

JYVÄSKYLÄ STUDIES IN BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS 111

Othmar Manfred Lehner

Social Entrepreneurship Perspectives

Triangulated Approaches to Hybridity



UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

JYVÄSKYLÄ 2012

Editors

Tuomo Takala

Jyväskylä University School of Business and Economics

Pekka Olsbo, Harri Hirvi

Publishing Unit, University Library of Jyväskylä

Cover picture by Othmar Lehner

URN:ISBN:9789513946623

ISBN 978-951-39-4662-3 (PDF)

ISBN 978-951-39-4661-6 (nid.)

ISSN 1457-1986

Copyright © 2012, by University of Jyväskylä

Jyväskylä University Printing House, Jyväskylä 2012

ABSTRACT

Lehner, Othmar Manfred

Social Entrepreneurship Perspectives. Triangulated Approaches to Hybridity

Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä, 2012, 94 p.

(Jyväskylä Studies in Business and Economics

ISSN 1457-1986; 111)

ISBN 978-951-39-4661-6 (nid.)

ISBN 978-951-39-4662-3 (PDF)

The aim of this thesis is to contribute to our knowledge and understanding of the construct of social entrepreneurship (SE). This study consists of three main parts: (1) an introductory essay that presents social entrepreneurship perspectives as found in literature, examines possible frameworks and elaborates on the inherent ambiguity of the term. (2) four articles, each with its own perspective and aim, but united in a quest for validity and methodological robustness, and (3) a reflection on how research in SE can be conducted given the hybridity and different contexts, and how the actual application in the research articles worked out. It ends with an expanded research agenda on SE on a micro level. This dissertation uses triangulation and mixed-mode research approaches, and applies a variety of methods in the four articles. The varied data derives from meta-studies, an online survey using Likert-scales, focus groups and interviews produced in collaboration social entrepreneurs.

The main argument in this study is that social entrepreneurship is not a neutral and static phenomenon, but socially constructed and loaded with meanings. Hence, it needs to receive adequate attention from more contextual, critical and constructionist viewpoints to deal with the inherent hybridity and ambiguity. It is discussed and argued that -

a) current research on social entrepreneurship needs to acknowledge and even put a special emphasis on the cultural, societal and situational contexts in which it is conducted;

b) concepts that are produced through social interaction should receive appropriate research attention that also acknowledges the ontological and paradigmatical nature of these phenomena; and

c) while a variety of entrepreneurial approaches can be identified in social entrepreneurship, such as for example opportunity recognition, these approaches differ in their actual application, partly due to the double bottom-line between the social and commercial goals.

The results of this study highlight the ambiguous, yet fruitful nature of social entrepreneurship and examine how the boundaries of SE on all levels, between societal sectors, institutions, collectives as well as individuals remain blurred - but at the same time it explores methodological approaches to nevertheless produce meaningful and contributory results.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship, social enterprise, methodology, hybridity, entrepreneurial orientation

Author's address Othmar M. Lehner
School of Business and Economics
University of Jyväskylä, FI

ACRN academic research network - Austria
olehner@acrn.eu

Supervisors Assoc. Prof. Juha Kansikas
School of Business and Economics
University of Jyväskylä, FI

Reviewers Assoc. Prof. Johanna Mair,
Stanford University, US
IESE Business School, ES

Assoc. Prof. Kai Hockerts,
Copenhagen Business School, DK

Opponent Assoc. Prof. Marko Torkkeli,
Lappeenranta University of Technology, FI

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank my wife and my daughter for their ongoing support and their understanding for the often long times of absence related to my research and teaching at various universities, and also my parents, who supported me tremendously in so many ways.

Second, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof. Juha Kansikas, my supervisor at the University of Jyväskylä. Only through his support and collaborative spirit, many things became possible and I feel very honoured by the trust that led to the establishment of such a good and fruitful connection between the University of Jyväskylä and the ACRN academic collaboration and research network – Austria.

My sincere thanks also go to Prof. Alex Nicholls, Said, Oxford, UK for his support through numerous emails on social entrepreneurship issues and friendly reviews of the research articles and to Marie Ringler from Ashoka Austria for inspiring meetings on social entrepreneurship perspectives. Also to Prof. Alena Hanzelkova from the Brno International Business School, CZ for bringing this joint program into life and to my two examiners, Prof. Johanna Mair from IESE, ES and Stanford, US and Prof. Kai Hockerts from Copenhagen Business School, DK for agreeing to act as examiners and taking their time to read and evaluate this thesis. My deepest gratitude goes also to Assoc. Prof. Marko Torkkeli, Lappeenranta University of Technology, FI for agreeing to act as opponent at the defensio of this thesis. I feel deeply honoured by all their commitments!

A big thank you also to all my colleagues, inspiring me through fruitful discussions often at the most astonishing times, especially to Prof. Pascal Dey, St. Gallen, CH, Prof. Shambu Prasad from the Xavier Institute of Management, IN and Prof. Karin Grill, FH Upper Austria, AT and also to my wonderful assistants, Karin Stichlberger and Nora Francz, whose organization talents saved my life on numerous occasions.

Social entrepreneurship has inspired me because of the values it brings for life, so I decided to devote my research and teaching to it in order to proliferate it within the academic community. It would however not be possible without the numerous hard working, visionary social entrepreneurs acting in the field, who were willing to contribute in surveys, interviews and focus groups. Thank you all and please keep up your inspiring work for the benefit of all of us!

Jyväskylä 10.9.2011

Othmar M. Lehner

FIGURES

FIGURE 1	Model of strategic entrepreneurship (Ireland 2003, p.967).....	17
FIGURE 2	Subtopics in entrepreneurship.....	24
FIGURE 3	Hybrid spectrum adapted from Dees and Anderson (2006).....	39
FIGURE 4	Conceptual domains in SE (Short 2009, p.170).....	44
FIGURE 5	Framework based upon Kerlin (2010).....	48
FIGURE 6	Network representation of OR views / SE schools.....	57
FIGURE 7	Paradigm/ Method interplay (Kyro and Kansikas, 2005, p. 137)...	61
FIGURE 8	Paradigmatic framework, Lehner and Kansikas (2011).....	62

TABLES

TABLE 1	Definitions of Social Entrepreneurship (Zahra 2009, p. 521).....	13
TABLE 2	Social Entrepreneur typology (Zahra 2009, p. 523).....	19
TABLE 3	Sarasvathys three views of OR (Lehner et.al. 2010).....	28
TABLE 4	Methods and strategies of inquiry (Short 2009, p.165).....	36
TABLE 5	Schools of thought in SE (Hoogendoorn 2010, p.80).....	40
TABLE 6	SE themes in literature (Lehner and Kansikas 2011, p.16).....	43
TABLE 7	Third sector regimes (Kerlin 2010, p. 166).....	48
TABLE 8	Comparison of SE in Austria to Kerlin (2010).....	52
TABLE 9	Conditional probability OR views/ SE schools.....	56
TABLE 10	Objective and subjective positions (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011) ...	60
TABLE 11	Using mixed-mode designs, adapted Mason (2006).....	66

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

FIGURES AND TABLES

CONTENTS

LIST OF ORIGINAL ARTICLES

SUMMARY IN FINNISH AND GERMAN

1	INTRODUCTION	11
1.1	Social entrepreneurship	11
1.2	Definitions and streams of social entrepreneurship	13
1.3	Social enterprises and non-profit organizations	15
1.4	Intrapreneurship and strategic entrepreneurship	17
1.5	A typology of social entrepreneurs	18
1.5.1	Social Bricoleurs	20
1.5.2	Social Constructionists	21
1.5.3	Social Engineers	21
1.6	Austrian-school economists' philosophy	21
2	ENTREPRENEURIAL ASPECTS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP	23
2.1	Entrepreneurial orientation	24
2.2	Opportunity recognition	26
2.3	Innovation and venture creation in different market contexts	29
2.3.1	The context of entrepreneurship and capitalistic markets	30
2.4	Finding boundaries to sustainable entrepreneurship and CSR	31
2.5	Research methodology in the entrepreneurship domain	34
3	APPROACHES TO HYBRIDITY IN THE ARTICLES	37
3.1	Hybridity as a term and concept	37
3.2	Ambiguity, blurred boundaries and dichotomies	38
3.3	Schools of thought in SE research	40
3.3.1	The social innovation school of thought (SIS)	40
3.3.2	The social enterprise school of thought (SES)	41
3.3.3	The EMES approach	41
3.3.4	The UK approach	41
3.4	Disciplines and approaches in SE research	42
3.5	Comparative approaches to social entrepreneurship	45
3.6	Three worlds of welfare capitalism	46
3.7	A social origins approach to social enterprises	47
4	OVERVIEW OF THE ORIGINAL RESEARCH PAPERS	50
4.1	Article I: "The Phenomenon of Social Enterprise in Austria: A Triangulated Descriptive Study"	50
4.1.1	Abstract	50

4.1.2	Findings and Conclusions.....	51
4.2	Article II: "Social Entrepreneurship Research across Disciplines: Paradigmatic and Methodological Considerations"	53
4.2.1	Abstract.....	53
4.2.2	Findings and Conclusions.....	54
4.3	Article III: "Opportunity Recognition in Social Entrepreneurship: A Thematic Meta Analysis"	54
4.3.1	Abstract.....	55
4.3.2	Findings and Conclusions.....	55
4.4	Article IV: "Soziale Innovation durch Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich"	57
4.4.1	Abstract.....	58
4.4.2	Findings and Conclusions.....	58
5	REFLECTION ON PARADIGMS AND HYBRIDITY.....	59
5.1	Philosophical positioning and methodology.....	59
5.1.1	On ontology, epistemology and the view of society.....	59
5.1.2	A quest for validity	64
5.1.3	Triangulation & mixed mode designs.....	65
5.2	Approaches to hybridity: proposing Stereotypes, Archetypes and Prototypes	67
6	REFLECTING ON THE RESEARCH AGENDA	70
6.1	Current status and influences	70
6.2	Suggestions for an expanded research agenda	71
6.2.1	Social entrepreneurship as a meaningful job-alternative.....	71
6.2.2	Organizing & scaling social ventures.....	72
6.2.3	Social entrepreneurship and religion	73
6.2.4	Examining the interfaces.....	74
6.2.5	Examining the discourse leaders and intrinsic agendas.....	75
6.3	Final words	77
	REFERENCES.....	82
	ORIGINAL PAPERS	

LIST OF ORIGINAL ARTICLES

- I Lehner, O.M. 2011.
The Phenomenon of Social Enterprise in Austria:
A Triangulated Descriptive Study.
Routledge Journal of Social Entrepreneurship 2 (1), 53-78
- II Lehner, O.M. & Kansikas J. 2011.
Social Entrepreneurship Research across Disciplines:
Paradigmatic and Methodological Considerations.
EMES Conference Papers. 3rd EMES International Research Conference on
Social Enterprise, July 4-7, Roskilde University, Denmark
- Later also published in the:
SSRN Social Entrepreneurship eJournal:
<http://ssrn.com/abstract=1896380>
- III Lehner O.M. & Kansikas J. 2012.
Opportunity Recognition in Social Entrepreneurship:
A Thematic Meta Analysis.
SAGE Journal of Entrepreneurship 21 (1), 25-58
- IV Lehner O.M. 2011.
Soziale Innovation durch Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich.
INAS Conference Proceedings, Zukunftsperspektiven der Sozialwirtschaft,
H. Bassarack ed., Feb. 24-25, Linz,
University of Upper Austria.
- Also forthcoming as a book chapter in 2012 in
"Future Perspectives of Social Businesses",
eds. H. Bassarack and M. Lehner, Stuttgart, Zielverlag

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Social entrepreneurship

... Rather than asking how resilience or motivation or leadership affect entrepreneurial outcomes, shouldn't we be asking how entrepreneurial qualities make a person or organization more resilient, more persistent, better leaders, and stronger performers?
(Lumpkin, 2011, p. 5)

From a practical perspective, social entrepreneurship denotes a form of entrepreneurship, where social entrepreneurs create and deliver social value by employing market based strategies and approaches for client and income generation. However, social entrepreneurship (SE) as a term and a construct is applied in research literature for different phenomena in various contexts (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Mair and Marti, 2006; Thompson and Doherty, 2006; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006). The spectrum ranges from non-profit organizations in Europe and the US, embracing commercial income strategies, to entrepreneurial ventures in rural India with a focus on small community development and even includes radical change approaches on a true global and societal scale.

Entrepreneurial approaches in SE include *top down*, where well-off, often well-educated people devote their time and money to actively search and start such an endeavour in their quest for meaning; and *bottom up*, where people at, what Prahalad calls the "bottom of the pyramid" (Prahalad, 2010) start up ventures to help themselves overcome poverty. Activities by supporting organisations, such as micro-credit loans, for example supplied through the Grameen bank (Yunus and Weber, 2007), or startup grants and advice from numerous foundations and organisations are of high importance for their success (Mair and Marti, 2009).

On a macro level, SE is increasingly seen as providing an exit strategy for states to alleviate their budgets in social welfare spending (Ferrera et al., 2004; Hemerijck, 2002; Travaglini, 2009; Webb et al., 2010). It is as such endorsed and fostered through several legislative and incentive measurements by states such as Italy, the US or the UK (Galera and Borzaga, 2009; Nyssens et al., 2006).

On a more radical level, the SE construct is displayed as being a rally-sign for bringing about change, be it political, economical or social (Drayton, 2006), and social entrepreneurs are displayed as the heroic figures within, innovating, starting and leading these processes.

Several institutions, amongst others Ashoka, the Skoll Foundation, the Schwab Foundation or the Hub network, as well as numerous top-rated universities such as Harvard, Oxford or Stanford have already created a fruitful environment of supporting, financing, teaching, and propagating SE. However their support focus is often based on their own definition of SE and their intrinsic political or commercial agenda (Nicholls, 2010).

For researchers thus, the field is far from well defined (Haugh, 2005; Peattie and Morley, 2008a; Peredo and Mclean, 2006; Reed, 2008). Different schools of thought have been identified (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010) and at the same time criticised, the field is disputed as having been created through reflexive isomorphisms by different institutions for their intrinsic agendas (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Nicholls, 2010) and some scholars even call it a mess (Jones and Keogh, 2006; Jones et al., 2008) due to the ambivalences in definitions, constantly changing research agendas and the competing disciplines within. As Nicholls (2010) puts it:

Over the past 10 to 15 years since it first entered mainstream public discourse e.g. (Leadbetter, 1997) social entrepreneurship has been subject to a competing range of definitions, and there still remains a distinct lack of clarity over what it means. (p.3)

What can be seen is, that the inherent hybridity of SE, for example in the placement of SE between market and civil society, or in its approaches torn between the social and commercial, is building up a tension field, both creative and destructive. While it invites researchers to look at the field from a multitude of disciplines and perspectives (Mair and Marti, 2006; Nicholls and Cho, 2006; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006), it also prevents scholars from delivering commonly accepted and recognized theories that could be tested in a quantitative way (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011; Light, 2009; Peattie and Morley, 2008a; Short et al., 2009).

However, such theory development and testing is often seen as a sign of maturity, as being necessary, yet even a prerequisite for the legitimization of a field (Cummings, 2007; Grant and Perren, 2002; Jennings et al., 2005), and exactly this, research on SE seems to fail to deliver.

Additionally, when looking at social entrepreneurship research terminology, it needs to be pointed out that social entrepreneurial ventures and social enterprises need not be the same thing, although discourse on social entrepreneurship often makes little difference between (Trivedi and Stokols, 2011). Specifically, in many contexts, the former allows for the distribution of profits while the latter (as several legal forms in different countries demand) often does not, or only in very limited forms. Social enterprises often also stem from what some may call non-profits (NPO) or non-governmental organisations (NGO) or are actually identical in scope and features to these and just differ in discourse.

This, in and of itself, significantly changes for example the foundational motivations and incentives for the development of social entrepreneurship in its various forms, and as a consequence, context must always be taken into account when examining the field.

Nevertheless, when examining case studies of social entrepreneurs, and the social innovation and often tremendous success they bring with, it can easily be understood why Mair and Marti (2006) call SE research: *A source of explanation, prediction, and delight*, despite researchers' troubles in agreeing on definitions and boundaries.

In order to further explore this emerging field, and to contribute to a better understanding of, what James Joyce once called *the relevance, the whatness of a thing*, the author triangulates SE in this research based thesis from different angles and perspectives, in the view that

... social entrepreneurship represents an umbrella term for a considerable range of innovative and dynamic international praxis and discourse in the social and environmental sector. (Nicholls and Cho, 2006, p. 5)

1.2 Definitions and streams of social entrepreneurship

Numerous definitions of social entrepreneurship, social enterprises and social entrepreneurs can be found in the scholarly discourse, based upon observations and conceptualizations on various levels (e.g. individual – organisation – society), and from a multitude of perspectives, ranging from psychological to political. Zahra et al. (2009) compile an excellent review of the definitions of social entrepreneurship found in literature so far:

TABLE 1 Definitions of Social Entrepreneurship (Zahra 2009, p. 521)

Source	Definition
Leadbetter (1997)	The use of entrepreneurial behavior for social ends rather than for profit objectives, or alternatively, that the profits generated from market activities are used for the benefit of a special disadvantaged group.
Thake and Zadek (1997)	Social entrepreneurs are driven by a desire for social justice. They seek a direct link between their actions and an improvement in the quality of life for the people with whom they work and those that they seek to serve. They aim to produce solutions which are sustainable financially, organizationally, socially and environmentally.
Dees (1998)	Play the role of change agents in the social sector, by: 1) Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value), 2) Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission, 3) Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning, 4) Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and 5) Exhibiting heightened accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created.
Reis (1999) (Kellogg Foundation)	Social entrepreneurs create social value through innovation and leveraging financial resources...for social, economic and community development.
Fowler (2000)	Social Entrepreneurship is the creation of viable socio-economic structures, relations, institutions, organizations and practices that yield and sustain social benefits.

Source	Definition
Brinkerhoff (2001)	Individuals constantly looking for new ways to serve their constituencies and add value to existing services
Mort et al. (2002)	A multidimensional construct involving the expression of entrepreneurially virtuous behavior to achieve the social mission...the ability to recognize social value creating opportunities and key decision-making characteristics of innovation, proactiveness and risk-taking
Drayton (2002)	A major change agent, one whose core values center on identifying, addressing and solving societal problems.
Alford et al. (2004)	Creates innovative solutions to immediate social problems and mobilizes the ideas, capacities, resources and social arrangements required for social transformations
Harding (2004)	Entrepreneurs motivated by social objectives to instigate some form of new activity or venture.
Shaw (2004)	The work of community, voluntary and public organizations as well as private firms working for social rather than only profit objectives.
Said School (2005)	A professional, innovative and sustainable approach to systematic change that resolves social market failures and grasps opportunities
Fuqua School (2005)	The art of simultaneously pursuing both a financial and a social return on investment (the "double" bottom line)
Schwab Foundation (2005)	Applying practical, innovative and sustainable approaches to benefit society in general, with an emphasis on those who are marginalized and poor.
NYU Stern (2005)	The process of using entrepreneurial and business skills to create innovative approaches to social problems. "These non-profit and for profit ventures pursue the double bottom line of social impact and financial self-sustainability or profitability."
MacMillan (2005) (Wharton Center)	Process whereby the creation of new business enterprise leads to social wealth enhancement so that both society and the entrepreneur benefit.
Tan et al. (2005)	Making profits by innovation in the face of risk with the involvement of a segment of society and where all or part of the benefits accrue to that same segment of society.
Mair and Marti (2006a)	...a process of creating value by combining resources in new ways...intended primarily to explore and exploit opportunities to create social value by stimulating social change or meeting social needs.
Paredo and McLean (2006)	Social entrepreneurship is exercised where some person or group...aim(s) at creating social value...shows a capacity to recognize and take advantage of opportunities...employ innovation...accept an above average degree of risk...and are unusually resourceful ... in pursuing their social venture.
Martin and Osberg (2007)	Social entrepreneurship is the: 1) identification a stable yet unjust equilibrium which the excludes, marginalizes or causes suffering to a group which lacks the means to transform the equilibrium; 2) identification of an opportunity and developing a new social value proposition to challenge the equilibrium, and 3) forging a new, stable equilibrium to alleviate the suffering of the targeted group through imitation and creation of a stable ecosystem around the new equilibrium to ensure a better future for the group and society.

The differing streams and perspectives that these definitions bring with can clearly be identified in this table. While Reis (1999) for example focuses on the innovation and the entrepreneur as a single actor working for community development, Drayton (2002) and others go so far and call the entrepreneur a major change agent in a societal dimension.

On the other end of the spectrum the reader finds for example Shaw (2004) who emphasizes the work of community, voluntary and public organisations. Said Business School sees the approaches as processes and the Fuqua School even calls it *an art of pursuing a double-bottom line* between both, a financial and a social return on investment. Definitions therefore very much correlate to the

observed characteristics, as well as to the worldview and background of the observers. In harmony with the sub-title of the thesis, *approaches to hybridity*, the author refrains from creating, or applying a separate version of a definition of *Social Entrepreneurship*. Such a definition would inevitably either overly stretch a single dimension on the expense of others, or be overly vague in order to comprise a huge variety. According to Peattie and Morley (2008a) problems in defining SE are somewhat linked to a tendency to solely focus on particular characteristics in research. These characteristics however cannot simply be applied across the sector and field because of its inherent diversity – thus results are often not generalizable and validity is a constant issue in SE research. Therefore, instead of unduly emphasizing a single definition to be used throughout, this thesis sets out to identify the existence and relevance of *hybrid definitions*, and will later propose different ways to approach it.

One example for this proposed hybridity, an important difference in the level of perception and study needs to be made between social enterprises and the social entrepreneur. This is well reflected in the different definitions. While these two constructs are in no way mutually exclusive, the foci of corresponding studies differ not only in the level, for example between a more organizational setting and the individual entrepreneur/intrapreneur, but also in the implied understanding of the various contexts, in which the actors are embedded.

