2	0	5
	Disagree	1	12	5	2	20
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	7	16	8	3	34
	Agree	19	90	39	7	155
	Strongly Agree	14	94	37	10	155
Total		42	214	91	22	369

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.081 <sup>a</sup>	12	.779
Likelihood Ratio	7.970	12	.787
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.977
N of Valid Cases	369		

a. 9 cells (45.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .30.

[B1 X A7 - CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large. \* How would you describe your knowledge about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the Telecommunication industry?

**Crosstabulation B1 X A7**

		How would you describe your knowledge about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the Telecommunication industry?				
		Extensive	High	Fair	Poor	Total
CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	Strongly Disagree	1	0	2	1	4
	Disagree	6	8	3	0	17
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	5	24	5	2	36
	Agree	18	84	37	8	147
	Strongly Agree	12	98	44	11	165
<b>Total</b>		42	214	91	22	369

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.164 <sup>a</sup>	12	.036
Likelihood Ratio	21.609	12	.042
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.425	1	.035
N of Valid Cases	369		

a. 9 cells (45.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .24.

Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development. \* The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies

**Crosstabulation E6 X G7**

	The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Telecommunication companies provide sponsorship for different aspects of sports development	1	1	4	4	2	12
	0	6	5	6	2	19
	1	4	22	32	7	66
	4	10	38	108	25	185
	2	3	19	40	23	87
<b>Total</b>	8	24	88	190	59	369

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39.449 <sup>a</sup>	16	.001
Likelihood Ratio	29.607	16	.020
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.545	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	369		

a. 12 cells (48.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.

Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry? \* CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large].

**Crosstabulation H3 X B1**

		CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.					
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?	Philanthropic mode	2	4	15	36	43	100
	Economic mode	1	4	13	79	56	153
	Compensatory mode	1	7	6	16	32	62
	Corporate Citizenship mode	0	2	2	16	34	54
	Total	4	17	36	147	165	369

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31.571 <sup>a</sup>	12	.002
Likelihood Ratio	30.569	12	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.380	1	.036
N of Valid Cases	369		

a. 7 cells (35.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .59.

The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	8	73.8	-65.8
Disagree	24	73.8	-49.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	88	73.8	14.2
Agree	190	73.8	116.2
Strongly Agree	59	73.8	-14.8
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

The stakeholder engagement on CSR activities is driven by strategic business interests of the telecommunication companies.	
Chi-Square	280.932 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	35	73.8	-38.8
Disagree	94	73.8	20.2
Neither Agree nor Disagree	122	73.8	48.2
Agree	92	73.8	18.2
Strongly Agree	26	73.8	-47.8
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	The stakeholder engagement of the telecommunication companies is frequent, regular and known to all parties concerned.
Chi-Square	92.856 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	13	73.8	-60.8
Disagree	42	73.8	-31.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	108	73.8	34.2
Agree	152	73.8	78.2
Strongly Agree	54	73.8	-19.8
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.
Chi-Square	167.816 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

**They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	35	73.8	-38.8
Disagree	71	73.8	-2.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	104	73.8	30.2
Agree	125	73.8	51.2
Strongly Agree	34	73.8	-39.8
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	They support poverty reduction programmes in their host communities and the society at large.
Chi-Square	89.848 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	16	73.8	-57.8
Disagree	63	73.8	-10.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	120	73.8	46.2
Agree	128	73.8	54.2
Strongly Agree	42	73.8	-31.8
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	They support aspects of the millennium development goals (MDGs) like poverty, health and education for economic development.
Chi-Square	129.279 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for the disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	33	73.8	-40.8
Disagree	92	73.8	18.2
Neither Agree nor Disagree	122	73.8	48.2
Agree	98	73.8	24.2
Strongly Agree	24	73.8	-49.8
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	The telecommunication companies extend their CSR to provide amenities for the disadvantaged Nigerians in both rural and urban communities.
Chi-Square	100.065 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

Which type of telephone user are you? \* Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?

**Crosstabulation A6 X H3)**

		Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?				
		Philanthropic mode	Economic mode	Compensatory mode	Corporate Citizenship mode	Total
Which type of telephone user are you?	Self-employed business owner	11	20	7	12	50
	Student	34	58	14	12	118
	Unemployed person	3	5	0	1	9
	Private sector employee	23	38	22	19	102
	Public sector employee	29	32	19	10	90
Total		100	153	62	54	369

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.108 <sup>a</sup>	12	.112
Likelihood Ratio	19.270	12	.082
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.975
N of Valid Cases	369		

a. 4 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.32.

Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.

**Crosstabulation H3 X G3**

		Engagement with stakeholders is influenced by pressure from host communities, human rights groups and customers.					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Which is the prevalent CSR mode in the Nigerian telecommunication industry?	Philanthropic mode	6	15	25	39	15	100
	Economic mode	6	16	47	60	24	153
	Compensatory mode	0	8	19	27	8	62
	Corporate Citizenship mode	1	3	17	26	7	54
Total		13	42	108	152	54	369

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.622 <sup>a</sup>	12	.649
Likelihood Ratio	11.864	12	.457
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.968	1	.161
N of Valid Cases	369		

a. 3 cells (15.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.90.



Future CSR could be target at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions (One tail Test Question I1)

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	1	73.8	-72.8
Disagree	12	73.8	-61.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	47	73.8	-26.8
Agree	134	73.8	60.2
Strongly Agree	175	73.8	101.2
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	Future CSR could be target at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.
Chi-Square	321.176 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training (One tail Test of Question I2).

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	4	73.8	-69.8
Disagree	11	73.8	-62.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	40	73.8	-33.8
Agree	151	73.8	77.2
Strongly Agree	163	73.8	89.2
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training.
Chi-Square	323.507 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria (One tail Test of Question I3).

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	3	73.8	-70.8
Disagree	18	73.8	-55.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	62	73.8	-11.8
Agree	133	73.8	59.2
Strongly Agree	153	73.8	79.2
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.
Chi-Square	244.482 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities (One tail Test of Question I4).

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	6	73.8	-67.8
Disagree	29	73.8	-44.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	68	73.8	-5.8
Agree	126	73.8	52.2
Strongly Agree	140	73.8	66.2
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.
Chi-Square	186.244 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	18	73.8	-55.8
Disagree	32	73.8	-41.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	79	73.8	5.2
Agree	130	73.8	56.2
Strongly Agree	110	73.8	36.2
Total	369		

**Chi-square Test**

	CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.
Chi-Square	126.786 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

	Future CSR could be target at funding entrepreneurship education in the primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.	In a bid to complement government's efforts, CSR funds could be used as start-up venture capital for unemployed graduates/trainees (as small business owners) after undergoing entrepreneurship training.	Future CSR could be used for building business clusters and technology business incubation centres for the benefit of small businesses in Nigeria.	CSR efforts of the telecommunication companies could be used for buying the needed equipment and tools for artisans, craftsmen and petty traders in disadvantaged host communities.	CSR programmes of telecommunication companies could be good instruments for political risk mitigation in hostile communities like Niger-Delta and Northern Nigeria.
Chi-Square	321.176 <sup>a</sup>	323.507 <sup>a</sup>	244.482 <sup>a</sup>	186.244 <sup>a</sup>	126.786 <sup>a</sup>
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

## Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	369	4.22	.882	1	5
CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government	369	3.87	1.064	1	5
CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.	369	3.07	1.228	1	5
CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.	369	3.57	1.064	1	5
CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.	369	3.61	1.133	1	5
CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.	369	3.57	1.128	1	5

## Chi-Square Test

**CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	4	73.8	-69.8
Disagree	17	73.8	-56.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	36	73.8	-37.8
Agree	147	73.8	73.2
Strongly Agree	165	73.8	91.2
Total	369		

**CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	18	73.8	-55.8
Disagree	26	73.8	-47.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	50	73.8	-23.8
Agree	168	73.8	94.2
Strongly Agree	107	73.8	33.2
Total	369		

**CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	52	73.8	-21.8
Disagree	70	73.8	-3.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	88	73.8	14.2
Agree	119	73.8	45.2
Strongly Agree	40	73.8	-33.8
Total	369		

**CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	21	73.8	-52.8
Disagree	40	73.8	-33.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	76	73.8	2.2
Agree	172	73.8	98.2
Strongly Agree	60	73.8	-13.8
Total	369		

**CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	26	73.8	-47.8
Disagree	36	73.8	-37.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	73	73.8	-.8
Agree	156	73.8	82.2
Strongly Agree	78	73.8	4.2
Total	369		

**CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	25	73.8	-48.8
Disagree	40	73.8	-33.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	77	73.8	3.2
Agree	153	73.8	79.2
Strongly Agree	74	73.8	.2
Total	369		

### Test Statistics

	CSR refers to a voluntary, ethical and moral obligations required of corporations as contributions to better the society at large.	CSR is a promotional strategy of corporations in the forms of charity, sports donations, education support and health intervention designed for improving customer attraction, brand loyalty and gaining tax reduction from government	CSR is a friendly HRM policy put in place by corporations for improving employee's motivation and their financial performance.	CSR is a deliberate commitment by corporations for reducing negative impact of their operations on the ecosystem/environment because of pressures from the host communities and human rights groups.	CSR is a strategic tool designed by corporations for improving relations with business partners, investors and suppliers and other stakeholders.
Chi-Square	314.401 <sup>a</sup>	216.000 <sup>a</sup>	52.531 <sup>a</sup>	186.569 <sup>a</sup>	142.125 <sup>a</sup>
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