1.3 Social enterprises and non-profit organizations

Social enterprises (SEs) can come in various legal and organizational forms (Borzaga et al., 2008; Bull, 2008; Defourny and Nyssens, 2008; Edwards and Edwards, 2008; Galera and Borzaga, 2009; Jacques Defourny, 2009; Kerlin, 2006, 2007, 2010; Nyssens et al., 2006; Peattie and Morley, 2008b; Ridley-Duff, 2008; Shah, 2009; Travaglini, 2009). Amongst others we find traditional cooperations and associations, shareholder companies, public-private partnerships as well as sole-entrepreneurial ventures. This variety and the legal implications it brings with again make it challenging to derive knowledge on a comparative level. Country specific legal forms, regimes on social welfare provision and rules on tax-exemptions have a big influence on the organizational structure as well as on the business model of social enterprises. Social enterprises and social entrepreneurship can mean different things to different people (Trivedi and Stokols, 2011). Entrepreneurial ventures in the social sphere do not automatically lead to social enterprises, as can be found for example in the understanding of the so-called social enterprise school (SES) of thought (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010). The focus there is on earned-income for traditional non-profit organizations in an effort to reduce dependencies from donations, grants and subsidies (Boschee, 1995; Skloot, 1987). These social enterprises are often organized differently and come in different legal forms compared to the resulting enterprises of social entrepreneurs. Also the inherent self-images and the idiosyncratic discourses differ between the two social businesses.

Several authors such as Boschee, Fowler or Mayer approach social enterprises from this organizational non-profit perspective and research for example managerial skills, quality issues and efficiency within such organisations. This perspective often sees NPOs running small commercial businesses besides their main role as provider of social services, with the sole aim of these to reduce dependency from grants and donations (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010).

Due to the lack of a common European legal recognition of social enterprises, many scholars in Europe nowadays embrace either the UK definitions (Harding and Harding, 2010), or more recently the criteria set up by the EMES, the European Research Network on Social Enterprises (www.emes.net) to define social enterprises.

The EMES definition of SEs proposes four criteria that distinguish between both *economic and social indicators*:

- SEs are directly involved in the production of goods (or services in that sense), the productive activity representing one of the main reasons for the existence of the SE.
- SEs are created and run by a group of people on the basis of an autonomous endeavor, with little to no managerial influence by public authorities or other organizations such as federations or commercial firms.
- SEs embrace a significant level of economic risk.
- SEs include a minimum amount of paid work.

In addition, the EMES also proposes criteria to capture the *social dimensions* of SEs:

- SEs have an explicit aim to benefit the community as a whole or a specific group of people.
- SEs as an initiative launched by a group of citizens who share a common vision or aim.
- Decision-making power in SEs is not based on capital ownership, but on a collective one hand – one vote basis.

This definition is broad enough to include a great variety of enterprises, and better yet, it is constantly improved and updated to reflect new research insights and actual developments.

While the social enterprise research canon as drafted in this chapter is of tremendous value and of high importance for the field, this thesis focuses more on the *entrepreneurial aspects* of social entrepreneurship, amongst others, entrepreneurial orientation, opportunity recognition and innovation.

However, even from an entrepreneurial perspective, the diverse contexts and discourses of social enterprises in different regions must not be overlooked. Social enterprises amongst others often provide the origin, grounds for compe-

tion and collaboration, limiting structures and also the personal settings in which social entrepreneurs or intrapreneurs are working in or stemming from.

1.4 Intrapreneurship and strategic entrepreneurship

The term intrapreneurship – also known as corporate entrepreneurship or corporate venturing, is used to denominate the practice of developing a new venture within existing organizations, to therefore exploit a new opportunity and create economic value from within. In contrast entrepreneurship involves developing a new venture outside an existing organization (Parker, 2011).

Previous research has identified several reasons why new opportunities might be exploited via entrepreneurship rather than intrapreneurship. Amongst such influential factors are agency costs, concerned with contracting in human resources (HR); transferable human capital, and asset constraints within existing organizations. However, most importantly, organizational limitations of incumbents such as bureaucracy and rigid routines seem to hinder intrapreneurial approaches (Bosma et al., 2010; Helfat and Lieberman, 2002; Helfat and Peteraf, 2003; Kistruck and Beamish, 2010; Klepper, 2001).

More recently, research by Ireland et al. (2003); Ireland and Webb (2007a) on strategic entrepreneurship may hold solutions to overcome such organizational inertia through, what they call a *strategy for entrepreneurship*. This strategy aims to dedicate resources to employees' creativity and therefore creates spaces in which intrapreneurs can act entrepreneurially through for example discovering opportunities and finding new innovative solutions. The proposed model of strategic entrepreneurship also includes aspects of strategic management in that it calls for the strategic allocation of resources through, for example real-options logic.

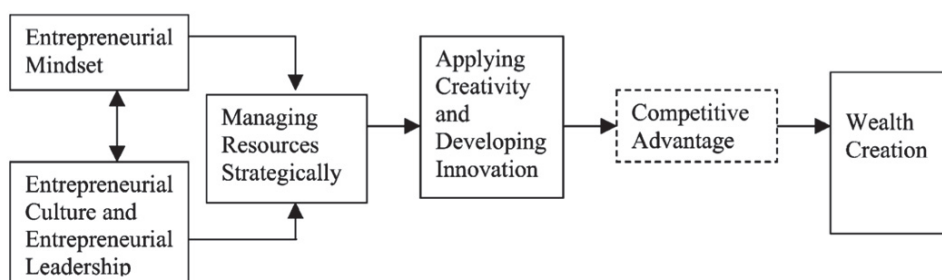


FIGURE 1 Model of strategic entrepreneurship (Ireland 2003, p.967)

This model highlights the value of creativity and innovation in the simultaneous approach to opportunity- and advantage seeking behaviours and may therefore be useful for example in transforming and managing traditional non-profits into innovative social enterprises in a process called *organizational reju-*

vention. Such an approach however is seldom found in traditional non-profit organizations and bigger social enterprises, as the focus and business logic in these is often based on meeting the legal demands regarding quality and efficiency, and little attention is paid on fostering an entrepreneurial culture and leadership. Wealth creation however as a common goal *needs not be limited* to a sole monetary perspective and may well be adapted to include social or even societal aspects. An entrepreneurial mind-set would thus allow and even encourage intrapreneurs to come up with new opportunities and innovations, and the strategic management of resources would assist in selecting the right future programs within the corporate vision and mission, however without the premature termination of early stage experiments that may become important assets.

1.5 A typology of social entrepreneurs

Zahra et al. (2009) examine social entrepreneurship from an entrepreneurial perspective by drawing upon the philosophical grounds and views of Austrian school economists such as Schumpeter, Hayek and Kirzner. They categorize social entrepreneurs by their actions in terms of opportunity recognition and exploitation, as well as through the (social) innovation they bring with. In their paper they carve out a linkage to the respective scale and scope and to the effect on the social equilibrium. In their paper they identify:

- Social Bricoleurs, acting upon local needs, being on the spot with the skills to address local problems not in the focus of others,
- Social Constructionists, acting in a more institutionalized perspective by addressing gaps in the provision of socially significant goods, and
- Social Engineers, embracing innovation in a true Schumpeterian disruptive angle by seeking to change the social equilibrium.

TABLE 2 Social Entrepreneur typology (Zahra 2009, p. 523)

Type	Social Bricoleur	Social Constructionists	Social Engineer
Theoretical inspiration	Hayek	Kirzner	Schumpeter
What they do?	Perceive and act upon opportunities to address a local social needs they are motivated and have the expertise and resources to address.	Build and operate alternative structures to provide goods and services addressing social needs that governments, agencies, and businesses cannot.	Creation of newer, more effective social systems designed to replace existing ones when they are ill-suited to address significant social needs.
Scale, scope and timing	Small scale, local in scope – often episodic in nature.	Small to large scale, local to international in scope, designed to be institutionalized to address an ongoing social need.	Very large scale that is national to international in scope and which seeks to build lasting structures that will challenge existing order.
Why they are necessary?	Knowledge about social needs and the abilities to address them are widely scattered. Many social needs are non-discernable or easily misunderstood from afar, requiring local agents to detect and address them.	Laws, regulation, political acceptability, inefficiencies and/or lack of will prevent existing governmental and business organizations from addressing many important social needs effectively.	Some social needs are not amenable to amelioration within existing social structures. Entrenched incumbents can thwart actions to address social needs that undermine their own interests and source of power.
Social Significance	Collectively, their actions help maintain social harmony in the face of social problems	They mend the social fabric where it is torn, address acute social needs within existing broader social structures, and help maintain social harmony.	They seek to rip apart existing social structures and replace them with new ones. They represent an important force for social change in the face of entrenched incumbents.
Effect on Social Equilibrium	Atomistic actions by local social entrepreneurs move us closer to a theoretical “social equilibrium.”	Addressing gaps in the provision of socially significant goods and service creates new “social equilibriums.”	Fractures existing social equilibrium and seeks to replace it with a more socially efficient one.
Source of Discretion	Being on the spot with the skills to address local problems not on others’ “radars.” Local scope means they have limited resource requirements and are fairly autonomous. Small scale and local scope allows for quick response times.	They address needs left un-addressed and have limited/no competition. They may even be welcomed and be seen as a “release valve” preventing negative publicity/social problems that may adversely affect existing governmental and business organizations.	Popular support to the extent that existing social structures and incumbents are incapable of addressing important social needs.

Type	Social Bricoleur	Social Construction-ists	Social Engineer
Limits of Discretion	Not much aside from local laws and regulations. However, the limited resources and expertise they possess limit their ability to address other needs or expand geographically.	Need to acquire financial and human resources necessary to fulfill mission and institutionalize as a going concern. Funder demands oversight. Professional volunteers and employees are needed to operate organization.	Seen as fundamentally illegitimate by established parties that see them as a threat, which brings scrutiny and attempts to undermine the ability of the social engineers to bring about change. The perceived illegitimacy will inhibit the ability to raise financial and human resources from traditional sources. As a consequence, they may become captive of the parties that supply it with needed resources.

Such a typology, and the features used for differentiation, may provide a framework for the great variety and scope found in empirical observations on SE, and also explain the very different motivations and approaches that lead to the foundation of the ventures. As opportunity recognition (OR) and innovation is often at the heart of entrepreneurship (Hockerts, 2006; Lehner and Kansikas, 2012; Mair and Marti, 2006; Mair et al., 2007; Sarason et al., 2006), this typology may provide thus an overarching framework in analysing different levels and advances of social entrepreneurs. In addition, and to connect to the preceding section, this typology of social entrepreneurs may well hold true for social intrapreneurs as well, as these are also found searching for opportunities and creating higher (social)-value through the continuous transformation of the organization they work in.

1.5.1 Social Bricoleurs

Social Bricoleurs are somewhat limited by the information they possess. Going back to Hayek, recognition and exploitation of opportunities becomes possible through information available, including an emphasis on tacit knowledge on a local level. Zahra et al. see Bricolage (Strauss, 1968) as being complementary to Hayek's position of entrepreneurship, and as a result of *idiosyncratic, local or tacit knowledge*. Bricolage denominates the concept of *making do with what is at hand*, implying improvising and not being limited by the resources available. Social Bricoleurs are important in that they act upon local institutional voids, and through that aim to restore social-equilibrium at a local scale. What however happens when these Bricoleurs want to scale their business model or start becoming activists on a social issue on a much broader scale?

1.5.2 Social Constructionists

Social Constructionists are seen to construct and introduce systemic changes in expectations concerning ends and means. The view on opportunity recognition is based upon Kirzner, who sees a strong connection between OR and the alertness of an entrepreneur and less of OR and the information available. Scaling is as such not limited per se as it would be in Hayek's view by only locally available information. Kirzner and Zahra combine this alertness also with a boldness and innovativeness in the actions of the entrepreneurs, integrating a strong vision and persistence into this view. According to Zahra and Thomas (2008), Social Constructionists seek to remedy broader social problems by planning and developing formalized or systemized scalable solutions to either meet growing needs or can be transferred to new and varied social contexts. One main difference in the outcome is the stronger focus on scaling and managerial approaches than in Social Bricoleurs' ventures, however with a less revolutionary agenda than in Social Engineers'.

1.5.3 Social Engineers

On a much more radical view on society, Zahra et al. identify the Social Engineer. He comes into action, when compelling social needs are not amendable to solutions within existing institutions. One reason might be that these institutions might be inadequate - which however would also be true in the case of Social Constructionists - or governments and elitist institutions might not allow for changes and reforms. A Social Engineer's aim is not only to address and fulfil the social needs but also to bring about change in a more revolutionary way. Because of this radical approach, and because they bring change about, acting often as prime movers of innovation, analogies to Schumpeter's Creative Destruction can be found. While scaling is often of major interest, it is so far not clear whether the scaling should comprise the business itself or rather its ideas and systematic changes. Besides social capital for sourcing, they also struggle with political capital and legitimization issues.

1.6 Austrian-school economists' philosophy

Zahra's three types of social entrepreneurs are defined through the lenses of Austrian-school economists and their views on opportunity recognition and innovation. Research on SE, on the level of the individual, on the entrepreneur as social actor, embraces this typology and the implications stemming from their corresponding philosophical backgrounds are often of high significance in explaining differences in empirical observations.

Today, literature has offered two generally accepted explanations of where entrepreneurial opportunities arise from, in other words, when and how new means to ends frameworks are created. These explanations go back to the

Austrian school economists Schumpeter (1934) and Kirzner (1973). Their two approaches were later named as *strong and weak forms* of entrepreneurship by Venkataraman (1997).

In the Schumpeterian view, the entrepreneur brings about change through innovation and at the same time creates new opportunities. Inherent in his concept is the notion of innovation characterized by *new combinations of factors*. The Schumpeterian entrepreneur is thus an individual who creates innovation through new combinations of factors and subsequently pursues and exploits it in the market. Typically changes such as technological advances, changing political regimes, or alterations of other macro-economic factors and social trends bring with them new information, based on which entrepreneurs (re)-combine resources and factors to create enhanced value.

As Eckhardt and Shane (2003); Shane and Eckhardt (2003) put it, by altering the equilibrium price for resources, these changes allow those people with access to new information to purchase resources at low prices, recombine them into a more valuable form, and sell the output in the hopes of generating a profit.

In the Kirznerian view however, innovation and new combinations are not preconditions. Opportunities do not require changes related to new technologies or alterations in the political or economical sphere. What is necessary is the existence of a so-called information-asymmetry in markets of incumbents. Through the careful exploitation of these information-asymmetries, entrepreneurs benefit and discover opportunities. Going back to Kirzner, the defining characteristic of entrepreneurs is that they are:

... able to perceive opportunities for entrepreneurial profits; that is, they are able to see where a good can be sold at a price higher than that for which it can be bought. (Kirzner, 1973, p. 14).

Opportunities are thus regarded to stem from an imperfect knowledge within markets. Entrepreneurs need not have special traits or be utterly creative; the likelihood to seize opportunities depends on the discovery of their existence before others have a chance to do so. As Eckhardt and Shane (2003); Shane and Eckhardt (2003) put it, by responding to the available information, entrepreneurs are thus able to obtain resources and recombine them to sell the output in the anticipation of making a profit.

The field of OR is intensely discussed in entrepreneurship literature and therefore will provide considerable substance for social entrepreneurship research. Sarasvathy et al. (2003) seminal article on the *three views on opportunity recognition* structures and integrates the different philosophical approaches that have been laid out in the previous chapters and relates well to the typology of social entrepreneurs brought forward by Zahra. Therefore her perspective and views will be examined further in this thesis and articles.

2 ENTREPRENEURIAL ASPECTS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The study of business without an understanding of entrepreneurship is like to study of Shakespeare in which the 'Prince of Denmark has been expunged from the discussion of Hamlet'
(Baumol, 1968, p. 66), (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000, 2007)

Social entrepreneurship (SE) has only recently become a distinctive, yet still disputed, research field, often located by scholars within the broader domain of entrepreneurship (Austin et al., 2006). However as explained in the preceding chapters, its boundaries with respect to other fields of research remain fuzzy and are dependent on the researchers' own view of SE.

As the perspective of the author of this thesis is that of an entrepreneurship scholar, the topics chosen for the research papers stem from themes and motives found in the field of traditional entrepreneurship research - namely entrepreneurial orientation (EO), innovation, venture creation and opportunity recognition (OR). These topics are also called for in the seminal research agenda set up by Haugh (2005), which will be explained more in-depth later in the chapters. Through examining these topics scholars may find out more on the motivation, thought processes and approaches of social entrepreneurs and ultimately derive knowledge in form of theories that may later be translated into best practise checklists used in education as well as by supporting organizations, consultancies and of course the entrepreneurs themselves.

Collectively, these topics from the entrepreneurship canon, applied and examined in their various contexts of SE, compel researchers to explore new fitting methods and measurements. Finding and developing such methodological fits will enhance the rigor, robustness and sophistication of how we conceptualize, describe and explain the relation between meaningful constructs of SE. The articles in this thesis are therefore in line with the long-held belief of the author, that in order to advance our understanding of theoretical relationships between constructs, adequate attention to measurement and methodological issues need to be paid.

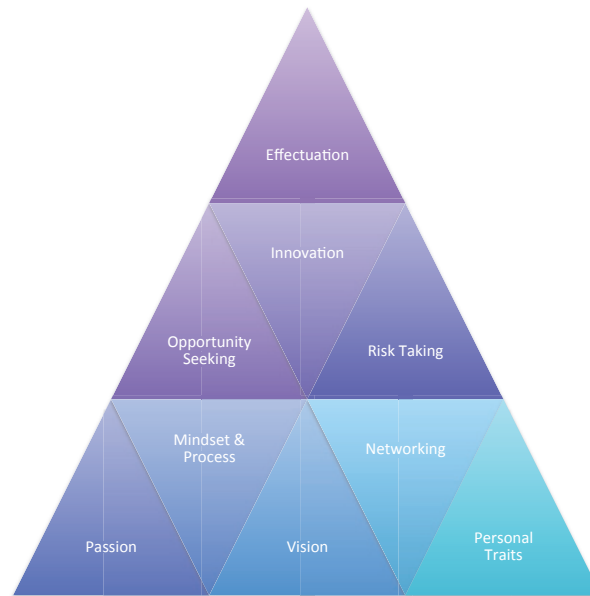


FIGURE 2 Subtopics in entrepreneurship

It is the opinion of the author that the demands and challenges of a new research field may even call for the development of new approaches in methodology. Especially SE research with its multiple facets, its inherent hybridity, complexity and ambiguity may cause scholars to rethink conventional strategies when conducting research (Peattie and Morley, 2008a). Consequently, as a starting point and in addition to the entrepreneurship topics identified before, the author also reviewed and classified literature to identify *prevalent paradigms and applied methods*, to build a foundation and further contribute to the development of an idiosyncratic SE research methodology.

2.1 Entrepreneurial orientation

Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) has its roots in the strategy-making process literature (Mintzberg, 1973; Mintzberg and Waters, 1982). Strategy making can be explained as a phenomenon in organizations that includes aspects of planning, analysis, decision-making as well as influences from an organization's culture and value system. EO therefore represents the policies and practices that provide the basis for entrepreneurial decision-making and action processes (Rauch et al., 2009).

Going back to Miller (1983) and his definition of an entrepreneurial firm, entrepreneurship researchers have used the term entrepreneurial orientation to describe a fairly consistent set of related activities or processes.

The three dimensions of EO that were originally identified are:

- innovativeness
- risk taking, and
- proactiveness

Innovativeness is seen as the tendency to embrace creativity and experimentation through the introduction of new products and services as well as an ongoing commitment to research and development to create technological leadership (Rauch et al., 2009).

Risk taking is connected to bold decision making in uncertain environments, including the commitment of significant resources.

Proactiveness looks at the extent of an anticipation of future demand, which will lead to the introduction of new products and services ahead of the competition.

EO thus contributes to performance, defined as a compound measure incorporating dimensions of growth as well as financial performance (Wiklund, 1999). In an SE context, these dimensions can be expanded to include social value. Risk-taking, innovativeness and proactiveness are driving factors in propelling small firms to be ahead of competitors. Competitive advantage derived from EO is also seen as sustainable and therefore important to be achieved in small, entrepreneurial firms. This certainly holds true for social startups as well, however EO in social entrepreneurship may come in different forms because of an altered perception of the essence of competition in SE.

Miller (1983), Covin and Miles (1999); Covin and Slevin (1989); Covin et al. (1997) argue that the dimensions of EO should covary, meaning a firm should score equally on all dimensions; if they score highly on one dimension, they will naturally score highly on the others. However, Lumpkin et al. (2009); Lumpkin and Dess (1996) disagree on that *uni-dimensionality* of the construct and argue that EO dimensions need to be modeled in combination. They call this *multidimensional EO*. Adding competitive aggressiveness and autonomy to the original three dimensions, Lumpkin and Dess finally reason that, while all five are necessary to understand the entrepreneurship process, the actual combination will depend on the type of entrepreneurial opportunity pursued.

The two additional dimensions are identified as:

- competitive aggressiveness and
- autonomy

Competitive aggressiveness is seen as the intensity of offensive or even outright aggressive responses to competitive threats.

Autonomy refers to independency in the actions and choices by entrepreneurial leaders or teams that are directed at starting a new business or venture and nurture it.

Entrepreneurial orientation is thus seen as a mindset in firms that enables their employees to act entrepreneurially and enter new lines of business (Lumpkin et al., 2009; Lumpkin et al., 2010; Short et al., 2009). In social entrepreneurship research scholars argue for another dimension stemming from the social orientation and the motivation to doing good (Di Domenico et al., 2010). Also, entrepreneurial orientation of employees and managers in social enterprises and non-profit organisations may lead to intrapreneurs, reforming or transforming these institutions.