**Test Statistics**

	CSR is a strategy for improving corporation's economic and social performance measured by sales, profitability and reputation.
Chi-Square	132.883 <sup>a</sup>
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

**Descriptive Statistics**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Entrepreneurship is a process of creating job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.	369	3.37	1.377	1	5
Entrepreneurship occurs when individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create personal and fully owned business	369	3.56	1.199	1	5
Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.	369	3.74	1.082	1	5
Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.	369	4.19	.839	1	5
Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.	369	4.18	.906	1	5

**Chi-Square Test**

**Entrepreneurship is a process of creating job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	48	73.8	-25.8
Disagree	65	73.8	-8.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	55	73.8	-18.8
Agree	104	73.8	30.2
Strongly Agree	97	73.8	23.2
Total	369		

**Entrepreneurship occurs when individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create personal and fully owned business**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	26	73.8	-47.8
Disagree	57	73.8	-16.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	54	73.8	-19.8
Agree	148	73.8	74.2
Strongly Agree	84	73.8	10.2
Total	369		

**Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	16	73.8	-57.8
Disagree	41	73.8	-32.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	57	73.8	-16.8
Agree	164	73.8	90.2
Strongly Agree	91	73.8	17.2
Total	369		

**Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	4	73.8	-69.8
Disagree	13	73.8	-60.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	38	73.8	-35.8
Agree	167	73.8	93.2
Strongly Agree	147	73.8	73.2
Total	369		

**Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.**

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Strongly Disagree	5	73.8	-68.8
Disagree	20	73.8	-53.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	34	73.8	-39.8
Agree	155	73.8	81.2
Strongly Agree	155	73.8	81.2
Total	369		

### Test Statistics

	Entrepreneurship is a process of creating job for oneself out of frustration of unemployment in the country.	Entrepreneurship occurs when individual consciously retires from other people's jobs and settles down to create personal and fully owned business	Entrepreneurship is the process of buying, selling and offering services for commercial benefits in order to make profit.	Entrepreneurship is any creative, innovative and enterprising human action in pursuit of opportunities through the creation of commercial activities.	Entrepreneurship is acquisition of vocational, professional, and small business education that provide an individual with adequate preparation skills for starting up new firms and growing old firms.
Chi-Square	34.509 <sup>a</sup>	116.108 <sup>a</sup>	177.924 <sup>a</sup>	323.778 <sup>a</sup>	303.507 <sup>a</sup>
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 73.8.

### Multiple Linear Regression Results

#### Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
MENT	19.04	3.458	369
ENVC	15.75	5.773	369
CNIC	25.04	6.466	369
SIC	16.63	4.216	369
SEC	23.52	4.308	369
EIC	15.09	2.604	369
Location of respondent	4.13	2.184	369
Sex	1.24	.428	369
Age	2.58	1.207	369
Marital Status	1.62	.524	369
Educational Qualifications	4.67	1.285	369

**Correlations**

		MENT	ENVC	CNIC	SIC	SEC	EIC
Pearson Correlation	MENT	1.000	.177	.201	.198	.352	.247
	ENVC	.177	1.000	.623	.448	.517	.132
	CNIC	.201	.623	1.000	.685	.551	.239
	SIC	.198	.448	.685	1.000	.479	.267
	SEC	.352	.517	.551	.479	1.000	.360
	EIC	.247	.132	.239	.267	.360	1.000
	Location of respondent in Lagos	-.021	-.179	-.090	-.014	-.114	-.005
	Sex	.057	.322	.258	.162	.209	.058
	Age	-.151	-.437	-.377	-.307	-.320	.008
	Marital Status	-.085	-.418	-.300	-.242	-.289	.070
	Educational Qualifications	-.166	-.375	-.275	-.149	-.265	.027
	MENT	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	ENVC	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.005
	CNIC	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
SIC	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
SEC	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
EIC	.000	.005	.000	.000	.000	.000	
Sig. (1-tailed)	Location of respondent in Lagos	.347	.000	.042	.394	.014	.462
	Sex	.137	.000	.000	.001	.000	.133
	Age	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.439
	Marital Status	.051	.000	.000	.000	.000	.091
	Educational Qualifications	.001	.000	.000	.002	.000	.303
	MENT	369	369	369	369	369	369
	ENVC	369	369	369	369	369	369
	CNIC	369	369	369	369	369	369
	SIC	369	369	369	369	369	369
	SEC	369	369	369	369	369	369
	EIC	369	369	369	369	369	369
	Location of respondent in Lagos	369	369	369	369	369	369
	Sex	369	369	369	369	369	369
	Age	369	369	369	369	369	369
Marital Status	369	369	369	369	369	369	
Educational Qualifications	369	369	369	369	369	369	