What seems to be missing in the dimensions of EO however is an in-depth approach to opportunities, which are nowadays considered to be a key factor in successful entrepreneurship, be it social or commercial (Austin et al., 2006; Corner and Ho, 2010; Mair and Noboa, 2006; Tang et al., 2010).

It was Kirzner (1973) who first identified the central importance of the discovery of opportunities to entrepreneurship and finds:

Entrepreneurs find and exploit opportunities by taking advantage of economic disequilibria by knowing or recognizing things that others do not. (p.150)

2.2 Opportunity recognition

How opportunities are formed and exploited has become a central question in the field of entrepreneurship. Inquiries about where opportunities come from, how they differ, and whether these differences have implications for those who seek to exploit them, have been thoroughly examined in the field of entrepreneurship. Can we see differences in OR based on a social entrepreneurial context? Early research from Short et al. (2010) and Corner and Ho (2010) seems to indicate so. Reasons among may be the, what some researchers call, double bottom line of social entrepreneurs, including the commercial and the social sides of an opportunity (Corner and Ho, 2010; Hockerts, 2006; Hockerts et al., 2010; Mair et al., 2007; Robinson, 2006; Zahra et al., 2008b). Social entrepreneurs seem to be looking for special kinds of opportunities, delivering not only commercial but also social value. While it is commonly agreed that both aspects are important it remains so far unclear whether social entrepreneurs really search for such duality on an equal base or rather focus on one aspect, for example the social need. Also, little is known about the decision-making and subsequent exploitation phase of opportunities. Are social entrepreneurs using real-options logic and are they managerially aware of resource constraints from a strategic perspective? Corner and Ho (2010) describe a process of constantly going forward and backward between the OR and the exploitation phase in a quest for value. Social capital- as well as networking theory have delivered answers on

how information as well as resources can be acquired in order to discover, exploit and create opportunities (Arenius and Clercq, 2005; Cope et al., 2007; De Carolis et al., 2009; Ozgen and Baron, 2007; Shalley and Perry-Smith, 2008; Slotte Kock and Coviello, 2010). Can we adopt or adapt these theories to include SE opportunities or do we need to modify these even more to include for example a focus on ethical capital?

Undisputedly, OR is at the very heart of venture creation, some scholars even regard it as the basis of entrepreneurship (Cha and Bae, 2010; Frank and Mitterer, 2009; Hansen et al., 2011; Ozgen and Baron, 2007; Sarason et al., 2006; Sarasvathy et al., 2005; Short et al., 2010). Thus examining OR in a social entrepreneurship context should shed new light on the inner workings of social entrepreneurs.

However, so far only few scholars have followed the lead as set up by Haugh (2005) and others, and have contributed to this field. When reading through current papers on this topic, a prevalent focus on case studies and inductive theory building can be found. Consequently therefore, few links, referrals or rebuttals between the current studies on OR in an SE context exist, nor can quantitative deductive approaches be found.

Existing social entrepreneurship literature on OR draws upon a multitude of theoretical frameworks for their research. Amongst others, theories from Austrian School economists like Schumpeter, Kirzner and Hayek (Murphy and Coombes, 2009; Zahra et al., 2009) are employed and the behavioural theory of the firm (Zahra et al., 2008a) is applied. In addition, closely related concepts to OR, such as Bricolage or Innovation are used to integrate opportunity recognition and exploitation into a broader perspective of social entrepreneurship (Archer et al., 2009; Corner and Ho, 2010; Di Domenico et al., 2010; Fuglsang, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Shaw and Carter, 2007).

Closely linked to Zahras' typology of social entrepreneurs are Sarasvathy et al. (2005) three views of opportunity recognition. Her framework is rather foundational for literature on OR as these three views provide a well-established framework for analysis, as it is deeply connected to the philosophical grounds of OR as explained before.

TABLE 3 Sarasvathys three views of OR (Lehner et.al. 2010)

View	Description
Allocative View	The allocative view asserts opportunities arise from inefficient allocations in the market, which can be exploited by moving to pareto superior allocations (Dean and McMullen, 2002) Information is readily available and networks are known so OR is seen as a random process, that any economic agent could fulfil. The focus therefore lies on the system and not on individuals. Uncertainty is managed through diversification, resources compete.
Discovery View	Opportunities are searched for and found, and are targeted through correcting the problems recognized. Available information is shared imperfectly amongst involved actors. Experiments are made in order to manage changes and uncertainty. Discovery view includes also the employing of tools to manage failure in innovation processes. Depending on the nature of the discovery, only one side is known, either supply or demand. Discovery view emphasizes the fact that strategies are vital to succeed in competition. The market is seen as being alive and in flux.
Creative View	The creative process view focuses on decision making. Creative thinking brings entrepreneurial opportunities through innovations. Information and possible networks are unknown or only partially recognized. Entrepreneurial actions like effectuation are used to manage uncertainty. Through creative processes and intense interaction, knowledge on managing conflicts is built up. Creativity challenges pre-assumed assets and values in the competition.

Some scholars maintain that SE opportunities are different to those found in for-profit ventures (Hockerts, 2010; Mair and Noboa, 2006; Robinson, 2006). Reasons for that may be the somewhat different context in which SE takes place, as well as a very different outcome orientation including the social aspects. It is commonly found in SE research that social entrepreneurs are thriving to create social value as well as a sustainable financial income. However in all reported cases so far, the social mission has always dominated (Lehner and Kansikas, 2012). In addition, as *social value* is a rather ambiguous and multi-faceted aim, an aim that has been socially constructed over time and through intense interaction and collaboration, it can itself provide a necessity for differentiation. The precise outcome definition by the entrepreneur may thus have a significant impact on how opportunities are perceived in SE. Also what must be taken into account is the somewhat uncharted territory that social entrepreneurs find themselves in. Often their ventures are placed between civil-society, the state and the market, with influences from all three. Hockerts (2006) identifies three

sources of social entrepreneurial opportunity that can help structure and explain the existence of social purpose business ventures:

1. **activism**, SE opportunities are influenced by the key assets of activist groups, such as legitimacy, awareness of social forces, distinct networks, and specialized technical expertise.
2. **self-help**, with a focus on the beneficiaries also being the clients and often workforce at the same time, and as such gaining legitimacy and loyalty beyond activism.
3. **philanthropy**, where the altruistic mission can be a sufficient payback for philanthropic investors. Their contributions often include valuable advise on starting and growing the venture.

2.3 Innovation and venture creation in different market contexts

Venture creation is linked in literature to either the discovery of a business opportunity or the creation of such by the entrepreneurs themselves (Cha and Bae, 2010). In a Schumpeterian perspective, innovation is seen as the *driving mojo* in bringing about newness and change in routines, goods or services. Traditional ways of production and delivery, whole industries and markets are disrupted through and by a process that Schumpeter calls Creative Destruction.

The questions in an SE context here are for example - what are the processes surrounding the emergence of new social businesses, from innovation through early pioneering ventures and early stages of growth? Industries like the micro-financing banks for example are often seen as being seminal for the development in social entrepreneurship in countries such as Bangladesh (Mair and Marti, 2007, 2009; Mair et al., 2007). As Corner and Ho (2010) find out in their case studies, opportunity recognition and exploitation in an social entrepreneurship context may differ from traditional perspectives. The collective action of multiple actors working together on innovating solutions and thus creating social value would contrast to the largely unquestioned assumption of sole entrepreneurs as value creators in SE (Corner and Ho, 2010; Hockerts, 2006; Peredo and Mclean, 2006; Robinson, 2006). However Corner and Hos' case studies are somewhat limited in scope in order to draw up generalizations yet, however they may point into a direction that should be further examined.

In a recent practitioner oriented workshop (2009) at the Stanford Center for Social Innovation, Jim Phills, from the Fieldstone Foundation, identified the following processes leading to social innovation:

- Exchange of ideas and values between public, private, and the non-profit sectors

- Shifting roles and relationships between business, government and nonprofits
- Blending of market-based principles and mechanisms with public and philanthropic support.

Reflecting these points from a practitioner's perspective on the topics being presented in this thesis; especially its focus on hybridity and the often highly complex interplay between institutions to create social value can easily be verified. In their quest for a legitimization of SE as a distinctive field, researchers are constantly coming up with new reasons for and against, sometimes overlooking the practical implications and the discourse happening outside academia.

Analyzing and reflecting practitioners' approaches on social entrepreneurship, as can be seen in the above example, may however well provide this so-called-for legitimization of SE research - because *a research agenda that is reverberated in the voices of the practitioners, derives its legitimization out of the sheer practical importance and use of its findings.*

2.3.1 The context of entrepreneurship and capitalistic markets

While traditional for-profit entrepreneurship literature provides an excellent ground for a comparison and for setting up a framework, it must however not be forgotten that entrepreneurship research itself is still in its early stages. We feel reminded of the current state of research in SE when Shane and Venkataraman (2007) claim:

To date, the phenomenon of entrepreneurship has lacked a conceptual framework. (p.1.)

Rather than explaining and predicting a unique set of empirical phenomena, entrepreneurship has become a broad label under which a hodgepodge of research is housed. (p.1.)

As Nicholls (2010) sees it, social entrepreneurship research has much in common with the *accumulative fragmentalism* noted by Harrison and Leitch (1996) in the establishment of the field of entrepreneurship (Perrini, 2006). Also, not all forms of entrepreneurship are the same. To use the Low (2006) definition, entrepreneurship can be divided into two basic categories - *innovative and replicative* - and their distinction is important particularly when dealing with social entrepreneurship. Innovative entrepreneurship is the engine of economic growth through wealth creation. Replicative entrepreneurs produce or sell a good or service that is already available through other sources (Shaw, 2004; Shaw and Carter, 2007).

The reason that the difference between the two forms is important in SE research lies in the fact that replicative entrepreneurship is a major avenue for the reduction of poverty and therefore a matter of considerable interest to social entrepreneurs. Replicative entrepreneurship can be accommodated and enhanced through opportunity recognition by administrative and government

bodies and not necessarily by the individual operator. Innovative entrepreneurship is much more connected to individual action that can even be facilitated through *the lack* of administrative and governmental barriers to entry.

Furthermore, when for example considering and comparing the current state of opportunity recognition research, it is imperative to do so in the context of the economic, cultural and environment in which it was studied. Again, referring to Low (2006) there are at least four different types of capitalism and to assume that the incentives, desire and opportunities for entrepreneurship are the same in each case would miss an important point.

Thus when looking at markets and the globalisation of social entrepreneurial initiatives, it is also important to look at the capitalistic context of the settings. The four general types of capitalism presented in their works are:

- I. **state guided capitalism** in which the government tries to guide the market (see for example China, India but also Japan, Germany or Austria).
- II. **oligarchic capitalism** in which the bulk of power and wealth is held by a small group of individuals and families (consider the former Soviet bloc, Latin America, Arabic Middle East).
- III. **big firm capitalism** where most significant economic activity is carried out by established giant firms (consider continental Europe, partly Japan, Korea, partly US).
- IV. **entrepreneurial capitalism** where a significant role is played by small innovative firms (consider Ireland, Israel, UK and US and Nordic countries).

Besides the importance of the capitalistic settings, and as noted before, the social welfare context must not be overlooked in SE research with its dual or even multiple bottom-line between the commercial/ financial and the social mission. A structure for that may be found in Esping-Andersen (2006) *Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism* which will be explained more in-depth later on.

2.4 Finding boundaries to sustainable entrepreneurship and CSR

Among with the field of social entrepreneurship, other sub-fields of entrepreneurship research have gained momentum. Sustainable entrepreneurship and indigenous entrepreneurship for example show several similarities and convergences in approaches by scholars. Defining characteristics of the SE construct can be found in academic literature as displayed before, however none that remains undisputed and, as the author found out in empirical observations, such features are of little meaning to the practitioners out in the field. SE literature

thus is insufficient in drawing boundaries and a closer examination of the bordering fields may provide additional insights and help understand the individual constructs through researchers' dialogue.

Sustainable entrepreneurship is defined by Shepherd and Patzelt (2011) as such:

Sustainable entrepreneurship is focused on the preservation of nature, life support, and community in the pursuit of perceived opportunities to bring into existence future products, processes, and services for gain, where gain is broadly construed to include economic and non-economic gains to individuals, the economy, and society. (p.1)

We immediately see similarities when the authors here call for the gain to 'include economic and non-economic gains'. Also, as the author found in his study on social entrepreneurs in Austria (Lehner, 2011), several SE initiatives target environmental and sustainable production and distribution. So are the constructs of SE and sustainable entrepreneurship partly identical (Choi and Gray, 2004; Darby and Jenkins, 2006; Rotheroe and Richards, 2007), or at least overlapping?

Also what about indigenous entrepreneurship? Peredo et al. (2004) sees:

Indigenous populations throughout the world suffer from chronic poverty, lower education levels, and poor health. The "second wave" of indigenous development, after direct economic assistance from outside, lies in indigenous efforts to rebuild their "nations" and improve their lot through entrepreneurial enterprise. (p.1)

Again, when examining research in SE, especially with a focus on empowerment and the development of entrepreneurial solutions at the bottom of the pyramid (Prahalad, 2010), several similarities can be found. Indigenous populations for example in Canada or India are often the resource-base as well as the target group of social entrepreneurs.

So what are the boundaries of SE to these fields, where do they overlap, where differ and how can one field possibly pollinate the other? These are questions that have yet to be answered in a comprehensive manner. Such similarities and dissimilarities may also lead to interesting developments in research approaches. Findings within the various sub-fields as outlined before could also well increase the available data to enable larger scale studies.

However, when looking at the research communities and their respective canon, there seems to be some kind of semi-permeable membrane between these sub-fields, preventing a full exchange of ideas and data. Few jointly organized conferences exist and the fractions tend to rather demand the inclusion of observed phenomena within their own agenda. To increase the terminological confusion and to provide more evidence for the social construction of the terms, one other related field, corporate social responsibility (CSR) is often even mixed up in narrations of social entrepreneurship.

As Midttun et al. (2006) state, there are several perspectives on CSR. One is to see CSR engagement as a revival of a socially embedded economy, and in contrast to this position exists a strand of CSR research, which sees CSR as dominantly business-driven and detached from political initiatives.

Many scholars define CSR as a means of public relations (PR) with the ultimate aim of creating a competitive advantage through a gain in reputation and legitimacy. Gjøberg (2009) states that while CSR might be of a global nature, recent research suggests that it is applied differently across different social, economic, cultural, legal and political contexts. Fact is that CSR can be seen as a true global concept, disseminated through international and regional institutions and brought to life in various areas through the supply-chains of transnational companies (Gjøberg, 2009). It is also increasingly integrated into the global managerial culture as well as essential for the reputation of a company to be perceived as modern and legitimate. Gjøberg findings on the performance of CSR in different national settings see Switzerland and especially the Nordic states such as Finland, or Scandinavia at the top of the ranking. These findings contradict the theory that CSR activities are higher in neo-liberal countries to compensate for the associated poor social welfare spending (Matten and Moon, 2008; Matten et al., 2004). As Grenness (2003) puts it:

... The Scandinavian model promotes long-term ties between owners, managers, workers, and society, where the role of the company includes promotion of goals of society at large (p.13)

Such a definition comes very close to the EMES definition of social enterprises as described before and only varies in its nuances. Hemingway (2005) furthermore tests the assumption that CSR is not solely driven by economics and that it may also be supported ...

... as a result of a personal morality, inspired by employees' own socially oriented personal values. (p. 233)

In a conceptual framework she puts forward two individual archetypes of managers involved in CSR activities and names these -

- Active or frustrated corporate social entrepreneurs
- Conformists or apathetic

The two types are distinguished by their individualistic and collectivistic personal values. The term social entrepreneur is used here in a different context, yet with a similar meaning to SE, given that these entrepreneurs embrace social goals in their actions while originating from a for-profit enterprise.

In an attempt to explain similarities and differences of CSR in an SE setting, Baron (2007) sees that firms undertake strategic CSR activities to increase profits in gaining a competitive advantage, whereas social entrepreneurs see strategic CSR activities beyond profit and market value maximization. These constructs thus differ in the motivation, intensity and focus of mission and goals (Baron, 2007; Bassen et al., 2005; Brammer and Millington, 2008; Cornelius et al., 2008; Juholin, 2004; Seelos and Mair, 2005a; Trivedi and Stokols, 2011) and of course from a constructivists standpoint also in the perspective of the researcher.

Despite definitions and conceptualizations, there are even more connection points between the two constructs in praxis. Many SE ventures for example derive seed-capital through CSR activities of for-profit companies such as Coca-Cola (Lehner, 2011) and some social entrepreneurs see the consulting of companies regarding CSR strategies as their business model. The concepts of social and sustainable entrepreneurship as well CSR therefore show numerous links and through interaction the boundaries between are constantly moved and thus appear blurred. One approach to overcome the boundary discussion would be to accept these constructs as what they are, dynamically created in discourse, continuously refined and all but static.

2.5 Research methodology in the entrepreneurship domain

Edmondson and Mcmanus (2007) as well as Cummings (2007) contribute to research methodology in business and entrepreneurship through finding and examining attributes for a methodological fitness and robustness in the field. Grant and Perren (2002) examine the field through the framework of Burrell and Morgan (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Jennings et al., 2005) to search for underlying paradigmatic assumptions in entrepreneurship literature.

Given the name of our field, social entrepreneurship (SE), one may derive the conclusion that research on SE is just another offspring of traditional entrepreneurship research and see it embedded in the respective literature canon. However when reading through literature, it becomes eminent that research methodology and inherent paradigms somewhat differ from commercial entrepreneurship literature. Within the field of traditional for-profit entrepreneurship, most of the applied theory of research is located within the bounds of the 'Functionalist' paradigm (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, 2005; Grant and Perren, 2002), and thus characterized by an objectivist perspective and rooted in a regulation view on society (Chell and Pittaway, 1998; Jennings et al., 2005). Nomothetic methods such as multivariate-analysis, theory building and testing, and a focus on the administration and organization are prevalent.

In SE literature however, relatively few authors embark on quantitative, theory testing research from a positivist epistemology, within a realist ontology (Short et al., 2009) - rather the opposite: definitions are called for with caution (Lehner, 2011; Zahra et al., 2009), outcomes depend on the eye of the observer (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Hill et al., 2010; Hoogendoorn et al., 2010), the individual is seen as an important hero-like actor in for example creating opportunities (Drayton, 2006; Mair and Marti, 2009; Peredo and Mclean, 2006; Seelos and Mair, 2005b), and institutions are using different definitions of SE for their own, sometimes divergent and intrinsic agenda and based on their worldview (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Hervieux et al., 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010).

Applying Kuhn (1963), social entrepreneurship appears as a research field in a pre-paradigmatic, yet even nascent state (Kuhn, 1996; Nicholls, 2010; Nicholls and Cho, 2006). In their article Lehner and Kansikas (2011) examine

social entrepreneurship research literature through the lenses of Burrell and Morgan (see figure 8) to identify paradigmatic assumptions and to allow for a comparison with traditional commercial entrepreneurship.

Their findings indicate that SE research indeed differs in methodology and also in the views on society from traditional for-profit entrepreneurship literature. A distinct emphasis on conceptual articles, ideographic methods, social-constructivist approaches and more radical views on society were identified. These results also reverberate in the article of Short et al. (2009), where the majority of the examined articles were conceptual and 74% of the empirical articles were employing qualitative methods.

This may either be seen as a result of the *pre-paradigmatic* stage, as explained before, or on the other hand as a strong indicator of a necessary differentiation of SE research to the approaches of commercial entrepreneurship, conceivably due to the inclusion of the social perspectives and blurred boundaries. Literature itself suggests some reasons for the difference of SE research to commercial entrepreneurship and management that may be based on:

- the structural dichotomy in the name of SE, between *social* and *entrepreneurship*, a tension field both dividing and fertilizing (Chell, 2007).
- SE being a *voluntarily constructed phenomenon* through narration and based on politics, that fails to be understood from a positivist view, as it actually is contextually constructed (Hervieux et al., 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010).
- the early state of the research field, as it needs to borrow qualitative methods to explore and build its theories (Nicholls, 2010) and grow in maturity.
- a paradigmatic shift in the researchers' worldviews themselves - as there is a growing understanding on why and how to employ for example mixed mode designs in a pragmatic approach, a external influence to focus on inter-disciplinarity, and a renewed strong contextual sensibility (Creswell, 2009; Lehner and Kansikas, 2011; Molina-Azorin and Cameron, 2010; Welter, 2011).

TABLE 4 Methods and strategies of inquiry (Short 2009, p.165)

Conceptual articles (N=80)	Count (out of 80)
Purpose	
Descriptive	30 of 80 (38%)
Explanatory	44 of 80 (55%)
Predictive	6 of 80 (7%)
Use of formal propositions	6 of 80 (8%)
Empirical articles (N = 72)	Count (out of 72)
Use of formal propositions or hypotheses	6 of 72 (8%)
Qualitative methods total	54 of 72 (74%)
Case study	43 of 72 (60%)
Grounded theory	8 of 72 (11%)
Discourse analysis	2 of 72 (3%)
Interpretive	1 of 72 (2%)
Quantitative methods total	16 of 72 (22%)
Descriptive statistics	14 of 72 (19%)
Correlations	6 of 72 (8%)
Regression	2 of 72 (3%)
SEM	2 of 72 (3%)
T-tests	1 of 72 (2%)
Ranking	1 of 72 (2%)
Cluster analysis	1 of 72 (2%)
Method of specified total	3 of 72 (4%)
Data collection	
Interviews	49 of 72 (68%)
Secondary data	21 of 72 (29%)
Surveys	16 of 72 (22%)
Observation	10 of 72 (14%)
Source not specified	11 of 72 (15%)

When examining the field and dialogue, it becomes clear that SE research differs from traditional for-profit entrepreneurship research so far (Austin et al., 2006; Cukier et al., 2011). Whether the reason might be the early stage and immaturity of the field or not, context, hybridity and ambiguity of the building blocks must be taken into account when conducting research in SE and therefore methods need to be chosen carefully - to deliver robust findings nevertheless.

3 APPROACHES TO HYBRIDITY IN THE ARTICLES

3.1 Hybridity as a term and concept

The terms hybridity and hybrid have their origins in biological sciences. We see hybridity in biological species developing out of, and based on the rules of natural selection. In other words, hybrids come into existence naturally (intrinsic factors) and develop based on environmental influences (exogenous factors), challenged by natural selection. Hybrids may thus later become the dominant species and as such will influence what is called *the norm*. This seems a particularly interesting (and promising) facet when researching social enterprises and social entrepreneurship. Denominating concepts as *hybrids* has long been a process of *diminishing the value of these* through questioning their “relevance”, their “whatness”. While the demarcation of a living thing as being hybrid may be based upon scientific frameworks, a distinction becomes less clear in sociological constructs. Contemporary organizational research adopts biological hybridity as a metaphor depicting the various ways of organizational transformation (Culpan, 1993; Menard, 2006; Minkoff, 2002). Young (2008); Young (1995) suggests that hybridity in sociological contexts is not a voluntary process. Hybridity in such a context is displayed by Young as:

- a deliberate attempt at disruption (forcing of a single entity into two or more parts)
- a forcing together of unlike things and concepts (making one from two or more distinct items)

Both processes include the application of “force”, a term implying *disruption, hindering or pushing*. We can see such repercussions of force for example in the dealing with hybrids in gender issues. To reflect on SE research, the author sees several impacts of the *hybridization* there. First, as there does not exist a framework (as in natural sciences) for categorization, it will remain difficult, perhaps impossible to generally agree on defining a social venture as belonging to a cer-

tain category (or not). While such a definition should not matter in providing the social service aimed for, it can become a big practical hurdle in gaining for example a certain legal status, or access to philanthropic or public capital. In addition such hybridity prevents theoretical modeling and quantitative testing as explained before. Second, combining this inferred outcome with the processes identified by Young, we can derive that denominating SE as being a *hybrid* almost certainly indicates a political dimension. Early evidence is provided in Dey and Steyaert (2010), when he examines narratives of Social Entrepreneurship (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010). He exposes a high level of univocity, unambiguousness, one-sidedness as well as a quasi-religious makeover in the grand narration of SE, often unreflected and utterly political. Blowing the same horn, Nicholls (2010), writes about the reflexive isomorphistic legitimization of SE definitions, based upon some institutions' worldview, in order to prevail in a self-inflicted power struggle (=force). In the following chapters, the author will thus

- a. examine evidence for hybridization in the SE context,
- b. propose and test social-origins and neo-institutional theory in his own research articles, in order to enlighten the historical dimensions, and
- c. finally, in the chapter on *philosophical positioning and methodology*, reflect on possible approaches to hybridity in SE research.

3.2 Ambiguity, blurred boundaries and dichotomies

As stated before, social entrepreneurship (SE) as a denomination for a social venture or as the concept of such is far from being well defined. Researchers agree that one obstacle to deal with is the ambiguity of SE definitions. Some argue that this ambiguity stems from an inherent hybridity of the concept and present the following examples (Dees and Anderson, 2006; Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Nicholls, 2006; Nicholls, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006):

- Social and entrepreneurship as a structural dichotomy because of different inherent and culturally attached values
- Social entrepreneurship does not necessarily lead to social enterprises and vice versa
- SE is taking place in between public, market and civil society
- The entrepreneurial motivation torn between doing *social good* and *money accumulation* for financial sustainability.
- SE leadership between individual motivation, collective action and public benefit
- SE workforce often appears to be the target group as well, and as such customers and workforce are identical

From a social constructivist's perspective therefore, two questions arise:

1. First, are we too quick in arguing that there is such a thing as dichotomy between social and entrepreneurship or are these terms again are just culturally loaded?
2. Second, if this dichotomy in its true antagonistic meaning is present in cultural settings providing the context for social entrepreneurs, is it then legit when researchers diminish the dividing forces by accepting them as hybridity, even calling that hybridity simply a *dual bottom line* and through that integrate it without much further ado?

In other words, are we presented with a false-dilemma or do we deal with it too lightly? Also what was also found out in their paper concerning research methodology (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011), research in SE is often paradigmatically based upon such pre-assumptions of the nature of hybridity (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Moss et al., 2010; Short et al., 2009; Steyaert and Dey, 2010) and this in itself will prohibit further generalization.

Literature either focuses on one aspect, neglecting the other (Adam, 2008) or brings together seemingly dividing aspects without much consideration (Edwards and Edwards, 2008). Dees and Anderson (2006) put up a Social Enterprise hybrid spectrum (see figure 3) and Weerawardena and Mort (2006) elaborate further on it by examining literature as well as case studies to draw up a bounded multidimensional model of social entrepreneurship.

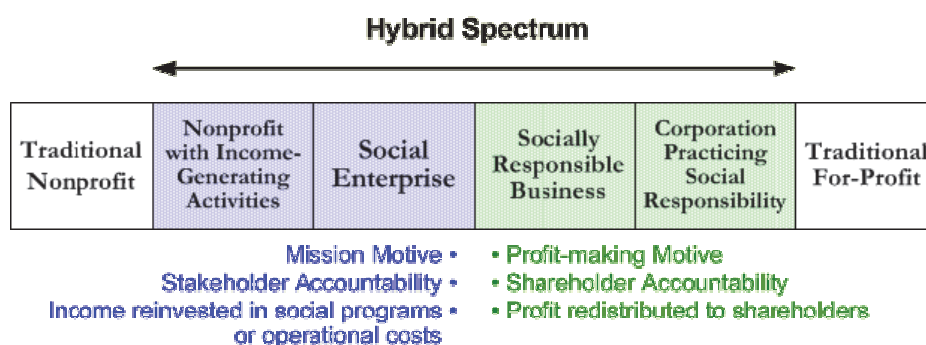


FIGURE 3 Hybrid spectrum adapted from Dees and Anderson (2006)

What should be noted however is, that this hybridity cannot be seen as static, rather the opposite. External changes (e.g. on legislation, different opportunities) as well as intrinsic motivational forces (e.g. financial stress, changes in management or even in personal goals) may lead to a change in the intensity between the social and commercial side.

As Hockerts (2010) points out, there are two archetypical reactions found in social entrepreneurs when tension arises -

... a retreat towards the philanthropic core or a partial abandoning of the social objectives in favor of a business oriented approach. (p.177)

3.3 Schools of thought in SE research

Hoogendoorn et al. (2010) draw up an excellent overview of schools of thought in social entrepreneurship research, integrating also an emerging stream of a divergence between the American and European tradition of conducting social entrepreneurship research.

TABLE 5 Schools of thought in SE (Hoogendoorn 2010, p.80)

Variable	American Tradition		European Tradition	
	Social Innovation School (SIS)	Social Enterprise School (SES)	EMES approach	UK approach
Unit of Observation	Individual	Enterprise	Enterprise	Enterprise
Link mission services	Direct	Direct/ indirect	Direct	Direct/ indirect
Legal structure	No constraints	Non-profit	Some constraints	No constraints
Innovation	Prerequisite	Not emphasized (n/e)	n/e	n/e
Profit distribution	No constraints	Constraint	Limited	Limited
Earned income	n/e	Prerequisite	n/e	Important
Governance	n/e	n/e	Multiple stakeholder involvement emphasized	Multiple stakeholder involvement recommended

3.3.1 The social innovation school of thought (SIS)

Perhaps the most influential school of thought for this thesis, the social innovation school focuses on the individual, searching and tackling social problems in a creative and innovative manner. We see these individuals also in Zahras typology as Bricoleurs, Constructionists and Engineers. For this school of thought,

Bill Drayton (2002, 2006), founder of Ashoka (www.ashoka.org) is considered the leading figure. Its streams and influences come from the body of knowledge of commercial entrepreneurship and more deeply from themes such as opportunity recognition and exploitation (Cha and Bae, 2010; Hockerts, 2006; Hsieh et al., 2007; Mair and Marti, 2006; Mair et al., 2007; Rice et al., 2001; Sarasvathy et al., 2005; Shane and Eckhardt, 2003; Short et al., 2010). These themes and topics were explored more in-depth in the preceding chapters in this thesis. In this school of thought, opportunities seem to stem from social needs and are exploited through the use of innovative commercial approaches.

3.3.2 The social enterprise school of thought (SES)

The focal point in this school of thought is the enterprise, often described as *an entrepreneurial, non-profit venture, that generates earned-income while serving a social mission* (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010). The main objective of these streams of commercial income is the reduction of the dependency from donations, subsidies and grants. Important figures in creating the discourse of this field are, amongst others, Edward Skloot and Jerr Boschee. One notable difference to other schools is, that the commercial appendix of the enterprise is often not related to the social mission and purely used for financing reasons. The level of research in the SES is the organisation, with a focus on (strategic) management, the transformation of traditional NPOs and NGOs to social enterprises, as well as the creation of new enterprises within this definition as offsprings of traditional NPOs.

3.3.3 The EMES approach

Due to the recognition of *social enterprise* as an important and self-driven phenomenon within the European Union, the EMES, a research network for social enterprises was founded in 1996. Its main research objectives are the comparison of the emergence and growth of SE throughout Europe. For that reason, the EMES puts considerable effort in drawing up frameworks and definitions for SE. Again, the unit of observation is the social enterprise more than the individual actor, but there is no strict rule to that. According to the EMES definition, a SE has an explicit aim to benefit the community, is launched by a group of citizens, enjoys a high degree of autonomy, is participatory in nature, and does not base decision-making power on capital ownership. Notably, in contrast to the SES, which prohibits the distribution of profits, the EMES definition allows for some profit distribution, for example among cooperatives (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010). One other distinct difference is that the income generating business needs to be related (or even be identical) to the social activities within the EMES set of characteristics.

3.3.4 The UK approach

Dialogue concerning SE in the UK context is seemingly further developed compared to other European countries. Part of the reason may be the intense politi-

cal focus in the UK on partnerships between civil society, the private and the public sector. Several politically endorsed organizations, such as the Social Enterprise Coalition or even a designated social enterprise unit within the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) foster and further develop the scene of SEs in the UK and keep the discourse running. The Dti (2002) defines a SE as a

... business with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in the business or the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximize profits for shareholders and owners. (p.2)

This advanced development and embracement of the SE in the UK can also be understood in the context of a liberal regime of social welfare provision (Esping-Andersen, 2006). The UK is one of the few countries with an up-to-date legal form for SEs, the Community Interest Company (CIC). However, as Nicholls found out in current on going research, this legal form also hinders flexibility and can lead to unnecessary firm-conglomerates, solely to serve for the different legal needs and modes of operation.

3.4 Disciplines and approaches in SE research

Literature in SE research as a whole is still largely phenomenon driven (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010; Lehner and Kansikas, 2011; Light, 2009; Short et al., 2009) and as such highly conceptual. However it is important to see that within certain schools of thought, for example in the UK canon, these findings may not hold true on a global integrated scale, as we see several empirical and also quantitative approaches for example in the UK based Social Enterprise Journal, however often within an organizational perspective on SE.

Social entrepreneurship as an emerging research field has been well received by authors from a variety of disciplines and perspectives (Ireland and Webb, 2007b; Mair and Marti, 2006; Short et al., 2009) such as:

- *sociological perspectives, e.g. on values* (Hockerts et al., 2010; Vasi and Ziegler, 2009)
- *entrepreneurship* (Chell et al., 2010; Corner and Ho, 2010)
- *(public) management* (Bagnoli and Megali, 2009; Meyskens et al., 2010)
- *ethics* (Cornelius et al., 2008)
- *finance* (Austin et al., 2006)
- *politics and institutions* (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Hemerijck, 2002)
- *psychology and education* (Chand and Misra, 2009)

Nicholls (2010) however characterizes this variety as a:

... multidisciplinary contest over the epistemology of the field that has failed to set any normative boundaries around the term. (p. 613)

Accordingly, applied themes, frameworks and theories from different disciplines were examined (Ireland and Webb, 2007b; Lehner and Kansikas, 2011; Short et al., 2009) in current literature and are displayed here based on the findings of Lehner and Kansikas (2011):

TABLE 6 SE themes in literature (Lehner and Kansikas 2011, p.16)

Found themes, theories and frameworks	Occurrence (+ to +++)
Innovation	+++
Bricolage, Improvisation	+++
Opportunity Recognition & Creation	+++
Strategy	++
Politics/ Institutionalism	++
Change	+++
Leadership	+
Behaviourism/ Psychology	++
Finance/ Accounting	+
Culture	+
Networking/ Social Capital	+++
Public management/ Welfare	++
Resource Based View	++
Critical Discourse	++
Management	++
Ecology	+
Public Relations (CSR)	++
Growth/ Scaling	+

We see that entrepreneurial topics such as innovation, Bricolage, social capital or opportunity recognition are well represented in the literature canon. These themes are more connected to the social innovation school of thought (SIS) with the entrepreneur and her motivations and actions as the unit of research.

Strategy and growth motives were rather under-represented in the findings. Also what was found missing for example were the role of risk, technology, experience, and education (Schendel and Hitt, 2007). Also the finance, accounting, operational research and organization management canon appears sparsely populated (except in an UK context). One limit of the findings may stem from the fact that still much of research concerning these topics even in an SE context is located within the non-profit and social management literature, and was as such not visible in the study, because of either missing overlapping references or key words to SE.

Ecology however seems to have recently found its way into SE as more and more papers emerge since 2010 (Trivedi, 2010). The transformation of social entrepreneurs into more managerial oriented social enterprises and sub sequential scaling, for example through franchising (Tracey and Jarvis, 2007), is still an almost un-researched and promising field that was called for in literature.

As stated before, approaches count relatively large on the conceptual side. Short et al. (2009) identify conceptual domains informing social entrepreneurship research. These domains may help in structuring the field and also provide a framework for classification:

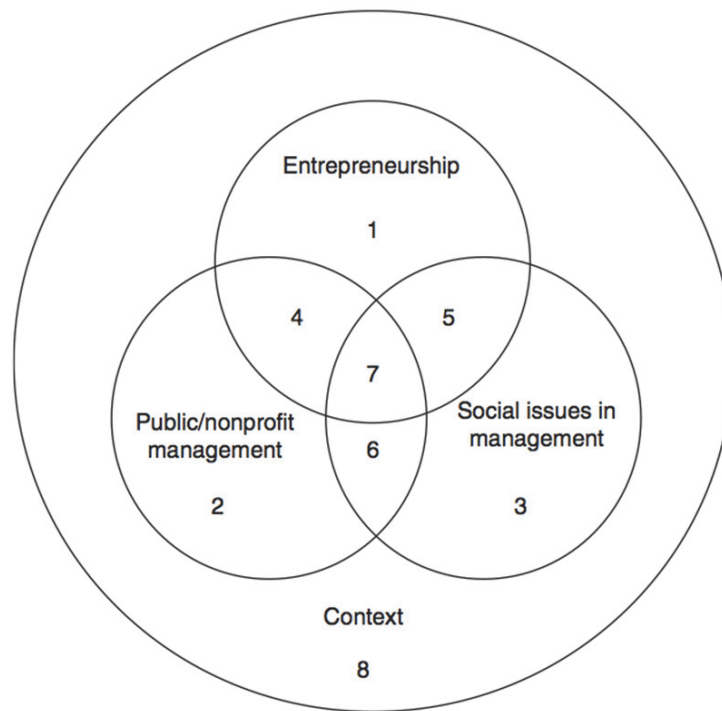


FIGURE 4 Conceptual domains in SE (Short 2009, p.170)

1. the contribution of entrepreneurship research, with a focus on value creation and opportunity recognition.
2. the contribution of public and non-profit research, with a focus on regulation and planning
3. the contribution of organisational science, with a focus on the interplay between organizations, their stakeholders and the environment
4. the intersection between entrepreneurship and public/non-profit research with a focus on the creation or growing of non-profit organization based upon unfulfilled social needs
5. the intersection between entrepreneurship and management is concerned with new value creation that impacts the relationship between organizations and societal stakeholders in various environments in new ways.
6. the intersection between public/non-profit management and organizational science, concerned with the execution of social policies and programs by existing non-profit and public sector organizations

7. the overlapping between entrepreneurship, organizational science and public/non-profit management informs social entrepreneurship through a focus on creating and balancing both social and economic value to the benefit of collective, rather than individual, interests.
8. this section highlights the influence of the context, pertaining for example to cultural, economic and market factors, that may serve as catalysts for entrepreneurial activities.

3.5 Comparative approaches to social entrepreneurship

From a comparative point of view, only few theories and frameworks have been proposed. Over the last few years researchers within the European research network EMES have come up with new findings on convergences and divergences of social entrepreneurship within Europe and the US and developed a multidisciplinary framework to explore social enterprises within the EU context (Jacques Defourny, 2009; Nyssens et al., 2006). Kerlin (2010) has created and subsequently tested a framework of dimensions to enable a comparative approach based upon a socioeconomic context. Both frameworks build and extend upon research of the *John Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project* (Salamon and Anheier, 1997; Salamon et al., 2000) that was conducted in 22 countries during the 1990s. Salamon et al. draw upon these findings as well as on social origins theory (Wagner, 2000) which, at its very basic level, explains how the development of new institutions is limited by existing social institutions and patterns. In addition, earlier works by Esping-Andersen (Esping-Andersen, 2006), distinguishing three worlds of welfare capitalism, have also had a great impact on these studies.

The approaches by the EMES as well as Kerlin are based upon certain ontological and epistemological perspectives, namely that there exists such a thing as a distinctive non-profit sector and that a framework of dimensions is suitable to describe and later explain differences. Kerlin also assumes that social enterprises are closely related to the non-profit sector, based upon earlier findings that the vast majority of social enterprises have civil society organizations as their base and thus social origins theory can be used. However looking from an entrepreneurship perspective one must be careful not to mix different datasets.

Neo-institutionalism theory may also be helpful in understanding, especially the often very identical (isomorph) organizational structure of some NPOs and social enterprises through examining the way institutions interact and the way they affect society. This theory provides a way of viewing institutions outside of the traditional views of economics and allows focusing on how they shape the behavior of individual members.

Kerlin's framework, albeit stemming from an organizational and non-profit perspective of SE, is thus a promising approach to a comparative approach to social enterprises and perhaps social entrepreneurship. It is based on social origins theory and includes institutional perspectives. Part of its founda-

tions stem from Esping-Anderson's three worlds of welfare capitalism that are explored more in-depth in the following chapter.

3.6 Three worlds of welfare capitalism

The perspective on the dynamics of institutional choice is well reflected in the work of Esping-Andersen (1990) on the origins of the modern capitalistic welfare state, and more generally in the works of Moore and Müller (1969) on the "social origins" of fascism and democracy.

Their main line of thought is the notion that complex social phenomena such as a *welfare state* cannot be the outcome of single factors or actors. Multifaceted interactions and relations between actors, factors and institutions are displayed as the building blocks for these phenomena.

On the basis of this mode of analysis, Esping-Andersen identifies three types of *welfare regimes*:

1. the **liberal** welfare state common in Anglo-Saxon countries and is characterized by limited, means-tested assistance with strict entitlement rules and a strong belief in the markets.
2. the **corporatist** welfare state, more common in *Bismarckian* states such as Germany, Austria or Belgium, where intermediaries between the state and the beneficiaries supply welfare assistance but do not help much in reducing the dependencies through for example empowerment.
3. the **social democratic** welfare state of Nordic countries, characterized by universalism and a complete separation of welfare provision (through the state) from the market system ("decommodification").

Social welfare provision is often the main business model for social enterprises and as a result, SEs sometimes compete with traditional non-profit organizations in that very field. Besides the inevitable power-play and competition in a field that is suddenly disrupted by innovative forces such as SE, the different welfare states, their traditions as well as their implicit and explicit regimes play an important role and set up a context that must not be overlooked.

Especially the sometimes even outright hostile forces of perseverance of traditional forms, modes and organizations can be seen as an important factor in the creation and propagation of social entrepreneurship (Hemerijck, 2002). This was well experienced and identified in the studies conducted by the author in the Austrian context of SEs. Even researchers of various fields in the traditional non-profit sector were evidently protective of their respective frameworks and of an assumed business-logic that seems to reject the mere notion of including entrepreneurial market approaches within the non-profit sector.

3.7 A social origins approach to social enterprises

In *A Comparative Analysis of the Global Emergence of Social Enterprise* Kerlin (2010) examines the different factors shaping social enterprises (SEs) in seven regions and countries. For that purpose she draws on social origins theory (Anheier and Salamon, 2006; Esping-Andersen, 1990; Esping-Andersen, 1999; Hemerijck, 2002; Moore and Müller, 1969; Moore et al., 2010; Salamon and Anheier, 1997; Salamon and Sokolowsky, 2004; Salamon et al., 2000), recent comparative research (Defourny and Nyssens, 2009; Jacques Defourny, 2009; Kerlin, 2006, 2007; Kerlin, 2009; Nyssens et al., 2006), as well as on global socioeconomic data from the World Bank.

Social origins theory provides an approach for understanding the formation of new organizations in various national and regional contexts. At its most basic level, the theory explains how existing social institutions and patterns constrain the options available for the development of new institutions – in this case the development of nonprofit sectors in different countries (Salamon et al., 2000).

In the case of SEs, such a perspective can provide an explanation for the international variation of corresponding organizations that we observe. Salamon et al. (2000) Anheier and Salamon (2006); Salamon et al. (2000) were using social origins theory within the non-profit sector, and based it on data produced by the *Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project*, which was conducted in 22 countries in the 1990s. Their findings are that variations in nonprofit sectors across different countries in scale, composition, and financial base can be explained by their respective social, economic, and political contexts. As the vast majority of social enterprises have civil society organizations as their base (Kerlin, 2007, 2010; Kerlin, 2009), social origins theory can be used as a relatively close analogy for developing a framework to enable the comparison and understanding of international social enterprise formation and variation.