N



### Correlations

		Location of respondent in Lagos	Sex	Age	Marital Status	Educational Qualifications
Pearson Correlation	MENT	-.021	.057	-.151	-.085	-.166
	ENVC	-.179	.322	-.437	-.418	-.375
	CNIC	-.090	.258	-.377	-.300	-.275
	SIC	-.014	.162	-.307	-.242	-.149
	SEC	-.114	.209	-.320	-.289	-.265
	EIC	-.005	.058	.008	.070	.027
	Location of respondent in Lagos	1.000	-.216	.146	.209	.193
	Sex	-.216	1.000	-.340	-.254	-.210
	Age	.146	-.340	1.000	.768	.515
	Marital Status	.209	-.254	.768	1.000	.465
	Educational Qualifications	.193	-.210	.515	.465	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	MENT	.347	.137	.002	.051	.001
	ENVC	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	CNIC	.042	.000	.000	.000	.000
	SIC	.394	.001	.000	.000	.002
	SEC	.014	.000	.000	.000	.000
	EIC	.462	.133	.439	.091	.303
	Location of respondent in Lagos	.	.000	.002	.000	.000
	Sex	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	Age	.002	.000	.	.000	.000
	Marital Status	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	Educational Qualifications	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	MENT	369	369	369	369	369
	ENVC	369	369	369	369	369
	CNIC	369	369	369	369	369
	SIC	369	369	369	369	369
	SEC	369	369	369	369	369
	EIC	369	369	369	369	369
	Location of respondent in Lagos	369	369	369	369	369
	Sex	369	369	369	369	369
	Age	369	369	369	369	369
	Marital Status	369	369	369	369	369
	Educational Qualifications	369	369	369	369	369

### Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Change Statistics		Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.395 <sup>a</sup>	.156	.132	3.220	.156	6.620	10	358 <sup>a</sup>	.000	1.795

a. Predictors: (Constant), Educational Qualifications, EIC , Location of respondent in Lagos, Sex, SIC , Marital Status, SEC , ENVC, CNIC, Age

b. Dependent Variable: MENT

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	686.509	10	68.651	6.620	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	3712.797	358	10.371		
Total	4399.306	368			

a. Dependent Variable: MENT

b. Predictors: (Constant), Educational Qualifications, EIC , Location of respondent in Lagos, Sex, SIC , Marital Status, SEC , ENVC, CNIC, Age

**Coefficients**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	12.176	1.628		7.479	.000
ENVC	-.009	.041	-.016	-.230	.818
CNIC	-.018	.042	-.034	-.439	.661
SIC	.028	.056	.035	.502	.616
SEC	.230	.052	.286	4.435	.000
EIC	.191	.071	.144	2.680	.008
Location of respondent	.025	.081	.016	.314	.754
Sex	-.257	.433	-.032	-.593	.553
Age	-.290	.237	-.101	-1.227	.221
Marital Status	.621	.518	.094	1.199	.231
Educational Qualifications	-.283	.158	-.105	-1.790	.074

a. Dependent Variable: MENT

**Residuals Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	14.06	23.77	19.04	1.366	369
Residual	-9.891	7.257	.000	3.176	369
Std. Predicted Value	-3.650	3.459	.000	1.000	369
Std. Residual	-3.071	2.254	.000	.986	369

a. Dependent Variable: MENT

# Appendix XI: Output of the Structural Equation Modelling

## Group number 1 (Group number 1)

### Notes for Group (Group number 1)

The model is recursive.

Sample size = 369

### Variable Summary (Group number 1)

Observed, endogenous variables

GA1

FA1

EA1

DA1

CA1

Observed, exogenous variables

KA1

LA1

MA1

NA1

OA1

PA1

Unobserved, endogenous variables

CSR

Unobserved, exogenous variables

e11

e10

e9

e8

e7

### Variable counts (Group number 1)

Number of variables in your model: 17

Number of observed variables: 11

Number of unobserved variables: 6

Number of exogenous variables: 11

Number of endogenous variables: 6

### Parameter Summary (Group number 1)

	Weights	Covariances	Variances	Means	Intercepts	Total
Fixed	6	0	0	0	0	6
Labeled	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unlabeled	10	6	11	0	0	27
Total	16	6	11	0	0	33

### Result (Default model)

Chi-square = 292.312

Degrees of freedom = 39

Probability level = .000

General Least Square Estimates

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CSRE	<---	INC	-.072	.063	-1.147	.251
CSRE	<---	PRC	-.010	.049	-.213	.831
CSRE	<---	EADC	-.351	.089	-3.954	***
CSRE	<---	AC	-.234	.093	-2.515	.012
CSRE	<---	SVC	.112	.050	2.249	.025
CSRE	<---	SC	.127	.063	2.027	.043
SEC	<---	CSRE	1.000			
EIC	<---	CSRE	.570	.212	2.688	.007
SIC	<---	CSRE	1.441	.377	3.822	***
CNIC	<---	CSRE	2.175	.479	4.538	***
ENVC	<---	CSRE	.554	.305	1.815	.070