Salamon et al.'s analysis focuses on the size of two variables: the large or small size of the nonprofit sector and high or low government social welfare spending. Using different combinations of these characteristics, they created four models of third-sector regimes: liberal, statist, corporatist, and social democratic (see table 7).

Salamon et. al. then analyzed how the historical forces, which in-term had a shaping influence on the size of the nonprofit sector and the amount of social welfare spending, formed these regimes. In order to understand the influential aspects behind the size of nonprofit sectors, they built upon Moore and Müller (1969) study on the social origins of different government regimes. In their study, a theory is built up explaining how the interrelationships between different classes create the conditions that result in large or small civil societies. Moore and Müller however emphasize primarily the dominant and subordinate classes, which were mainly engaged in agriculture, and only put a secondary focus on the nature of the links between the landowners and the bourgeoisie.

Salamon et. al. also embraced findings by (Esping-Andersen, 1989, 1990, 1996); Esping-Andersen (2006) and her study of the origins of the modern welfare state to examine the forces creating different levels of government welfare spending.

TABLE 7 Third sector regimes (Kerlin 2010, p. 166)

Government social welfare spending	Nonprofit scale	
	Small	Large
Low	Statist (e.g. Argentina, Japan)	Liberal (e.g. US, UK)
High	Social Democratic (e.g. Hungary, Nordic Countries)	Corporatist (e.g. Netherlands, Germany, Austria)

As stated before, this social origins approach can provide a starting point for examining the factors associated with the development of social enterprises around the world. In addition to civil society and government characteristics that influence nonprofit sectors, research in SE has also found two additional factors as being essential in characterizing social enterprise: *the market and international aid* (Nicholls and Cho, 2006). In particular Nicholls and Cho (2006) include the context of market in their considerations on how SE appears to be positioned differently in various societies. Kerlin (2009) identifies international aid as a possible fourth influential factor. The underlying assumption in this framework is that a social enterprise in a given society is more or less strongly associated with the four elements of (1) civil society, (2) state capacity, (3) market functioning, and (4) international aid, depending on their strength or weakness in the surrounding environment.

Based upon Kerlin, the author of this study identifies six influential variables for the shape of social enterprises in the different regions and countries (see figure 5). However to include a broader perspective on social entrepreneurship, not limited to findings on social enterprises, another variable, the entrepreneur was added to the construct, with a focus on the entrepreneurial aspects as discussed earlier in the chapters.

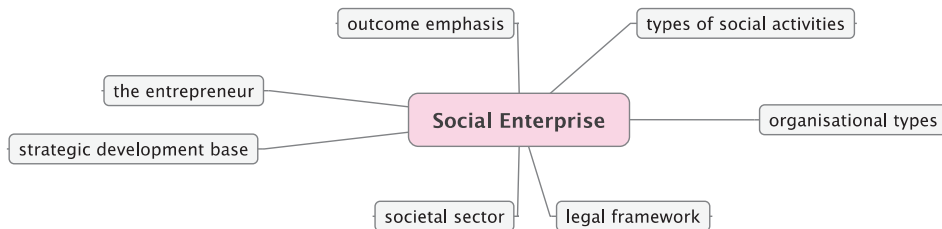


FIGURE 5 Framework based upon Kerlin (2010)

The outcome emphasis. Is the focus of the social enterprise on an immediate social benefit like in many Western Europe countries or rather self-sustainability as it is prevalent in many regions in Africa, Asia or South-America?

The types of social activities. In East-Central Europe most of the activities are encompassed by employment or human services, In the U.S. however, the field is much bigger and diverse, almost all types of social activities can be found (Defourny and Nyssens, 2009).

Organisational types. Defourny and Nyssens (2009) argue that in countries with “Bismarckian” tradition (Esping-Andersen, 1990) intermediate bodies play an important role in the management of social insurance and the provision of social services. Defourny and Nyssens (2008) further states that these countries are characterized by large non-profit private organizations, that are mainly financed and regulated by public bodies (Zauner et al., 2006) In many Anglo-Saxian countries like the UK or the US, the sole social entrepreneur and his small business plays a major role in delivering social services (Harding and Harding, 2010; Light, 2006, 2009). What organization types can be found - collectives, sole entrepreneurs, public-private mixtures and what shapes these?

The legal framework. The legal framework is very important when it comes to issues like taxes, participation, equity capital, dividend payouts and grants. Very few countries have passed legislation concerning social enterprises as understood in a modern way, amongst the UK (CIC) the US (L3C) or Italy. Other countries are trying to adopt traditional legal forms, however with mixed success.

The societal sector. In “Bismarckian” countries, most of the social enterprises can be placed in the so called social economy (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008), whereas in many regions of the world, social enterprises compete in the market economy. Also the influence of volunteers work in the civil sector must not be overlooked.

Strategic development base. What sources of funding and development initiatives of social enterprises are available? This includes international aid programmes like in many parts of Africa or private foundations and the business world as well as state-run programmes. As with the for profit sector, this development base also includes among others factors such as human resources, materials and infrastructure.

4 OVERVIEW OF THE ORIGINAL RESEARCH PAPERS

4.1 Article I: "The Phenomenon of Social Enterprise in Austria: A Triangulated Descriptive Study"

Article I examines the phenomena of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship in Austria. It draws from social-origins theory and research on non-profit organizations conducted by the Vienna University of Business and Economics.

Title	The Phenomenon of Social Enterprise in Austria: A Triangulated Descriptive Study. (Lehner, 2011)
Authors	Lehner, O.M.
Aims	Explore the phenomenon in Austria and contribute to comparative studies
Research Questions	Can SE in Austria be found, what characteristics do they show
Theoretical Background	Neo-Institutionalism and Social Origins Theory
Methodology	Mixed Method - qualitative exploration, quantitative survey, qualitative triangulation through interviews and focus groups.
Main Findings and Conclusions	Comparative findings to Kerlin's and the EMES approach of SE characteristics for Austria. Distinctive focus on environmental social entrepreneurship, resulting from idiosyncratic social-economy politics (eco-social market economy)
Contributions	Insights into the country specific context of SE in Austria
Publication	Routledge: Journal of Social Entrepreneurship

4.1.1 Abstract

There is little to no existing research on the phenomenon of social enterprises (SEs) in Austria. To enable subsequent comparative studies, the author first traces social enterprises' conceptual underpinnings from most current research

found in leading journals and subsequently creates a framework based upon social origins theory for use on Austria's social enterprises. In order to validate the findings, the author employs a triangulated research approach, including an online-based survey, semi-structured interviews and two panel discussions. Social enterprises in Austria are characterized through social activities, organizational types, legal forms, the society sector, the outcome emphasis, and the strategic development base. The social entrepreneur him/ herself was included as a source for a qualitative triangulation as well as a distinctive item. Austria's SEs are found to work in a multitude of fields, are independent, use market-based approaches, employ improvisation and innovation for the creation of social good and incorporate a strong entrepreneurial spirit.

4.1.2 Findings and Conclusions

Two aspects became prevalent during the study. First, there is a difference between social enterprises and traditional non-profit organizations in Austria and second, not all results for the Western European region as found in Kerlin (2010; 2009) can be applied to Austria.

The study clearly showed that a social enterprise as an entrepreneurial business concept in Austria differs from traditional non-profit organizations in this country. Single characteristics or traits, like for example a focus on income generation from market based activities, voluntarism or a prominent motivation of doing social good however were seen to overlap, and are thus not useful to employ for a sharp distinction.

What was found to provide a differentiation between traditional non-profits and social enterprises was a combination of the characteristics, which was deliberately created by the social entrepreneur him/herself. This combination included a high level of autonomy, a significant amount of risk taking, a focus on income generation for the venture and the entrepreneur himself, and the strong motivation to constantly innovate and improvise for the purpose of creating social value. The study showed that, corresponding with Haugh's (2005) theoretical base, a combination of a social purpose, together with an entrepreneurial spirit, as opposed to either, the prevalent managerialism in many traditional non-profits, or the philanthropist non-profit spirit, can be seen as a constitutive factor of Austria's social entrepreneurial ventures. However, as being spirited is a personal trait, and managerialism on the other hand is often a mere consequence of the needs for scaling or competition, longitudinal research on social enterprises may provide additional insights, especially as many Austrian's social enterprises are still at a very early maturity stage. Such studies can aim to find out for example, whether this uniqueness in entrepreneurial spirit will change through maturing and scaling, and thus blur the boundaries once more.

In order to enable subsequent comparative analysis, the empirical findings have been explored, triangulated and clustered. To provide an anchor for further studies of similarities or dissimilarities, possible convergences and divergences of the development of social enterprises including Austria, and allow for

interdisciplinary research from a political, cultural or historical context the quintessential findings of this study are presented based upon Kerlin (2010) framework.

TABLE 8 Comparison of SE in Austria to Kerlin (2010)

Dimensions	Austria	Western Europe (Source: Kerlin 2010)	Eastern Europe (Source: Kerlin 2010)
Outcome emphasis	Social and ecological benefit	Social benefit	Social benefit
Program area focus	Human services/ employment/ environment	Human services/ employment	Human services/ employment
Common organizational Type	Small business entrepreneurs, associations	Association/ cooperative	Association/ cooperative
Legal framework	gGmbH to some extent, no plans for a special legal form for SE	Developing	Developing
Societal sector	Eco-social market economy	Social economy	Social economy
Strategic development base	Government/ EU/ private, crowd based initiatives	Government/ EU	International donors/ EU

The findings for Austria came up with some different results than Kerlin presented for Western Europe. This once more displays the need for a cautious, granular approach in researching social enterprises from a comparative point of view and that the available data may not be sufficient for any generalizations on a global scale.

Austria's social enterprises are relatively young, independently owned and mostly not affiliated to large, traditional non-profit organizations. While in some countries and regions such organizations often embrace the concept of a social enterprise to generate additional income, this is certainly not true for Austria. There almost seems to be a rivalry about legitimization within the delivery of social welfare.

Another good example of a difference is a focus on ecological issues within the types of social activities and a great variation within the fields, in contrast to a prevalent opinion that the focus would be on the delivery of social welfare and employment services. Western Europe as a region differs also in the creation of special legal forms for social enterprises. While Italy or the UK already have advanced concepts, Austria still struggles to adapt the non-profit form of a gGmbH. for this purpose.

Also the society sector is quite unique in Austria. Due to the development of the *Ökosoziale Marktwirtschaft* (eco-social market economy) as Austria's economical and political system over the last decades - rules, regulations and the meaning of public/private and civil society are somewhat different to other countries. Market based ventures often automatically include a stakeholder par-

ticipation. Austria's social enterprises are therefore found to be somewhere in between the civil society and the market. As a strategic development base the study found several new forms of crowd-sourcing while the government and the EU still have a very big impact.

4.2 Article II: "Social Entrepreneurship Research across Disciplines: Paradigmatic and Methodological Considerations"

Article II examines paradigmatic underpinnings and methodological approaches found in social entrepreneurship research. 323 research articles on SE have been analyzed using the framework of Burrell and Morgan (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) and contributing disciplines were identified.

Title	Social Entrepreneurship Research across Disciplines: Paradigmatic and Methodological Considerations (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011)
Authors	Lehner, O.M. and Kansikas, J.
Aims	Identify disciplines, paradigms and applied methods in SE research
Research Questions	What inherent paradigms can be found in SE literature.
Theoretical Background	Using Burrell and Morgans framework
Methodology	Meta analysis, coding for proxy textual artifacts in 323 articles, inter-coder reliability measurements, multiple-evidence triggers, sophisticated search and selection process for literature
Main Findings and Conclusions	SE research differs from traditional entrepreneurship research. Most scholars are using an Interpretivist paradigm whereas in commercial entrepreneurship it is mainly Functionalist
Contributions	Raising awareness for, and further developing a methodological fitness in SE research.
Publication	EMES Conference Papers, 3rd EMES Conference in Roskilde, Denmark and later published in the Social Science Research Network SSRN - Social Entrepreneurship eJournal SSRN: http://ssrn.com/abstract=1896380

4.2.1 Abstract

Social entrepreneurship research has recently been presented in literature as a field of action in a pre-paradigmatic state, a field that lacks an established epistemology. Despite that important facet, several major qualitative and

quantitative studies have already been undertaken on the sole base of some institutions' worldview. Structuralists and social constructivists approaches have found much ambivalence in these and even question social entrepreneurship's legitimization as a distinctive item of research generally. Articles on the topic of social entrepreneurship apply a great variety of frameworks, borrowing for example from neo-institutional or dialectic theory, bringing with them many different research methods and views from other disciplines. Instead of proposing another conceptual approach and yet contributing to the ongoing discussion, the authors enact on a deductive journey by examining and clustering underlying paradigmatic assumptions found in current literature based on the framework of Burrell and Morgan. Prevalent paradigms in social entrepreneurship literature are thus identified and correlated to disciplines and schools of thoughts. The authors find that from a longitudinal perspective social entrepreneurship research has undergone several paradigmatic *leitmotifs* over the years 2005 to 2010 and the applied methods and approaches differ between researchers from various disciplines.

4.2.2 Findings and Conclusions

The high percentage of conceptual papers may be seen as a sign that SE research is still in flux, searching for direction and legitimacy, and that commonly accepted theories are still rare. Some scholars from the management sciences argue that only when *a theory* has been found and research (meaning data gathering and analytical) methods are typically quantitative, only then the field gains legitimacy (Cummings, 2007). However, paradigms as well as methodological fits (Edmondson and Mcmanus, 2007) in SE literature have been shown to differ from commercial management and entrepreneurship literature. Thus, Cummings legitimacy criteria may not be applicable in SE.

While some may see the found mixed approaches as erroneous and deny methodological robustness in these papers, others may embrace them as a new dawn on how research in SE should be done.

It may be interesting to see whether these approaches will hold only in a seemingly constructed field with such a diverse background in theories and disciplines, or may actually reflect back on commercial entrepreneurship and management research and thus break the dominance of the "Functionalist" paradigm in these.

4.3 Article III: "Opportunity Recognition in Social Entrepreneurship: A Thematic Meta Analysis"

Article III draws on the views of Opportunity Recognition (OR) as being at the heart of entrepreneurship. As a thematic meta-analysis, existing case studies on

Social Entrepreneurship (SE) are examined and evaluated to find out differences and similarities of OR in a SE context.

Title	Opportunity Recognition in Social Entrepreneurship: A Thematic Meta Analysis (Lehner and Kansikas, 2012)
Authors	Lehner, O.M. and Kansikas, J.
Aims	Examine the OR process in social entrepreneurship through the lenses of Sarasvathys' three views on OR
Research Questions	Are there differences between OR in commercial and social entrepreneurship? Is there a paradigmatical difference between the perception of OR and the schools of thought in SE literature
Theoretical Background	Graphing theory in coding and clustering
Methodology	Meta study on literature, coding and categorizing, inter-coder reliability measurements
Main Findings and Conclusions	OR is different in an SE context, but also heavily influenced by the own perceptions of the corresponding authors. Opportunities are presented differently among the schools of thought
Contributions	As OR is very much at the heart of entrepreneurship and well examined in the commercial entrepreneurship literature, OR in an SE context sheds new light on the inner processes of social entrepreneurs
Publication	SAGE Journal of Entrepreneurship

4.3.1 Abstract

Opportunity recognition (OR) is at the very heart of entrepreneurship. However research on OR in the context of social entrepreneurship is still in its early stages. This paper identifies, codifies and analyses OR relevant articles on social entrepreneurship (SE) through the lens of Sarasvathy's three views of entrepreneurial opportunity recognition. In a second step, statistical methods are applied on the results to indicate possible correlations of different schools of thought in SE and views of OR. OR in social ventures is found to be a prevalent topic in SE literature and differences in OR between social and commercial ventures are found.

4.3.2 Findings and Conclusions

It became prevalent in the evaluation, that the Allocative View (AV), with a focus on the system and not on individuals or firms, could not be derived from, nor was it discussed in social entrepreneurship literature. In contrast to literature on non-profit organizations, the innovative social entrepreneur or enterprise is the main protagonist in current SE research. Therefore assumptions in the AV, for example that all economic agents are equally likely to detect a given

opportunity, or on the markets being in a competitive equilibrium are not addressed in social entrepreneurship literature.

Creative View (CV) on the other hand is emphasized in research from both, the SIS and UK schools of thought. Often creativity is seen as being responsible for bringing about systematic change through creating role models for social provision. For a simple triangulation, the authors contacted some of the researchers and started discussions on the findings. It became emergent that even though, based on the derived codes, their work would fit in the Discovery View (DV) perspective on opportunity recognition, several authors would rather have them put in the CV perspective due to their own paradigmatic views, especially from the UK and SIS school of thought. Discovery View however could be identified in papers from all schools and can be seen as a link between all schools of thought. While the authors are aware of the constraints for generalization of any quantitative evaluation in this case due to the limited number of articles, the percentages are presented as indicators.

TABLE 9 Conditional probability OR views/ SE schools

Evaluation (Conditional Probability)	Percentage
P(CV/ SIS)	37.5%
P(DV/ SIS)	50.0%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ SIS)	12.5%
P(CV/ UK)	44.4%
P(DV/ UK)	33.3%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ SIS)	22.2%
P(DV/ SES)	66.7%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ SES)	33.3%
P(DV/ EMES)	66.7%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ EMES)	33.3%

At least an indication to a linkage between the fields of opportunity recognition and the perspectives derived from the so called schools of thought within social entrepreneurship (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010) can be found. Among the very active Social Innovation School for example, social entrepreneurs are often presented as creating new opportunities through innovation with the purpose of social value creation and bringing about change. The UK as well as the EMES school find examples of locally embedded entrepreneurs, that make use of their intrinsic knowledge to find and exploit opportunities from a disequilibrium. A network representation of the OR/ SE schools correlation was built up to allow for an explorative understanding (see figure 6).

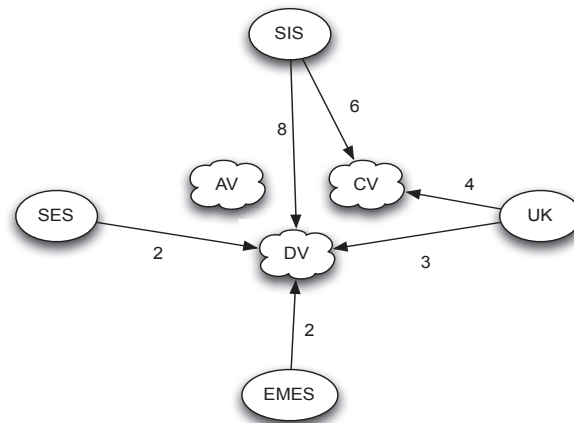


FIGURE 6 Network representation of OR views / SE schools

4.4 Article IV: “Soziale Innovation durch Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich”

Article IV addresses the topic of innovation in a social entrepreneurship context in Austria. Innovation and underlying concepts such as creativity or Bricolage are carved out of interviews with social entrepreneurs.

Title	Soziale Innovation durch Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich. (Lehner, 2010)
Authors	Lehner, O.M.
Aims	Explore social innovation in the third sector in Austria
Research Questions	What would a connection between social innovation and the change of the third sector look like, can early evidence be found?
Theoretical Background	Social origins theory
Methodology	Mixed mode, survey and interviews a-priori codes and a-posteriori comparison and synergetic code creation
Main Findings and Conclusions	Innovation in structures, approaches and mindsets is very much at the heart of change in the third sector. It is however only one contributing factor besides legislation and budget constraints and proponents are only vaguely aware of it.
Contributions	Seeing social innovation as an important factor in change processes within the Austrian nonprofit sector
Publication	INAS Conference Proceedings, Zukunftsperspektiven der Sozialwirtschaft Forthcoming also as a book chapter in revised form in 2012.

4.4.1 Abstract

Das Konzept einer Social Enterprise bezeichnet vereinfacht ein Geschäftsmodell von nicht-staatlichen Organisationen und Unternehmen, das soziale Themen und Bedürfnisse erfüllt, und dabei überwiegend über den freien Markt seine Klienten findet sowie nachhaltige Einnahmen erzielt.

Während der Begriff im Sprachgebrauch verschiedener Akteure oftmals strukturalistisch oder sozial-konstruktivistisch überladen erscheint, haben Social Enterprises in den letzten Jahrzehnten weltweit eine enorme praktische Bedeutung erlangt. In vielen Ländern lösen Social Enterprises auf innovativem Weg soziale Probleme und gelten oft als Changemakers und Role-Models für staatliche Organisationen. Österreich mit seinem historischen Einfluss aus Bismarck'schen Zeiten kennzeichnet ein spezielles Modell der Wohlfahrtserbringung. Dabei treten große private Organisationen oftmals bloß als Mittler zwischen Staat und der Gesellschaft in der sozialen Leistungserbringung auf. Dennoch bilden sich auch in Österreich vermehrt Social Enterprises welche vorhandene Lücken im Sozialstaat als Geschäftsideen nützen, bestehende Leistungen auf neuen Wegen effizienter erbringen und teilweise sogar ihren eigenen Markt kreieren.

Aufbauend auf und beitragend zu komparativen Forschungsarbeiten durch das EMES (European Research Center für Social Enterprises) wurde in Österreich vom Autor eine breit angelegte triangulierte Studie zu diesem Thema erstellt. Die vorliegende Arbeit untersucht darauf aufbauend den Zusammenhang zwischen Social Entrepreneurs und sozialer Innovation. Aufgrund der möglichen Überlappung mit dem traditionellen non-profit Sektor und historisch gewachsener Mehrdeutigkeiten der verwendeten Begriffe wird das Umfeld für Social Enterprises in Österreich anhand von aktueller Forschung und Literatur aufbereitet.

4.4.2 Findings and Conclusions

Als Ergebnis werden einerseits quantitative Aussagen bezüglich sozialer Innovation und Social Entrepreneurs dargestellt und andererseits die qualitativen Quellen mittels der Technik der thematischen Analyse induktiv codiert. Die Arbeit zeigt einen Zusammenhang zwischen sozialer Innovation und dem Auftreten von Social Entrepreneurs und liefert aufgrund der Codierung gleichzeitig Einblicke in die dafür verantwortlichen Prozesse.

5 REFLECTION ON PARADIGMS AND HYBRIDITY

5.1 Philosophical positioning and methodology

5.1.1 On ontology, epistemology and the view of society

As the subtitle of this thesis holds – *triangulated approaches to hybridity* - a distinctive focus was put in the previous chapters to:

- elaborate and discuss the need for a distinct, context-sensitive yet robust research methodology in SE research to deliver valid findings.
- identify and evaluate existing approaches and paradigms - how they deal with the complex, hybrid and often ambiguous concept of SE.

Therefore the following chapters follow the development path that was walked upon by the author when designing the methodology for the studies and reflect in hindsight on the knowledge derived upon its application and will end with a proposed research approach to hybridity, using stereotypes, prototypes and archetypes.

When planning a methodological-fit research design two prevalent approaches can be found on how such an endeavour may be conducted. These approaches are of course not limited to the SE domain, but have been developed upon ancient philosophical positions and can be distinguished through their views upon ontology and epistemology.

A more foundational approach on the correct design of a research methodology focuses on the worldview of the researcher him/herself, on the assumptions regarding ontology, epistemology and society. The harmonic interplay of:

- a) Ontology – what exists in the world, what is the nature and structure of it?

- b) Epistemology - what is the nature of human knowledge and understanding?
- c) Methodology - how can we find out whatever one believes there is to know?

- within the basic positions of *objective* versus *subjective* is the desired outcome to achieve a methodological fitness. Therefore in this approach, it is the researchers own believes more than the characteristics of the research object that calls for a certain methodology.

TABLE 10 Objective and subjective positions (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011)

	Interpretation	Result
Ontology		
Realism	Is reality existing detached from mind or a product of the individual Is reality given or a product of the mind? Realism assumes that the real world has hard, tangible structures that exist irrespective of our labels. The social world is separate from the individual's perception of it and has the same hard structures as the physical world.	Objective
Nominalism	Nominalism assumes that social reality is relative, and the "social world" is built up mainly by names, concepts, and labels that help the individuals structure reality. These labels however are artificial creations, often only fully comprehended by the creator.	Subjective
Epistemology	What forms of knowledge can be obtained, how can truth and false be distinguished. Can knowledge be acquired, or must it be in-depth experienced?	
Positivist	Positivists believe knowledge to explain and predict what happens in the social world can be obtained by searching for patterns and relationships between people. They believe one can develop hypotheses and test them, and that knowledge is a cumulative process.	Objective
Anti-Positivist	Anti-positivists claim that observing behaviour cannot help one understand it. One must experience it directly and personally. In their extreme form, anti-positivists reject that social science can create true objective knowledge of any kind.	Subjective
Human Nature	Are humans determined by their environment, or do humans create their environment?	
Determinism	Plan	Objective
Voluntarism	or a "Free will"	Subjective
Methodology	How can we find out about what we believe exists?	
Nomothetic	Nomothetic M. relies on scientific methods as seen for example in physics and hypothesis testing, using quantitative tests like surveys, experiments, and standardized tools.	Objective
Ideographic	Ideographic inquiry focuses on "getting inside" a subject and exploring the background. This includes often involvement in people's normal lives and observation.	Subjective

Thus a *methodological fit* occurs when these aspects (as seen in figure 7) are in line. So, for example in order to examine a phenomenon such as SE in a certain context through the lenses of an anti-positivist, subjective worldview, an ideographic methodology, including ethnographic strategies of inquiry would be a methodological fit. Using interviews and case studies to find a generalizable theory from a positivist's standpoint however would not.

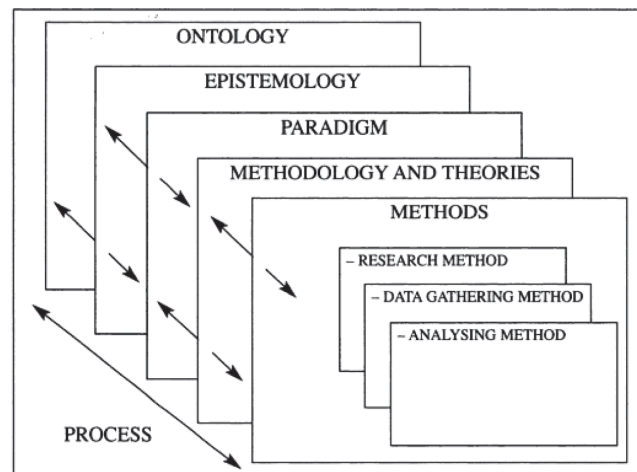


FIGURE 7 Paradigm/ Method interplay (Kyro and Kansikas, 2005, p. 137)

In their seminal work, Burrell and Morgan (1979) explore the two poles, objective (positivistic) and subjective (anti-positivistic).

They draw up a force-field, between the objective, standing for a *realist ontology with a positivist epistemology, a deterministic view of human nature and nomothetic methodologies* and, on the other side; subjective with a *nominalist ontology, an anti-positivist epistemology, a voluntaristic view of human nature and ideographic methodologies*.

Similarly, researchers hold differing views about the nature of society, for example whether they see cohesion or disintegration. This particular view has an impact on the perspective and ultimately on the valuation and presentations of their findings. Therefore Burrell and Morgan included these two poles as regulation and radical-change.

On the one hand the regulation perspective explains *status quo, organization, coherence, structure, social order, consensus, social integration, solidarity, individual and actuality* and in contrast, the radical change perspective is concerned with explaining *structural conflicts, domination and subjugation, contradictions, emancipation and potentiality* (Burrell, 1999; Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Deetz, 1996).

These four poles, objective <-> subjective and regulation <-> radical change, span up a system of four quadrants. On the regulation side we have the traditional research paradigms of constructivist and functionalist and on the radical change side, we find radical structuralists and radical interpretivists.

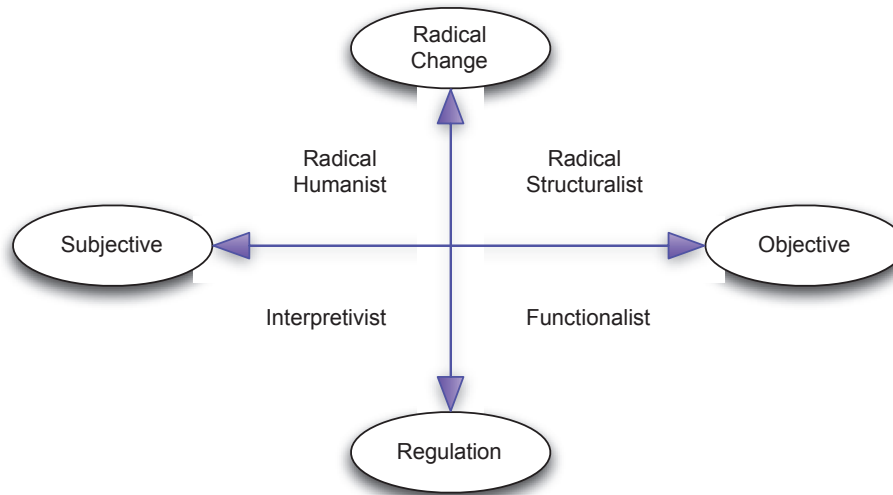


FIGURE 8 Paradigmatic framework, Lehner and Kansikas (2011)

Interestingly, we see researchers with different perspectives on society in SE research as in commercial entrepreneurship. SE literature is written sometimes from a more radical angle, for example with a perspective on overcoming social injustice through change and innovation, brought upon by newly empowered change agents (sic) on a societal level. Empowerment issues and advocacy points of view (Creswell, 2009) are of high importance in SE literature (Mair and Marti, 2007). However, perhaps due to publication pressure, many articles seem to cover their radical core with traditional functionalist methods as was found out in the author's paradigmatical literature review (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011).

As it is in the nature of a personal worldview, that its manifesto has been created through on-going reflexive isomorphic processes, this process of intrinsic creation also makes it difficult to argue with. Such disagreement may sometimes lead to an inability to accept each other's viewpoints. Such occurrences can be seen for example in journals where editors reject certain approaches right from desks because they disapprove the researchers' claims for methodological robustness and see no generalizability in the outcomes, simply due to a differing worldview.

Also, as (Kuhn, 1963) noted that established paradigms provide *sources of legitimacy for dominant actors*, and that this could be a resource strategy for them, researchers in the field need to be careful on what bases their paradigms of SE are nurtured because -

Paradigmatic development is an arena in which power and dominance is expressed often through the deliberative construction of "a dense network of connections" that aims intentionally and systematically to consolidate relevant centers of power and influence to impose the dominance of their views across the institutionalization of the field. (Kuhn 1963, p. 618)

In another approach to look for a robust methodology, which is based on a more scientific worldview and thus well founded within the previously identified functionalist (positivist) tradition, Edmondson and Mcmanus (2007) find a methodological fit in the interplay between the *maturity* of a theory and research, and the *applied methods* and corresponding strategies of inquiry. Therefore in this approach the research object determines the correct methodology.

In their study, they identify three archetypes of methodological fit in field research, based upon the maturity state of theory and research:

- nascent fields – qualitative approaches, exploration, leading to early suggestions of a theory.
- intermediate fields – hybrid approaches, quantitative and qualitative mixed modes, leading to more formalized provisional theories, and early propositions.
- mature fields – quantitative approaches, focus on formal testing, expanding and adapting existing theories.

However, such an approach stems from the assumption that there exists a theory, and that it can be found through intense and iterated research activities. Scholars argue that on the level of the individual and its inherent contextual meanings, such a generalizable theory may be hard to find (Welter, 2011).

While most of traditional, commercial entrepreneurship research is based upon what is called the functionalist paradigm (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Grant and Perren, 2002; Jennings et al., 2005; Perren and Jennings, 2005), SE research has so far been approached from various different angles in a quest for understanding. As Lehner and Kansikas (2011) find out in their methodological survey of SE literature, many authors embrace a more subjective, anti-positivist paradigm, and are thus seeing social entrepreneurship as a socially constructed phenomenon, that shows different forms in different contexts and can as such not be generalized through theories. The authors see such anti-positivist approaches for example in (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010), where the discursive construction of social entrepreneurship is examined, and also in Nicholls (2010) when he examines how research influences the construction of SE.

Consequently and unsurprisingly, scholars from a more functionalist angle, such as Short et al. (2009) see this as a lack of improvement and immaturity of the field and demand further quantitative approaches.

However, while examining literature using the filter of what Kuhn calls *extraordinary research* (Kuhn, 1963, 1996), Lehner and Kansikas (2011) together with Nicholls see the following paradigmatic approach frequently in highly influential SE literature such as (Dees and Anderson, 2006; Mair and Marti, 2006; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006; Zahra et al., 2009; Nicholls, 2010):

- Ontology: A constructivist view with some realism
- Epistemology: Hermeneutics and Structuralism

- Methodology: Interpretive Structuralism, Focus on the analysis of cases in terms of agency and structure
- Social action: Voluntarism with structural constraints.

This approach actually transcends the paradigmatic boundaries as presented by Burrell and Morgan, and may as such be further examined whether it can be used as a signpost or role model in SE research.

The author of this thesis embraces a more pragmatic worldview (Creswell, 2009). While SE is accepted as being socially constructed and highly context-specific, certain commonalities do exist that can be put into theories, and when research is applied carefully, findings may well be generalizable to some extent.

Such a pragmatic worldview however remains very vulnerable to questions of validity and generalization, and therefore the author heavily relies on approaches and best practices as suggested by Creswell (2009), (Mason, 2006), Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004); Molina-Azorin and Cameron (2010); Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003); Teddlie and Tashakkori (2006); Teddlie and Yu (2007) in using mixed methods and triangulation.

Mixed-mode approaches are used for example in the articles on innovation (Lehner, 2010) and social entrepreneurship in Austria (Lehner, 2011) where triangulation is employed to combine data from different levels (such as from the individual and organizational) and derive a common theory.

5.1.2 A quest for validity

When dealing with research in a field that is relatively immature and loaded with influences from different disciplines, an especial focus needs to be placed on questions of validity and reliability. While such terms often are only used in quantitative settings, several scholars argue that this is an artificial and unjustified limitation of these terms that should be overcome (Creswell, 2009; Ireland et al., 2003; Ireland and Webb, 2007a; Mayring, 2007). Examining a complex field such as SE within a pragmatic worldview will inevitably lead to experimenting with various methodological approaches, to come up with robust findings whilst acknowledging the socially constructed core.

Employing best practise approaches to validity, such as found in Ratcliff (2002) will help strengthen the researchers' position in their choice and application of methodology, especially when including qualitative and quantitative approaches at the same time.

Ratcliff (2002) suggests the following best practices for conducting qualitative research with a focus on validity:

- To explain divergences from initial expectations, make sure that personal notes are kept from the beginning to see how the data has pushed you from initial assumptions.

- Compare and find convergence with other sources of data, using variation kinds of triangulation and comparisons with the literature.
- Make use of extensive quotations, from field notes, transcripts of interviews and other notes from various situations and discussions.
- Include multiple other research data, such as archival data, recordings (video or audio) etc.
- Independent checks/multiple researchers - Involve more than one person in the research of those studied; use team research approaches or other sources of verification.
- Member check - go back to those researched after the completion of the study, and ask them if you are accurate or need correction/elaboration on constructs, hypotheses, etc. Some take this to the point that the researcher and those researched are working together in the planning, conducting, and analysing the results.

A strong focus on the validation of the findings can for example be found in this thesis within the original research papers (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011, 2012), where the authors were using *inter-coder reliability measurements* as well as *multiple evidence triggers*, as suggested before (Eisenhardt, 1989; Leitch et al., 2009).

Another important angle to strengthen validity issues in mixed mode research is *Triangulation*, which means looking at the object from several, different angles. It also includes combining different strategies of inquiry, mixing a-priori and a-posteriori codes and the dealing with the various findings in an often highly complex, recursive way to derive conclusions.

5.1.3 Triangulation & mixed mode designs

Connecting to the problems and suggested solutions in the previous chapter and to overcome inherent validity problems in SE research methodology (Lehner and Kansikas, 2011), the author therefore suggests using mixed mode approaches where applicable (Brannen, 2005; Creswell, 2009; Green and Preston, 2005; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Molina-Azorin and Cameron, 2010; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006; Teddlie and Yu, 2007).

Such approaches are put to practice in the research papers for example when:

- 1) highly contextual theories are carved out by qualitative methods
- 2) these theories are then subsequently (preliminary) tested with quantitative methods, and
- 3) the combined results are later discussed with the participants of both studies to allow for a triangulation and the refinement of the theory.

Derived findings will hold a greater validity and through the constant reflection will also deliver more synergetic insights than a quantitative or qualitative approach alone would provide.

However as Lee (2008) explores in depth, it is not sufficient to simply mix two or more methods, but researchers need to rather carefully consider the combination process itself, with respect to the desired outcome. Nevertheless, the appeal of using interdisciplinary approaches in exploring often differently conceived questions through a collective (as opposed to an integrated) manner reverberates well in SE research and a carefully designed mixed method approach would therefore provide a methodological fit.

Mason (2006) identifies six possible purposes for using a mixed-method approach and identifies the respective underlying logics, chances and risks. Based on the reasons and examples from above it can be concluded that such carefully designed approaches are of particular importance for SE research with its inherent ambiguity and hybridity as can be seen in table 11.

TABLE 11 Using mixed-mode designs, adapted Mason (2006)

Purpose	Logic	Level of difficulty
Close-up illustration of a bigger picture or background	Rhetoric, embellish analysis as a supplement through the other method.	Low, low risk, little benefits
Ask and answer differently conceived or separate questions	Parallel, each part has its own logic of design, data generation, analysis and explanation	Low, medium risk, limited benefits
Ask questions about connecting parts, segments or layers of a social whole	Integrative logic, different layers of data play a important part	More challenging, calls for explicit and considered theory of data integration
Achieve accurate measurement through triangulation	Corroborative logic, different forms of data and method are used to corroborate what they are measuring.	Highly complex, often used without solid theoretical foundation
Asking distinctive but intersecting questions	Multi-dimensional logic, looking for a creative tension, a dialog between the findings	Hugely challenging, pushes boundaries of social science philosophy, knowledge and practice
Mixing methods opportunistically	No intrinsic logic, based upon available data	Key challenge is to find a suitable logic that provides an effective way of proceeding

The author was using such approaches in (Lehner, 2010) and (Lehner, 2011), where a *corroborative logic* (see table 11) was applied to triangulate the relevance and *whatness* through different forms of data and methods.

Among the specific reasons for such an approach for example in the context of Austrian SEs were the inherent blurred boundaries of SE with non-profits, as well as the necessary differentiation on various levels, from the individual entrepreneur to the organization and the society as a whole. Data was collected through a survey (that was developed and checked by participants of a focus group) as well as through interviews and case studies, combined and

later again triangulated through yet another focus group. As identified in the chapter before, this study also has a strong focus on *qualitative validity*, achieved through for example recursively discussing the findings with the interviewees and the managers of the used cases.

In this study on Austrian SEs, triangulation also helped overcome the definitional uncertainties in the survey. These uncertainties would otherwise have prevented valid *quantitative findings* to come up, as people would have understood the items of the questionnaire in different ways.

An interesting point should be brought forward here on a meta-level - that in this case validity in a nomothetic approach (quantitative) could only be brought upon through an ideographic (qualitative) triangulation! Textbook wisdom would often stress only mathematical/ statistical measures to ensure validity and significance and would thus fail to deliver in such a setting.

5.2 Approaches to hybridity: proposing Stereotypes, Archetypes and Prototypes

In the previous chapters, hybridity was examined in a SE context. Purely inductive and grounded approaches - as insightful as they may prove for the single case - were displayed as being inadequate, because they lack the inter-contextual information necessary to provide a holistic picture. High-level quantitative hypothesis testing was likewise uncovered as being problematic, because of the insufficient clarity of underlying theories and constructs in SE.

Concluding the journey, using foundational underpinnings from Bourdieu (1985, 1989), and borrowing a framework and ideas from Beauregard (2003) and Brenner (2003) concerning their paradigmatical considerations within urban research; *two analytically distinct critiques of paradigm-building rhetoric in Social Entrepreneurship*, an epistemological critique and a methodological critique, can be identified and thus should be taken care of in valid approaches:

1. *The Epistemological Critique.* From this point of view, the major problem with superlative, heroic rhetoric in SE research, is that it undermines the *reflective and involved objectivity* upon which research should be based. It is this epistemological critique that gives evidence to the author's demand for a new form of critical linguistic perspective in SE research that encompasses both, empathy and detachment with a suitable level of methodological self-reflexivity (Bourdieu, 1984, 1989; Mouzelis, 2007)
2. *The Methodological Critique.* From this perspective, the problem with SE research is that it generates indeterminate claims about particular topics that are either (a) not empirically validated or (b) not theoretically clarified. A related problem is that paradigm-building in SE is mostly

grounded on individual case studies that tend to reduce comparative SE analysis to a *dutiful and unenlightening assessment* of how others compare to the paradigm rather than examining how they relate to each other. Therefore the author suggests that more systematic, contextually sensitive, and comparative attention to the “ordinary SE” would help abolish the *theoretical elitism* that underpins these methodological tendencies (Bourdieu, 1984; Pérez, 2008). Historical roots analysis as well as accepting sociological dynamics may provide just that.

What remains now is the question of how to actually inquire about the nature of Social Entrepreneurship? Hybridity, be it existent or voluntarily constructed, hinders the development of categories and subsequent modeling of theories. Accumulating theoretical considerations as brought in the previous chapters as well as practical experiences through own research endeavors; the author proposes to transfer the question regarding *approaches to hybridity* to that of *identifying stereotypes archetypes and prototypes in SE*.

In transferring the question of approaches to hybridity onto a quest for archetypes and prototypes, the probing and critique of SE through the *hybridity* concept would eventually be overcome and thus allow for a further emancipation of the SE field of research - based on its own paradigmatical foundation.

An *archetype* would be a perfect and unchanging form that prevailing things, people, or in this meaning organizations can approach but probably never duplicate (*e.g. the archetype of a social entrepreneur*); a *prototype* in here would be an early, perhaps crude version of something that following versions reflect onto, but may depart from and evolve (*eg. a prototype of a social enterprise*), while a *stereotype* would comprise the sum of expectations (Brenner, 2003).