Covariances

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
PRC	<-->	EADC	.704	.300	2.351	.019	
EADC	<-->	AC	-.860	.286	-3.006	.003	
AC	<-->	SVC	.503	.234	2.148	.032	
SVC	<-->	SC	.752	.250	3.012	.003	
INC	<-->	PRC	.985	.273	3.610	***	
INC	<-->	SC	-.123	.177	-.694	.487	

CMIN (Chi-Square Test)

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	27	292.312	39	.000	7.495
Saturated model	66	.000	0		
Independence model	11	380.678	55	.000	6.921

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	9.766	.808	.674	.477
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	10.058	.749	.699	.625

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.232	-.083	.259	-.097	.222
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.133	.119	.147	.000
Independence model	.127	.115	.139	.000

**Notes for Group (Group number 1)**

The model is recursive.

Sample size = 369

**Variable Summary (Group number 1)**

Observed, endogenous variables

GM1

FM2

EM2

DM2

CM2

Observed, exogenous variables

MM2

LM1

NM2

OM2

PM2

KM1

Unobserved, endogenous variables

CSRE

Unobserved, exogenous variables

e11

e10

e9

e8

e7

**Variable counts (Group number 1)**

Number of variables in your model: 17

Number of observed variables: 11

Number of unobserved variables: 6

Number of exogenous variables: 11

Number of endogenous variables: 6

**Parameter Summary (Group number 1)**

	Weights	Covariances	Variances	Means	Intercepts	Total
Fixed	6	0	0	0	0	6
Labeled	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unlabeled	10	6	11	0	0	27
Total	16	6	11	0	0	33

### General Least Square Estimates

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CSRE	<---	INC3	.000	.026	.016	.987
CSRE	<---	PRC3	.000	.026	.016	.987
CSRE	<---	EADC3	.000	.019	.016	.987
CSRE	<---	AC3	.000	.007	-.016	.987
CSRE	<---	SVC3	-.001	.040	-.016	.987
CSRE	<---	SC3	.000	.017	.016	.987
SEC3	<---	CSRE	1.000			
EIC3	<---	CSRE	328.691	20105.862	.016	.987
CNIC3	<---	CSRE	-7.138	447.904	-.016	.987
ENVC3	<---	CSRE	-183.239	11223.832	-.016	.987

### Variance

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
INC3	.607	.046	13.092	***	
PRC3	.844	.068	12.418	***	
EADC3	.639	.052	12.374	***	
AC3	.488	.042	11.583	***	
SVC3	.581	.053	10.966	***	
SC3	.636	.052	12.287	***	
e11	.694	.054	12.737	***	
e10	.671	.050	13.327	***	
e9	.566	.050	11.315	***	
e8	.750	.062	12.045	***	
e7	2.803	.231	12.114	***	

### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	20	188.715	46	.000	4.103
Saturated model	66	.000	0		
Independence model	11	221.941	55	.000	4.035

### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.524	.907	.866	.632
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.527	.890	.868	.742

### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.150	-.017	.189	-.022	.145
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

### RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.092	.078	.106	.000
Independence model	.091	.079	.103	.000

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## Appendix XII: Publications & Declaration

Survey on the adequacy and effectiveness of regulations on corporate social responsibility and social reporting: Evidence from the Nigerian telecommunication industry

**Raimi L., Adeleke I. A., Aljadani A. and Fadipe A. O.**

*Net Journal of Business Management*

**Published:** August 25 2014

Volume 2, Issue 2

Pages 18-30

### **Abstract**

In Nigeria, corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a front burner issue among diverse stakeholders including the regulators. Despite the growing awareness about CSR, the compliance level and intensity of social reporting (SR) have been described as inadequate and ineffective. In order to affirm or refute these presumptions, this paper examines the adequacy and effectiveness of extant regulations on CRS and SR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. The paper employs the quantitative research method. The required data were sourced by questionnaire instrument from a sample size of 384 respondents in selected locations in Lagos using a purposive sampling technique. The generated data were analysed using descriptive and Friedman Rank Statistics. The findings from this study indicate that Nigeria has enough laws on CSR and SR, as well as adequate regulatory agencies, but these regulatory agencies are fairly effective. The paper concludes that extant regulations on CSR and SR need to be effectively enforced to safeguard the wellbeing of all diverse stakeholders of telecommunication companies in Nigeria at large.

**Keywords:** Corporate social responsibility, regulations, social reporting, Nigeria telecommunication industry.

Full Text PDF on [http://www.netjournals.org/z\\_NJBM\\_14\\_019.html](http://www.netjournals.org/z_NJBM_14_019.html)



## How adequate and efficient are regulations on corporate social responsibility and social reporting? Evidence from the Nigeria telecommunication industry

*L. Raimi, A. Aljadani, A. O. Fadipe and . A. Adeleke*

*Asian Journal of Empirical Research*, 2014, vol. 4, issue 6, pages 315-334

**Abstract:** Retrospectively, agitation by multiple stakeholders in Nigeria for increased social involvements from multinational oil companies (MNOCs) and deregulation policy brought corporate social responsibility (CSR) and social reporting (SR) to limelight. In spite of these two critical issues, theoretical and empirical studies on adequacy and effectiveness of regulations on CSR and SR are few. Consequently, this exploratory paper examines the adequacy of regulations on CSR and SR in the Nigerian telecommunication industry. Judging by the focus of the paper, the legitimacy theory provides underpinning for the discourse. The authors employ qualitative research method strictly relying on documentary/archival sources. The findings indicate that Nigeria has adequate regulations (direct and indirect) on CSR and SR, and there are adequate regulatory agencies created to ensure compliance. Furthermore, the regulations are efficient based on evidence of social reporting of CSR programmes and projects in the annual reports and websites of the telecommunication companies. The paper concludes that these findings are tentative and require empirical investigation for their validity.

**Keywords:** Corporate social responsibility; Nigeria; regulations; social reporting (search for similar items in EconPapers)

**Date:** 2014

**References:** [Add references at CitEc](#)

**Citations** [Track citations by RSS feed](#)

**Downloads:** (external link)

<http://www.aessweb.com/download.php?id=2837> (application/pdf)

<http://www.aessweb.com/journals/5004/June2014> (text/html)





## Social Responsibility Journal

**Raimi, L., Akhuemonkhan, I. A. and Ogunjirin, O. D. (2015) Corporate Social Responsibility and Entrepreneurship (CSRE): antidotes to poverty, insecurity and underdevelopment in Nigeria", Social Responsibility Journal, Vol. 11( 1), pp.56 – 81.**

### Abstract:

**Purpose**– This paper aims to examine the prospect of utilising corporate social responsibility and entrepreneurship (CSRE) as antidotes for mitigating the incidences of poverty, insecurity and underdevelopment in Nigeria. The paper derives its theoretical foundation from the stakeholder, instrumental and legitimacy theories, which all justify the use of CSRE for actualisation of Triple Bottom Line (i.e. the social, economic and environmental concerns of business organisations).

**Design/methodology/approach**– The study used the quantitative research method relying on the use of secondary data published by institutional bodies. The quantitative method entail a systematic extraction of reliable data on corporate social responsibility (CSR), insecurity, poverty and development from the publications of Office of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria, CLEEN Foundation, National Bureau of Statistics and Central Bank of Nigeria, respectively. For missing years, the authors improvised using projections as well as proxies. The extracted data, which spanned a period of 13 years, were subjected to econometric tests using SPSS, on the basis of which informed conclusions were drawn.

**Findings** – The first econometric result indicates a negative relationship between gross domestic product and poverty. The second result indicates that there is a positive significant relationship between gross domestic product and total crime rate. The third result indicates that there exists a positive relationship between gross domestic product and unemployment rate. The fourth result indicates that there is a negative relationship between gross domestic product and industrial growth rate. The last result indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between gross domestic product and CSR.

**Research limitations/implications** – The results of this research have macro-level application, hence the outcomes cannot be narrowed to any particular sector of the economy. A micro-level analysis across diverse sectors of the economy is recommended in future studies. The implication of this empirical research is that policymakers in the Nigerian private sector need to reinvent their CSR programmes as mechanisms for poverty eradication, entrepreneurship development (CSRE), dousing tension of restive youth, empowerment/support for security agencies for better crime prevention and for impacting on sustainable development.

**Practical implications**– In the face of dwindling financial resources in the treasury of governments, the reinvention of CSRE by private sector organisations as complementary mechanisms for combating social problems is becoming acceptable in both developed and developing nations. This paper therefore boldly recommends that policymakers reinvent

CSRE as development mechanisms through a sound partnership between government, advocacy groups and business corporations in Nigeria.

**Social implications** – The paper explicates that CSR can indeed be reinvented by corporations as part of their social concerns to their operating environment instead of leaving all social problems to governments.

**Originality/value** – The research lends credence to stakeholder, instrumental and legitimacy theories of CSR. It also justifies the plausibility of CSRE, a novel concept being promoted in this research.