Stereotypical SE. A SE contains distinctive attributes that are fundamentally similar to those of all other SE within a given set. Such a SE would reveal the present state of Social Entrepreneurship by embodying all of its key foundations in representative, stereotypical form. (generic form)

Archetypical SE. Here the claim is that an existing SE is either entirely unique or an extreme case of a more generalized phenomenon. Such a SE would reveal the state of Social Entrepreneurship through its extremity, remarkability or rarity. (unique form)

Prototypical SE. Major trends of Social Entrepreneurship are identified in such an SE; with the expectation that other SEs may become more similar to it as they develop. Such a SE exposes or promises the future of Social Entrepreneurship due to its trend-setting character. (prospective form)

Of course such a transfer would need to happen on manifold levels, including the individual, organizational and societal dimensions. The identification and creation of such archetypes and prototypes would possibly suggest the following approaches in research strategies:

- the (critical) examination of linguistic clusters and superlative rhetoric in the corresponding narrations (Dey, 2010; Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Stroll, 1973)
- involving sociological dynamics using structural differentiation theory (Banks, 1972; Esping-Andersen, 1989; Giddens, 1984; Goss, 2005; Manzo, 2010; Mouzelis, 2000; Pérez, 2008)
- a historical roots assessment through social origins theory (Moore and Müller, 1969; Salamon et al., 2000; Wagner, 2000)

Such a multi-faceted approach would call for a mixed-mode research design, including approaches to the micro-macro problem of structural differentiation theory through examining multiple levels at the same time, and the use of micro-correctives (Colomy and Rhoades, 1994) based on linguistic evidence. Such an endeavor will call for a major scale investigation on a meta-level, but will ultimately provide a tangibility of SE, *which embraces, rather than criticizes its social and historical roots.*

6 REFLECTING ON THE RESEARCH AGENDA

6.1 Current status and influences

Haugh (2005) examines the field and calls for a research agenda on social entrepreneurship that has influenced many scholars. Amongst her identified and suggested topics are:

- Defining the scope of Social Entrepreneurship
- The environmental context
- Opportunity recognition and innovation
- Modes of organisation
- Resource acquisition
- Opportunity exploitation
- Performance measurement
- Training, education and learning about Social Entrepreneurship

Peattie and Morley (2008a) later re-examine these in the light of subsequent research efforts and still find

... her eight themes are difficult to improve upon as a “top eight” (p.94)

Consequently, the research papers in this thesis stay within the broad spectrum of this research agenda and contribute to the topics as set out by Haugh in

- Defining the scope of social entrepreneurship (Lehner, 2011; Lehner and Kansikas, 2011), when social enterprises in Austria were examined in depth and disciplines and paradigms in SE literature were identified, and
- Opportunity recognition and innovation. (Lehner, 2010; Lehner and Kansikas, 2012), when OR in a SE context was examined in a meta-

study on research literature and innovation as a concept as well as a process was found to be a driving force in the change of the third sector in Austria.

Peattie and Morley also examine and display the *hybridity* of the SE construct as being the reason for what they call paradoxes when they write:

The hybrid and sometimes paradoxical nature of SEs make them particularly challenging businesses to manage, to research and to develop effective policies for. (p.102)

To watch out for these paradoxes was therefore essential when contributing to the field and the cautious approach in-turn then lead to the focus on considerations on research methodology and paradigmatical assumptions, as explained and laid out before in the chapters.

6.2 Suggestions for an expanded research agenda

As Peattie and Morley examined, Haugh's research agenda still holds true on a macro level - but while teaching and conducting research in the field, the author identified five subtopics within the entrepreneurial (i.e. social venture creation) perspective of SE, that may contribute to a better understanding of the field and have so far not been a focus of research.

6.2.1 Social entrepreneurship as a meaningful job-alternative

In summer schools and courses on the topic, the author often found the following two archetypes of social entrepreneurs among the participants -

- first, people from the target group, for example participants from Africa or Asia, who want to learn entrepreneurial and managerial approaches to solve their local, often commercial as well as social, pressing needs, and
- second, highly educated, rather successful and comparatively well-off people, often of European or North-American origin, who seek to do something meaningful in their life and want to use their money and skills to start a social entrepreneurship, because they feel it is the right thing to do.

For this latter group, the SE construct also includes a lot of vision and the ideology on doing social good. They seek not only for opportunities but are also *in for a quest* in their life and therefore explore their intrinsic values through an ongoing discourse. SE in this context is often seen as a rally sign for ideas on how to make the world a better place, and used as a term often loaded with diffuse and sometimes outright revolutionary meanings.

We do not know how many of these seekers will actually become social entrepreneurs. Observations in the global Hub networks provided for example early evidence, that many individuals are still searching after several years and rather continue doing voluntary social work instead of starting a real social venture. This is of course not to say that voluntary work is in any way of lesser importance, the mere point being made is that these people often call themselves social entrepreneurs, take part and shape discourse on SE, when based on most definitions they are not.

However some of these seekers have already created fantastic SEs, sometimes small and local, but often on a true global scale with lots of leverage and, as the author calls it, excellent social-cascading (creating social value on multiple, sometimes unforeseen levels through the interplay between workforce, target groups and stakeholders).

Questions here include the processes in the pre-entrepreneurial phase, about searching, motivation, reflexion and self-awareness. What is the role of education and support networks (including their constant competitions for start-up grants), the role of discourse, of personal values? What is their intrinsic meaning of *social* and finally, which are the factors contributing to eventually starting up a true social venture?

Also how the double bottom line, thriving for a social as well as a commercial success, demands possibly too much for many prospective social entrepreneurs, and how they cope with stress needs to be asked. In addition, as many of these searchers are females, may there be gender perspectives to study?

Another connected aspect would be the role of new social media, for example web 2.0 platforms - that are used not only for exchanging ideas and gaining resources in a process often dubbed *crowd sourcing* - but also as a means of creating an *elite community in terms of social and environmental awareness* and inducing the feeling of a collective tribe of social entrepreneurs.

6.2.2 Organizing & scaling social ventures

We see literature in the EMES and social enterprise school of thought (SES) on organizational development and scaling. However few to none longitudinal studies (apart from some well known cases such as Aravind or Sekem) exist in the realm of entrepreneurial social start-ups on how they (re)form their organization during growth. What are their motivations for scaling and growth, how do social entrepreneurs embrace managerial tasks in enforcing scaling? Do they want to scale their businesses or the ideas?

We might need new concepts and we also desperately need more empirical facts on a larger scale, to finally have enough data to put the findings into regional as well as entrepreneurial contexts, and consequently derive meaningful contextual knowledge and theories.

Also the importance of strategic management within the venturing process of social entrepreneurs has not been researched. What about networks and strategic alliances, what is the meaning of competition in social entrepreneurship, what about exit strategies, what about mergers, what about franchising?

We see the franchising idea being employed in some SE cases such as in Elizabeth Scharpf's Social Health Enterprises (SHE), but little is known about marketing and controlling in this context.

Can strategic entrepreneurship literature contribute here to an understanding of the field? Can we borrow and *adapt* concepts such as transaction cost theory (TC), information economics (IE) or networking theory (NT) to include the *social aspect*, so that these theories and concepts provide a well established approach in explaining social entrepreneurs' scaling and growing?

6.2.3 Social entrepreneurship and religion

Many religions around the world include a social-welfare perspective. This can be derived from their practical application in creating and supporting civil structures and also in the ideological matchmaking, where doing social-good can be seen as a signal to believers that they have made the right choice. *Clementia and Caritas* in Christianity and *Zakat* (giving) in Muslim religions are just two examples of such a connection between religion and social-welfare provision. Despite seemingly obvious connections, few scholarly articles have examined the nexus of religion and public/social management (Bozeman and Murdock, 2007).

Corresponding institutions to the world religions have more and more become aware of social entrepreneurship, as the author found out during his journeys:

- just recently the Pope endorsed the concept of Social Entrepreneurship in his encyclical Letter "Caritas in veritate" (Charity in truth), published by Pope Benedict XVI on June 29th 2009. He was using the following definition for this kind of business: "... economic initiative which, without rejecting profit, aim at a higher goal than the mere logic of the profit"
- In some towns in India, where Muslims traditionally give a percentage of their earnings for the poor, efforts are made by local municipalities to encourage the recipients to use that money as a seed financing for starting up a small venture. Examples for such investments are Noni-trees, goats and small machinery. These people also receive some help in form of business advice and education.
- The church in Ireland played an all-important role over many years. This landscape was only recently devastated by the child molestation scandals, which led to a sharp decrease in members. The following, even stronger reduction in active participation created voids in the social welfare provision through the church, and this in-turn opened opportunities upon which several social entrepreneurs now act in combination with the remnants of the former religious structures.

Reflecting on the observations and talks, the author found the following possible connections between religion and social entrepreneurship, which may provide a key to the understanding of and approaches to SE in different societies.

- First, religion as a cultural influence, forming a traditional set of values, e.g. on giving and attitudes, may explain regional differences and similarities in the structure, but also in perception and support of the SE concept throughout the world.
- Second, churches as an institutional influence. Being an integral part of the social welfare provision in many countries around the world, religious institutions and their organizational offsprings are often power-centered and may see SEs on one hand either as competition, or on the other hand, try to embrace them as a means of religious practice. Also, as seen in the Irish case, the demise of such powerful institutions may open new windows of opportunity.
- Third, religious discourse on salvation, and the viral spreading of beliefs can be seen as providing an analogy for the discourses on change and *salvation of traditional capitalism* through SE. The influences may stretch to communication strategies, symbols and metaphors in language and also into the rituals involved in nurturing communities for social entrepreneurs.

6.2.4 Examining the interfaces

Research fields such as sustainable entrepreneurship and CSR, family business or indigenous entrepreneurship are well on their way to build their own research agenda within the broader field of entrepreneurship - often with the same troubles in finding suitable approaches and gaining legitimacy as we can identify in social entrepreneurship.

We recognize for example the same double bottom line between acting social and commercial in many of these constructs as well -

- Decisions in family businesses (FBs) for example often take the social side of not only the family but also of the employees into account. The opportunities FBs act upon often stem from a local context, and while the social mission is not predominant, the impact that such firms have on the local community is often highly social. In addition, sustainability and environmental preservation often result automatically out of the owners' own embeddedness in the region.
- Indigenous entrepreneurship as another relatively new field (Peredo et al., 2004) looks at how marginalized groups can overcome their misery

through acting entrepreneurially. Examples here are for example aboriginal tribes in Canada or small religious and racial enclaves in India. Social entrepreneurs in this context (1) often target these groups and help them in becoming entrepreneurs, (2) often stem themselves from this group in an effort of a collective self-empowerment through entrepreneurship and (3) thrive to find scalable and globalized solutions to help these people through diverse initiatives. So we find a strong connection between these fields.

- Environmental perspectives and sustainable entrepreneurship as well as CSR can be found within the focus of many SEs. Some of the social entrepreneurs are very much concerned with helping and enabling firms to conduct their businesses in an environmental friendly and sustainable way. Others advise for-profit companies on their best strategies for CSR activities. So, while firms embrace sustainability often mainly out of idiographic motivations (e.g. reputation), social entrepreneurs see them as a target group as well as business enablers in their quest to have a social (and environmental) impact. One example for this would be William McDonough's *Cradle to Cradle* initiative. This highly acclaimed social enterprise helps industry to produce reusable parts in a classic win-win situation, through innovation in manufacturing and processes. Again, this creates a strong connection between the fields.

Although there are many similarities in the research approaches and underlying constructs, as has been described previously in the chapters, it seems that the interfaces between the fields are at best *semi-permeable*, and questions that may help all fields simultaneously are not tackled in a common effort.

In order to examine these interfaces, the similarities as well as the distinctive characteristics of the fields, the author sees the need to go to the empirical basis and to use idiosyncratic methods to understand and cope with the many shapes and facets of *social and sustainable*. In addition, the researchers' communities themselves can help open the interfaces more, through for example common conferences and true multi-disciplinary research activities. The convergence or divergence of their various discourses from a longitudinal point of view may provide interesting insights into the social construction of the fields.

6.2.5 Examining the discourse leaders and intrinsic agendas

As stated on numerous occasions before, the term as well as the construct of SE is highly ambiguous, denominating and depicting sometimes even dichotomous schemes. One could argue with Kuhn (1963, 1996) that this can be explained through the pre-paradigmatical status of the SE research field.

We see different approaches however when Nicholls (2010) identifies SE as being defined through *reflexive isomorphism*. Thus in his view, the definitions

are voluntarily created in parallel, through multiple, repeated, self-sustained idiosyncratic discourses within certain schools of thought.

Two competing forces in the discourse on social welfare can be identified (Nicholls, 2010; Sison, 2009):

- the representatives of the American-style hero entrepreneur, endorsed for example by Ashoka and other foundations
- the so-called European communitarian, with a focus on integrating local social needs and provision, being largely based on non-profits and governmental cooperation

This competition in discourse, though weakly linked by the proponents to the schools of thought in SE cannot be correlated to these. We find for example little competition concerning the social enterprise school of thought or the EMES and UK.

As (Nicholls, 2010) and others point out, these two movements are trying to control the discourse on SE (Dey, 2010; Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010) - to gain power, legitimization, reputation and followers (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008).

The language that their representatives are using differs greatly in wording. For example we find *scaling, opportunities, change-agent, entrepreneur, venture-philantropists* on one side, and *donations, sharing, voluntary work, social justice, cooperatives, third-sector* on the other side. Discourse is built up also through the different symbols and metaphors that are employed in language (e.g. the *hero-like change agent*). Words are very powerful when it comes to creating and describing new concepts. They are the building blocks of our imagination and therefore a pre-selected choice can be seen as a pre-determining factor for the outcome. To hold with (Kuhn, 1963):

Paradigms are inherently exclusionary, to the point where they may “insulate the community from those socially important problems that are not reducible to puzzle form, because they cannot be stated in terms of the conceptual and instrumental tools the paradigm provides” (p. 37).

Through various means, such as magazines, competitions and events, different archetypes of social entrepreneurs are searched for, and prototypes are thus created and propagated (for example through the public search and selection process of Ashoka fellows). Also, through the various research grants and university chairs donated by some institutions, researchers are occasionally influenced to use a certain perspective in their studies or at least to conduct research on themes and topics that are meaningful only in one *school* and need to embrace the corresponding language to dock on to the inherent discourse.

Seeing the tremendous effort that is put into controlling the discourse on SE, the question arises - *cui bono* - for whose benefit? Granted, these discourse-battles happen in many fields, but the sheer scale of actors, including governments (e.g. UK), churches (e.g. encyclical letter of the Pope) and universities, international organizations and powerful foundations (e.g. the Schwab, Skoll or

the Bill and Melinda Gates foundation) seems to indicate that much is at stake on a political and economic agenda.

While such induced changes in the mindsets need not per-se have negative consequences, the questions remain, *why now, why so intense?* Such early control and partial closure of a field may create a too narrow and exclusive view on SE, which might indeed help the field gain some sort of legitimacy, but on the other hand will probably reject great ideas and developments to come. Such new ideas could however enrich and nurture the SE discourse to become more holistic, especially given that the field is in its early stages and no common paradigm has been agreed upon (Nicholls, 2010).

What is more, that in my observations in the various social business-incubators such as the Hub network; most practitioners do not care or pay much attention to the definitions in their quest for *the meaningful*. They are however constantly confronted with such discourse, be it through events or competitions. Arguably through that constant exposure, the language of those that spend more time in such environments changes and at the same time also the value, feasibility and legitimacy of certain business-ideas they might have.

Research questions in that sub-field may be:

- What are the actors and what is their worldview and agenda?
- To what extent is their public and private agenda identical?
- What are the means of creating discourse in SE?
- How is this discourse influenced by organizations?
- What is the actual impact on potential social-entrepreneurs?
- What is the actual impact of the on going discourse on financing and supporting certain social-ventures?
- What is the political dimension of SE?
- Who will benefit, who will loose from the various forms of SE?

To answer these questions, a collaborative, multidisciplinary effort will be necessary by scholars from various backgrounds including critical and structuralists' viewpoints. The questions remains, whether research simply cannot bridge the different world views because of the philosophical hermeneutics going back to theories of Hans-Georg Gadamer or Paul Ricoeur.

6.3 Final words

The thesis set out to show that social entrepreneurship is not a neutral and static phenomenon, but socially constructed and loaded with meanings. It differs from commercial entrepreneurship in motives and the actual application of entrepreneurial processes. Evidence was brought forward for example through the identification of ambiguities in the SE construct, the exploration of constant-

ly moving boundaries and the display of the importance of different researchers' paradigmatical assumptions in the presentation of their findings.

It was therefore reasoned that robust research in SE needs to receive adequate attention from contextual, critical and constructionist viewpoints to deal with the particularities of this field.

The results of this thesis thus emphasize the ambiguous and yet fruitful nature of social entrepreneurship. It displays how the boundaries of SE on all levels, between societal sectors, institutions and organizations, collectives as well as individuals are still blurred - and rightfully so, because of the dynamic nature of the phenomenon. At the same time however, it explores methodological approaches to produce meaningful and contributory results despite the obstacles.

To conclude this thesis with a suggestion based on Lumpkin (2011) - the whole field would greatly benefit from more joint initiatives to translate the academic findings into more practical oriented articles. Some examples can already be found in practitioner oriented, nonetheless academic journals in the US such as in the Stanford Social Innovation Review, where theory and praxis mix and match. Overall however, discourse and research in SE disconnects more and more from the actual needs and beneficial value for the social entrepreneurs. Questions of practical impact remain often scarcely answered and sometimes the political power dimension in SE seems to overshadow the entrepreneurial aspects.

This much needed focus on praxis and application, and the corresponding translation of academic findings and theories would also be of great importance in entrepreneurship education and consultancy, through which we can create the essential legitimization of our field - simply by informing life.

OL, Sept. 2011

YHTEENVETO

Tämän väitöskirjan tavoitteena on kontribuoida sosiaalisen yrittäjyyden käsitteen sisältöön ja ymmärtämykseen. Väitöskirja koostuu kolmesta osasta: (1) johdantoesseestä, joka esittelee sosiaalista yrittäjyyttä kirjallisuuden näkökulmien pohjalta, pohtii mahdollisia viitekehyksiä ja kehittää käsitteen synnynäistä, monnitulkinnallista taustaa; (2) neljästä artikkelista, joista jokaisella on oma näkökulma ja tavoite, mutta joilla on sama metodologinen tausta, ja (3) pohdintaosioista, jossa keskustellaan siitä miten strategisen yrittäjyyden tutkimusta voidaan tehdä sen monnitulkinnallisuus ja erilaiset kontekstit huomioiden, ja kuinka näitä näkökumia sovellettiin tämän tutkimuksen artikkeleissa. Pohdintaosio päättyy strategisen yrittäjyyden mikrotason tutkimusagendaan. Tässä väitöskirjassa sovelletaan triangulaatiota ja erilaisia lähestymistapoja, ja neljässä artikkelissa onkin käytetty monia erilaisia metodeja. Monipuolinen aineisto koostuu meta-tutkimuksista; online-kyselystä, jossa käytettiin Likertin skaalaa; sekä focus group-aineistosta ja haastatteluista, joita on tuotettu yhteistyössä sosiaalisten yrittäjien kanssa.

Väitöskirjan tärkein väite on, että sosiaalinen yrittäjyys ei ole neutraali ja staattinen, vaan sosiaalisesti tuotettu ja monia merkityksiä sisältävä ilmiö. Siksi sen tulee saada oikeanlaista huomiota kontekstuaalisemmista, kriittisemmistä ja konstruktioaistisemmista näkökulmista käsin sen synnynäisen monnitulkinnallisuuden huomioimiseksi. Väitöskirjassa todetaan, että tämän hetkessä sosiaalisen yrittäjyyden tutkimuksessa tulee tunnistaa kulttuurillisten, yhteiskunnallisten ja tilanteeseen liittyvien kontekstien vaikutus tutkimukseen; Käsitteet tuotetaan sosiaalisessa vuorovaikutuksessa ja niiden tulisi saada riittävä huomiota tutkimuksessa, jonka tulisi tunnistaa myös näiden ilmiöiden ontologinen ja paradigmaattinen luonne. Vaikka sosiaalisen yrittäjyyden tutkimuksessa keskitytään erilaisiin yrittäjämäisiin prosesseihin, kuten mahdollisuuksien havaitsemiseen, siinä kuitenkin sovelletaan näkökulmia eri tavalla, osittain sosiaalisten ja kaupallisten tavoitteiden asettamien tuloslaskelmien kahdenlaiseen tulkintaan perustuen.

Tämän väitöskirjan tulokset korostavat sosiaalisen yrittäjyyden monnitulkinnallista ja kiistanalaisuutta ja kuinka sosiaalisen yrittäjyyden rajat kaikilla tasoilla, yhteiskunnan sektoreiden, instituutioiden, kollektiivien ja yksilöiden välillä ei ole aina selkeä – mutta samaan aikaan se kuitenkin tuottaa näkökulmia merkityksellisiin ja myötävaikuttaviin tuloksiin.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Diese forschungs- und publikationsbasierte Thesis zum Doktor der Wissenschaften (Doctor of Science) soll zur Verbreiterung des Wissenstands und zum allgemeinen Verständnis des Social Entrepreneurship (SE) Konstrukts in Wissenschaft und Forschung beitragen. Die Studie besteht aus drei Teilen: (1) einem einführenden Essay, in dem Perspektiven der SE Forschung aufgezeigt werden und mögliche Theorien und Rahmenwerke vorgestellt werden. Dabei wird auch ausführlich auf die inneliegende Viel- und Mehrdeutigkeit des Begriffs selbst eingegangen und auf Möglichkeiten damit im Rahmen des Forschungsdesigns umzugehen. (2) Vier bereits veröffentlichten Artikeln mit unterschiedlichen Perspektiven aus SE, aber vereint in ihrem Anspruch an methodischer Innovation, mit gleichzeitigem Fokus auf Validität und robusten Forschungsergebnissen. (3) Einer Reflektion über die Artikel und deren Zugang zur SE Hybridität sowie unterschiedliche Erfolge in der Umsetzung der Forschungsmethoden.

Die Thesis endet mit einer Einbettung der Ergebnisse in die aktuelle Forschungsagenda sowie mit der Weiterentwicklung derselben auf einer Mikroebene innerhalb der Entrepreneurship Perspektive. Die Forschungsartikel basieren auf Triangulation und Mixed-Mode Zugängen und es wurde Wert auf unterschiedliche, teils experimentelle Strategien und Methoden, eingebettet in den methodischen Forschungskanon gelegt. Die Daten stammen aus Meta-Studien, selbst erstellten Umfragen mit Likert Skalen, Fokus Gruppen, Fallstudien und Interviews - teilweise erstellt und validiert in Kooperation mit den Betroffenen selbst.

Eine der Kernaussagen dieser Arbeit ist, dass Social Entrepreneurship kein neutrales und statisches Phänomen ist, sondern durch das soziale Umfeld konstruiert wird und mit einer Vielzahl von Bedeutungen aufgeladen ist. Aus diesem Grund ist es bei der Erforschung von SE notwendig, hinreichende Aufmerksamkeit auf den Kontext zu lenken sowie geeignete Methoden zu finden, um kritische und sozial-konstruktivistische Aspekte mit einzuschließen, die sich zwangsweise aus der Hybridität und Mehrdeutigkeit des Konzepts SE ergeben.