**E3 Journal of Business Management and Economics Vol. 5(6). pp. 131-141 September, 2014 Available online <http://www.e3journals.org> ISSN 2141-7482 © E3 Journals 2014**

## **Theological foundation of Corporate Social Responsibility in Islam, Christianity and Judaism: Prospects for strengthening compliance and reporting**

**Raimi L<sub>1</sub>\*, Patel A<sub>1</sub>, Yekini K<sub>1</sub> and Aljadani A<sub>1</sub>**

<sup>1</sup>Leicester Business School, De Montfort University, Leicester, United Kingdom

Accepted 24 August, 2014

Religion in the contemporary times has potentials from which conventional models and theories could leverage for public wellbeing. Considering the moral and ethical dimensions of corporate social responsibility (CSR), understanding this nebulous concept from the religious lenses could help strengthen CSR compliance and reporting in the industrial societies, where religions play direct and indirect role in corporate governance and people's lifestyle. This paper explores eclectic sources to provide answer to the questions: Does CSR have theological foundation in Islam Christianity and Judaism? Can religions strengthen CSR and fortify compliance and reporting? The authors sourced the required qualitative data from journal articles, Islamic jurisprudence, Judaic sources and Biblical texts as well as relevant online resources on the subject. The extractions from eclectic sources were critically analysed using hermeneutic from which answers to the two questions were established. The findings indicate that CSR has theological foundation in the three religions, and religious ethics and values could be potent drivers for strengthening CSR and reporting.

**Keywords:** Corporate Social Responsibility, Compliance, Eclectic Approach, Religions, Reporting

**Full Text PDF** on [www.e3journals.org/cms/articles/1411269721\\_RAIMI%20et%20al.pdf](http://www.e3journals.org/cms/articles/1411269721_RAIMI%20et%20al.pdf)



## World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development

Lukman Raimi , Ashok Patel , Ismail Adelojo

World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development, Vol. 10 Iss: 3, 2014, pp.228 - 242

### Corporate social responsibility, Waqf system and Zakat system as faith-based model for poverty reduction

Abstract:

**Purpose**– Poverty is a plague which has continental manifestation, but its impact is heavily felt in several Muslim majority nations (MMNs), where unemployment, illiteracy, chronic diseases, food shortage, sectarian wars and wave of militancy are surging at alarming rates. The purpose of this paper is to develop a faith-based model (FBM) to complement the conventional poverty reduction models. Experiences have shown that FBMs find more acceptability among Muslim nations because they have theoretical and theological underpinnings from the Qur'an and Hadith, as opposed to conventional models that are often viewed with suspicion, sequel to Islamic revivalism.

**Design/methodology/approach** – This research adopts a qualitative research method relying on secondary data/information sourced from CIA Factbook, previous scholarly works, working papers, case studies and relevant internet resources. In line with methodological approach of qualitative research, the secondary data/information were subjected to content and thematic analyses (CTA) from which facts, figures and presumptions were derived to support the FBM.

**Findings** – The paper justified the plausibility of integrating corporate social responsibility (CSR), Waqf system (WS) and Zakat system (TZS) as FBM for poverty reduction, enterprise development and economic empowerment in MMNs.

**Research limitations/implications** – The gap left behind by the paper is for future researchers to carry out an empirical investigation on the viability or otherwise of the FBM. This could include the governance structure, operational modalities and regulatory frameworks that would enhance the functioning of the FBM.

**Practical implications** – FBM framework is practically a corporate social investment (CSI), which would be heavily funded by Zakat payers, CSR donations and Waqf. The funds would be deployed to poverty reduction in a number of ways ranging from training, micro-credit support for SMEs, apprenticeships, setting up technology business incubation centres, cluster development, infrastructural development in industrial parks, as well as providing welfare support services to the poor, marginalised communities and other economically disadvantaged groups.

**Originality/value** – The theoretical research is a contribution to theory and practice of CSR in the field of management and Islamic economics. It has developed a FBM for adoption by MMNs who are hesitant in adopting western model for fear of compromising their ethical values.

**Download link:** <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/abs/10.1108/WJEMSD-09-2013-0052>



## **Tackling Poverty Crisis in the Muslim Majority Nations (MMNs): The Faith-Based Model (FBM) as an Alternative Policy Option**

**Submitted July 19<sup>th</sup>, 2013; Revised September 6<sup>th</sup>, 2013; Accepted September 13<sup>th</sup>, 2013**

The purpose of this paper is to explore poverty crisis in the Muslim Majority Nations (MMNs) with a view to developing a faith-based model (FBM) as an alternative policy response to its devastating socio-economic and political consequences. The proposed FBM would be a desirable paradigm shift among Muslim nations because it finds theoretical and theological justifications in the Qur'an and Hadith, as opposed to most conventional poverty reduction strategy programmes (PRSPs) that are viewed in MMNs with suspicion and cynicism. The proposed FBM is a synergy of three socio-economic constructs of Corporate Social Responsibility, Waqf and Zakat. The research method is qualitative, while the technique for data sourcing is archival strategy. The sourced data were critically analysed using content analysis on the basis of which rational proofs were provided to support a case for FBM. The paper concludes calling on the policymakers in MMNs and development scholars to adopt FBM.

**Key words:** Faith-based model, poverty, muslim majority nations, Waqf, Zakat.

Full Text - [Download PDF \(203 KB\)](#):

**Spatio-Temporal Audit of Nigeria's Industrial Policies and  
Entrepreneurship Development Interventions from 1946 to 2013**

**Raimi, L., Patel, A., Yekini, K.**  
Leicester Business School  
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**Fadipe, A. O.**  
Department of Accountancy  
Yaba College of Technology  
Yaba, Lagos, Nigeria

Raimi, Patel, Yekini and Fadipe

**Abstract**

*Spatio-Temporal Auditing (STA) entails a critical examination of performance of economic policies and development programmes within a defined context, space and time. This paper employs the STA to critique Nigeria's industrial policies (IPs) and entrepreneurship development interventions (EDIs) from 1946 to 2013 with a view to answering the salient question: Has Nigeria's industrial policies and entrepreneurship interventions impacted on technological progress (TP), wealth creation (WC) and employment generation (EG) in the economy? The authors sourced the required qualitative data from Nigeria's industrial policy documents, development working papers, journal articles and relevant online resources on the subject. The data were subjected to content analysis (CA) and thematic analysis (TA) from which objective conclusions were made. The key conclusion from the paper is that Nigeria's development policies targeted at industrial and entrepreneurship development have not produced the desirable and measurable performance results; rather they put Nigeria into huge economic deficits. The paper supports the argument for the adoption of a Sustainable Development Triangle (SWT) with a collaborative synergy from Government agencies, Corporations and Small Entrepreneurs in the nation's developmental process. The proposed SDT, unlike previous development policies is sustainable and unlikely to generate a dependency culture, a critical factor for policy failure in Nigeria.*

**Keywords:** Nigeria, Industrial Policies, Entrepreneurship Development Interventions and Spatio-Temporal Audit

**JEL Classification:** N, O, P



## **Bridging Governance Gap with Political CSR**

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9BH, United Kingdom.

### **Abstract**

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has attracted varied applications in management. In recent times, a political CSR has emerged in the literature and the global business landscape. This chapter contribution provides evidence for a political CSR in the Middle-East and Asia, where multinational corporations (MNCs) are complementing government's role in bridging governance gap. Against this background, the governance gap thesis and political costs hypothesis provide grounding for the discussions in this paper. The authors adopt a qualitative research method relying on documentary sources. The information and data from case studies across the Middle-East countries were critically analysed on the basis of which justification for political and developmental undercurrents of CSR initiatives in the extracted ten (10) cases were established. The key argument of the chapter contribution is that governance is crucial for development, and where there is a governance gap, it is in the interest of corporations to bridge the gap with their CSR initiatives to stimulate development. The implication of this paper is that pressure groups and civil society organisations in developing countries could leverage on the political dimension of CSR to lobby corporations to intervene in socio-economic issues especially poverty alleviation and employment creation through entrepreneurship development in their operating environment for mutual benefits.

**Keywords:** Developing Countries, Governance Gap, Political Corporate Social Responsibility

We are pleased to inform you that your chapter has been accepted to be part of the final edited volume on CSR in Developing Countries: A Development-Oriented Approach (Editors: Dima Jamali, Charlotte Karam, and Michael Blowfield) to be published by Greenleaf. *Forthcoming paper*

**Asian Journal of Empirical Research** journal homepage: <http://aessweb.com/journal-detail.php?id=5004>



**Asian Journal of Empirical Research** journal homepage: <http://aessweb.com/journal-detail.php?id=5004>

## **ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS AND SURVEY RESEARCH IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: EVIDENCE FROM NIGERIA**

**Raimi, L., Adebakin, M. A. and Gabadeen, W. O.**

**ABSTRACT** *Survey research is relevant and appropriate for problem identification and provision of objective explanations to hidden phenomena of interest to researchers. Despite the preference for surveys by researchers in the fields of social sciences, management and educational management, it is a research strategy that is confronted by a number of environmental factors. The present study examines the impact of these factors on surveys in Nigeria using a quantitative method. The required data were collected using a survey evaluation instrument (SEI) which contained 33 items. The sample size of 250 lecturers, researchers and students was selected from the target population using a purposive sampling technique. The generated data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics on the basis of which informed conclusions were drawn. The findings indicate that surveys are hindered by low literacy level of respondents, multiplicity of ethnic groups/languages, respondents' inability of respondents to answer survey questions appropriately, incidences of misleading responses and several other environmental factors. The paper concludes that if the observed environmental factors are substantially redressed, survey research in Nigeria would be greatly enriched and the research findings therefrom would be better fortified.*

**Keywords:** Developing Countries, Environmental Factors, Nigeria, Survey Research

**Full Text Download;** [www.aessweb.com/pdf-files/9-6-3\(10\)2013-AJER-1362-1381.pdf](http://www.aessweb.com/pdf-files/9-6-3(10)2013-AJER-1362-1381.pdf)