Es wird argumentiert, dass

1. Aktuelle Forschung im Bereich SE die kulturellen, soziologischen und situativen Kontexte berücksichtigen muss, innerhalb derer sie stattfindet.
2. Konzepte, die durch soziale Interaktion kreiert werden auch ausreichender Fundierung in ontologischer und epistemologischer Hinsicht bedürfen um zu geeigneten Forschungsparadigmen zu kommen.
3. Obzwar SE eine Vielzahl von Prozessen aus dem traditionellen kommerziellen Unternehmertum übernommen hat, und diese in der empirischen Forschung auch identifiziert werden können (wie zum Beispiel Opportunity Recognition), so wird deren tatsächliche Ausprägung und

Anwendung im SE aber unterschiedlich gesehen. Eine mögliche Ursache für diese Unterschiede kann die Prägung auf ein dualistisches Endresultat sein, bestehend aus einem gleichzeitig ökonomischen wie sozialem Ziel.

Die Ergebnisse dieser Arbeit zeigen einmal mehr die vieldeutige und dennoch fruchtbare Natur des Social Entrepreneurships, sowie, dass die Grenzen auf allen Ebenen, zum Beispiel zwischen den Sektoren der Gesellschaft, zu den non-profit Institutionen sowie zwischen individuellen und kollektiven Betrachtungen, keinesfalls scharf gezeichnet sind. Gleichzeitig trägt die Studie durch die Erforschung von methodischen Zugängen aber dazu bei trotz aller Schwierigkeiten innerhalb eines pragmatischen Weltbildes zu bedeutungsvollen und wertstiftenden Erkenntnissen zu gelangen.

REFERENCES

- Adam, S. M. (2008). *Die Sozialfirma-wirtschaftlich arbeiten und sozial handeln: Beiträge zu einer sozialwirtschaftlichen Innovation*: Haupt Verlag AG.
- Anheier, H., and Salamon, L. (2006). The nonprofit sector in comparative perspective. In W. Powell and R. Steinberg (Eds.), *The nonprofit sector: a research handbook 2nd ed.* (pp. 89-114). Yale: Yale University Press.
- Archer, G., Baker, T., and Mauer, R. (2009). Towards an alternative Theory of Entrepreneurial Success: Integrating Bricolage, Effectuation and Improvisation. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, 29(6).
- Arenius, P., and Clercq, D. (2005). A network-based approach on opportunity recognition. *Small Business Economics*, 24(3), 249-265.
- Austin, J., Stevenson, H., and Wei Skillern, J. (2006). Social and commercial entrepreneurship: same, different, or both? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30(1), 1-22.
- Bagnoli, L., and Megali, C. (2009). Measuring Performance in Social Enterprises. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 20(10), 1-17.
- Banks, J. A. (1972). *The sociology of social movements*. London: Macmillan
- Baron, D. P. (2007). Corporate social responsibility and social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Economics & Management Strategy*, 16(3), 683-717.
- Bassen, A., Jastram, S., and Meyer, K. (2005). Corporate Social Responsibility. *Zeitschrift für Wirtschafts-und Unternehmensethik (zfwu)*, 6(2), 231-236.
- Baumol, W. J. (1968). Entrepreneurship in economic theory. *The American Economic Review*, 58(2), 64-71.
- Beauregard, R. A. (2003). City of superlatives. *City & Community*, 2(3), 183-199.
- Borzaga, C., Galera, G., and Nogales, R. (2008). Social Enterprise: a new model for poverty reduction and employment generation. *An Examination of the Concept and Practice in Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States, UNDP, EMES, Bratislava*.
- Boschee, J. (1995). Some non-profits are not only thinking about the unthinkable, they're doing it *Across the Board*.
- Bosma, N., Wennekers, S., and Stam, E. (2010). Intrapreneurship-An international study. *Scales Research Reports*.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A social critique of the judgement of taste*: Harvard Univ Pr.
- Bourdieu, P. (1985). The social space and the genesis of groups. *Theory and Society*, 14(6), 723-744.
- Bourdieu, P. (1989). Social space and symbolic power. *Sociological theory*, 7(1), 14-25.
- Bozeman, B., and Murdock, A. (2007). Public managers' religiosity: Impacts on work attitudes and perceptions of co-workers. *International Public Management Journal*, 10(3), 287-306.

- Brammer, S., and Millington, A. (2008). Does it pay to be different? An analysis of the relationship between corporate social and financial performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 29(12), 1325-1343.
- Brannen, J. (2005). Mixing Methods: The Entry of Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches into the Research Process. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(3), 173-184.
- Brenner, N. (2003). Stereotypes, archetypes, and prototypes: three uses of superlatives in contemporary urban studies. *City & Community*, 2(3), 205-216.
- Bull, M. (2008). Challenging tensions: critical, theoretical and empirical perspectives on social enterprise. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 14(5), 268-275.
- Burrell, G. (1999). Normal Science, Paradigms, Metaphors, Discourses and Genealogies of Analysis. In S. R. Clegg and C. H. Clegg (Eds.), *Studying organization: theory & method* (pp. 388-404). London: SAGE Publications.
- Burrell, G., and Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis*. London: Heinemann.
- Burrell, G., and Morgan, G. (2005). *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life*. Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Cha, M.-S., and Bae, Z.-T. (2010). The entrepreneurial journey: From entrepreneurial intent to opportunity realization. *Journal of High Technology Management Research*, 21(1), 31-42.
- Chand, V. S., and Misra, S. (2009). Teachers as Educational-Social Entrepreneurs: The Innovation-Social Entrepreneurship Spiral. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 18(2), 219-228.
- Chell, E. (2007). Social enterprise and entrepreneurship: towards a convergent theory of the entrepreneurial process. *International Small business journal*, 25(1), 5-26.
- Chell, E., Nicolopoulou, K., and Karatas-Ozkan, M. (2010). Social entrepreneurship and enterprise: International and innovation perspectives. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 22(6), 485-493.
- Chell, E., and Pittaway, L. (1998). *The social construction of entrepreneurship*. Paper presented at the ISBA National Small Firms Conference, Durham University.
- Choi, D., and Gray, E. (2004). *Understanding the sustainable entrepreneur*. Paper presented at the IEEE International Engineering Management Conference, 2004. Proceedings.
- Colomy, P., and Rhoades, G. (1994). Toward a micro corrective of structural differentiation theory. *Sociological Perspectives*, 547-583.
- Cope, J., Jack, S., and Rose, M. (2007). Social capital and entrepreneurship: An introduction. *International small business journal*.
- Cornelius, N., Todres, M., Janjuha-Jivraj, S., Woods, A., and Wallace, J. (2008). Corporate Social Responsibility and the Social Enterprise. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81(2), 355-370.

- Corner, P. D., and Ho, M. (2010). How Opportunities Develop in Social Entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 635-659.
- Covin, J. G., and Miles, M. P. (1999). Corporate entrepreneurship and the pursuit of competitive advantage. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 23, 47-64.
- Covin, J. G., and Slevin, D. P. (1989). Strategic management of small firms in hostile and benign environments. *Strategic Management Journal*, 10(1), 75-87.
- Covin, J. G., Slevin, D. P., and Schultz, R. L. (1997). Top management decision sharing and adherence to plans. *Journal of Business Research*, 40(1), 21-36.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Cukier, W., Trenholm, S., Carl, D., and Gekas, G. (2011). Social entrepreneurship: A content analysis. *Journal of Strategic Innovation and Sustainability*, 7(1), 99-119.
- Culpan, R. (1993). *Multinational strategic alliances*: Routledge.
- Cummings, T. G. (2007). Quest for an engaged academy. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 355-360.
- Darby, L., and Jenkins, H. (2006). Applying sustainability indicators to the social enterprise business model. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 33(5/6), 411-431.
- De Carolis, D. M., Litzky, B. E., and Eddleston, K. A. (2009). Why networks enhance the progress of new venture creation: The influence of social capital and cognition. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(2), 527-545.
- Dees, J., and Anderson, B. (2006). Framing a Theory of Social Entrepreneurship - Building on Two Schools of Practice and Thought. *ARNOVA Occasional Paper Series*, 1(3), 1-28.
- Deetz, S. (1996). Describing differences in approaches to organization science: Rethinking Burrell and Morgan and their legacy. *Organization science*, 7(2), 191-207.
- Defourny, J., and Nyssens, M. (2008). Social enterprise in Europe: recent trends and developments. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 4(3), 202-228.
- Defourny, J., and Nyssens, M. (2009). *Conceptions of Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States: Convergences and Divergences*. Paper presented at the Second EMES International Conference on Social Enterprise, Trento, Italy.
- Dey, P. (2010). *The Symbolic Violence of Social Entrepreneurship': Language, Power and the Question of the Social (Subject)*. Paper presented at the The Third Research Colloquium on Social Entrepreneurship, Oxford.
- Dey, P., and Steyaert, C. (2010). The politics of narrating social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 4(1), 85-108.
- Di Domenico, M., Haugh, H., and Tracey, P. (2010). Social Bricolage: Theorizing Social Value Creation in Social Enterprises. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 681-703.

- Drayton, B. (2002). The citizen sector: Becoming as entrepreneurial and competitive as business. *California Management Review*, 44(3), 120-132.
- Drayton, B. (2006). Everyone a Changemaker: Social Entrepreneurship's Ultimate Goal. *Innovations*, 1(1), 80-96.
- DTI. (2002). *Social Enterprise, Strategy for Success*. London: HMSO: Department of Trade and Industry.
- Eckhardt, J., and Shane, S. (2003). Opportunities and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Management*, 29(3), 333-349.
- Edmondson, A., and McManus, S. (2007). Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(4), 1155-1179.
- Edwards, J. M., and Edwards, M. E. J. M. (2008). *Hybrid Organizations: Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneurship*: Lulu. Com.
- Eisenhardt, K. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532-550.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1989). The three political economies of the welfare state. *Canadian Review of Sociology/Revue canadienne de sociologie*, 26(1), 10-36.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1990). *The three worlds of welfare capitalism*. Cambridge: Cambridge.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1996). *Welfare states in transition: national adaptations in global economies*: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1999). *Social Foundation of Postindustrial Economies*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (2006). The three worlds of welfare capitalism *The Welfare state reader second edition*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Ferrera, M., Hemerijck, A., and Rhodes, M. (2004). *The future of European welfare states: Recasting welfare for a new century*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Frank, H., and Mitterer, G. (2009). Opportunity Recognition-State of the Art und Forschungsperspektiven. *Zeitschrift für Betriebswirtschaft*, 79(3), 367-406.
- Fuglsang, L. (2010). Bricolage and invisible innovation in public service innovation. *Journal of Innovation Economics*, 1(5), 67-87.
- Galera, G., and Borzaga, C. (2009). Social enterprise: An international overview of its conceptual evolution and legal implementation. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 5(3), 210-228.
- Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Gjølberg, M. (2009). Measuring the immeasurable? Constructing an index of CSR practices and CSR performance in 20 countries. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 25(1), 10-22.
- Goss, D. (2005). Schumpeter's Legacy? Interaction and Emotions in the Sociology of Entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(2), 205-218.
- Grant, P., and Perren, L. (2002). Small Business and Entrepreneurial Research: Meta-theories, Paradigms and Prejudices. *International Small Business Journal*, 20(2), 185-211.

- Green, A., and Preston, J. (2005). Editorial: Speaking in Tongues – Diversity in Mixed Methods Research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(3), 167-171.
- Grenness, T. (2003). Scandinavian managers on Scandinavian management. *International Journal of Value-Based Management*, 16(1), 9-21.
- Hansen, D. J., Shrader, R., and Monllor, J. (2011). Defragmenting Definitions of Entrepreneurial Opportunity*. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 49(2), 283-304.
- Harding, R., and Harding, D. (2010). *Social Entrepreneurship in the UK*. London: Social Enterprise Coalition.
- Harrison, R. T., and Leitch, C. (1996). Discipline emergence in entrepreneurship: Accumulative fragmentalism or paradigmatic science. *Entrepreneurship, Innovation, and Change*, 5(2), 65-83.
- Haugh, H. (2005). A research agenda for social entrepreneurship. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 1(1), 1-12.
- Helfat, C. E., and Lieberman, M. B. (2002). The birth of capabilities: market entry and the importance of pre history. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 11(4), 725.
- Helfat, C. E., and Peteraf, M. A. (2003). The dynamic resource based view: capability lifecycles. *Strategic Management Journal*, 24(10), 997-1010.
- Hemerijck, A. (2002). The self-transformation of the European social model. In G. Esping-Andersen (Ed.), *Why we need a new welfare state* (pp. 173-214). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hemingway, C. A. (2005). Personal Values as A Catalyst for Corporate Social Entrepreneurship. *Journal of business ethics*, 60(3), 233-249.
- Hervieux, C., Gedajlovic, E., and Turcotte, M. (2010). The legitimization of social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 4(1), 37-67.
- Hill, T., Kothari, T., and Shea, M. (2010). Patterns of Meaning in the Social Entrepreneurship Literature: A Research Platform. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1(1), 5-31.
- Hockerts, K. (2006). Entrepreneurial opportunity in social purpose business ventures. In J. Mair, J. Robinson and K. Hockerts (Eds.), *Social Entrepreneurship* (pp. 142-154). New York: Macmillan.
- Hockerts, K. (2010). Social Entrepreneurship Between Market and Mission. *International Review of Entrepreneurship*, 8(2), 177-198.
- Hockerts, K., Mair, J., and Robinson, J. (Eds.). (2010). *Values and Opportunities in Social Entrepreneurship*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hoogendoorn, B., Pennings, H., and Thurik, A. (2010). What do We Know about Social Entrepreneurship? An Analysis of Empirical Research. *International Review of Entrepreneurship*, 8(2), 71-112.
- Hsieh, C., Nickerson, J. A., and Zenger, T. R. (2007). Opportunity discovery, problem solving and a theory of the entrepreneurial firm. *Journal of Management Studies*, 44(7), 1255-1277.

- Ireland, D. R., Hitt, M. A., and Sirmon, D. G. (2003). A Model of Strategic Entrepreneurship: The Construct and its Dimensions. *Journal of Management*, 29(6), 963-989.
- Ireland, D. R., and Webb, J. (2007a). Strategic entrepreneurship: Creating competitive advantage through streams of innovation. *Business Horizons*, 50(1), 49-59.
- Ireland, R. D., and Webb, J. W. (2007b). A cross-disciplinary exploration of entrepreneurship research. *Journal of Management*, 33(6), 891.
- Jacques Defourny, M. N. (2009). *Conceptions of Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Social Enterprise, Trento.
- Jennings, P. L., Perren, L., and Carter, S. (2005). Guest Editors' Introduction: Alternative Perspectives on Entrepreneurship Research. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(2), 145-152.
- Johnson, R. B., and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher*, 33(7), 14.
- Jones, D., and Keogh, W. (2006). Social enterprise: a case of terminological ambiguity and complexity. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 2(1), 11-26.
- Jones, R., Latham, J., and Betta, M. (2008). Narrative construction of the social entrepreneurial identity. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 14(5), 330-345.
- Juholin, E. (2004). For business or the good of all? A Finnish approach to corporate social responsibility. *Corporate Governance*, 4(3), 20-31.
- Kerlin, J. (2006). Social enterprise in the United States and Europe: understanding and learning from the differences. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 17(3), 246-262.
- Kerlin, J. (2007). *Social Enterprise: At the Crossroads of Market, Public Policies and Civil Society*, edited by Marthe Nyssens. London and New York: Routledge, 2006. 335 pp., \$46.95. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 36(4), 747.
- Kerlin, J. (2010). A Comparative Analysis of the Global Emergence of Social Enterprise. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 21(2), 162-179.
- Kerlin, J. A. (2009). *Social Enterprise: A Global Comparison*. Lebanon, NH: Tufts University Press.
- Kirzner, I. (1973). *Competition and Entrepreneurship*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Kistruck, G. M., and Beamish, P. W. (2010). The Interplay of Form, Structure, and Embeddedness in Social Intrapreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 735-761.
- Klepper, S. (2001). Employee Startups in High Tech Industries. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 10(3), 639.
- Kuhn, T. S. (1963). The function of dogma in scientific research. *Scientific change*, 347-369.

- Kuhn, T. S. (1996). *The structure of scientific revolutions*: University of Chicago press.
- Kyro, P., and Kansikas, J. (2005). Current state of methodology in entrepreneurship research and some expectations for the future. In A. Fayolle, P. Kyrö and J. Ulijn (Eds.), *Entrepreneurship research in Europe: outcomes and perspectives* (pp. 121-149). UK: Edward Elgar.
- Leadbetter, C. (1997). *The rise of social entrepreneurship*. London: Demos.
- Lee, G. K. (2008). Relevance of organizational capabilities and its dynamics: what to learn from entrants' product portfolios about the determinants of entry timing. *Strategic Management Journal*, 29(12), 1257-1280.
- Lehner, O. (2011). The Phenomenon of Social Enterprise in Austria: A Triangulated Descriptive Study. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 2(1), 53-78.
- Lehner, O. M. (2010). *Soziale Innovation durch Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich*. Paper presented at the INAS - Zukunftsperspektiven der Sozialwirtschaft, Linz.
- Lehner, O. M., and Kansikas, J. (2011). *Social Entrepreneurship Research across Disciplines: Paradigmatic and Methodological Considerations*. Paper presented at the 3rd EMES Conference on Social Enterprise Research, Roskilde, DK.
- Lehner, O. M., and Kansikas, J. (2012). Opportunity Recognition in Social Entrepreneurship: A Thematic Meta Analysis. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 21(1), 25- 58.
- Leitch, C. M., Hill, F. M., and Harrison, R. T. (2009). The Philosophy and Practice of Interpretivist Research in Entrepreneurship: Quality, Validation, and Trust. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13(1), 67-84.
- Light, P. (2006). Reshaping social entrepreneurship *Stanford social innovation review*: Stanford graduate school of Business.
- Light, P. (2009). Social Entrepreneurship Revisited: Not just anyone, anywhere, in any organization can make breakthrough change.'. *Social Innovation Review*, 7(3), 21-22.
- Low, C. (2006). A framework for the governance of social enterprise. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 33(5/6), 376-385.
- Lumpkin, G., Coglisier, C. C., and Schneider, D. R. (2009). Understanding and measuring autonomy: An entrepreneurial orientation perspective. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(1), 47-69.
- Lumpkin, G. T. (2011). From legitimacy to impact: Moving the field forward by asking how entrepreneurship informs life. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 5(1), 3-9.
- Lumpkin, G. T., Brigham, K., and Moss, T. (2010). Long-term orientation: Implications for the entrepreneurial orientation and performance of family businesses. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 22(3), 241-264.
- Lumpkin, G. T., and Dess, G. G. (1996). Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 135-172.

- Mair, J., and Marti, I. (2006). Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1), 36-44.
- Mair, J., and Marti, I. (2007). Entrepreneurship for social impact: encouraging market access in rural Bangladesh. *Corporate Governance*, 7(4), 493-501.
- Mair, J., and Marti, I. (2009). Entrepreneurship in and around institutional voids: A case study from Bangladesh. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(5), 419-435.
- Mair, J., Marti, I., and Ganly, K. (2007). Institutional voids as spaces of opportunity. *European Business Forum*(31), 35-39.
- Mair, J., and Noboa, E. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: How intentions to create a social venture are formed. In M. J. J. Robinson and K. Hockerts (Eds.), *Social entrepreneurship* (pp. 121-135). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Manzo, G. (2010). Analytical Sociology and Its Critics. *European Journal of Sociology*, 51(1), 129-170.
- Mason, J. (2006). Mixing methods in a qualitatively driven way. *Qualitative Research*, 6(1), 9.
- Matten, D., and Moon, J. (2008). "Implicit" and "explicit" CSR: a conceptual framework for a comparative understanding of corporate social responsibility. *The Academy of Management Review (AMR)*, 33(2), 404-424.
- Matten, D., Moon, J., and Responsibility, I. C. f. C. S. (2004). "Implicit" and "explicit" CSR: a conceptual framework for understanding CSR in Europe: International Centre for Corporate Social Responsibility.
- Mayring, P. (2007). Generalisierung in qualitativer Forschung. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung*, 8(3), 1-11.
- Menard, C. (2006). Hybrid organization of production and distribution. *Revista de Análisis Económico*, 21(2), 25-41.
- Meyskens, M., Robb-Post, C., Stamp, J. A., Carsrud, A. L., and Reynolds, P. D. (2010). Social Ventures from a Resource-Based Perspective: An Exploratory Study Assessing Global Ashoka Fellows. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 661-680.
- Midttun, A., Gautesen, K., and Gjølborg, M. (2006). The political economy of CSR in Western Europe. *Corporate Governance*, 6(4), 369-385.
- Miller, D. (1983). The correlates of entrepreneurship in three types of firms. *Management Science*, 770-791.
- Minkoff, D. C. (2002). The emergence of hybrid organizational forms: Combining identity-based service provision and political action. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 31(3), 377-401.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). Strategy-making in three modes. *California Management Review*, 16(2), 44-53.
- Mintzberg, H., and Waters, J. A. (1982). Tracking strategy in an entrepreneurial firm. *Academy of Management Journal*, 465-499.
- Molina-Azorin, J., and Cameron, R. (2010). The Application of Mixed Methods in Organisational Research: A Literature Review. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 8(2), 95-105.

- Moore, B., and Müller, H. G. (1969). *Soziale Ursprünge von Diktatur und Demokratie Social origins of dictatorship and democracy*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Moore, C. B., Bell, R. G., and Filatotchev, I. (2010). Institutions and foreign IPO firms: The effects of "home" and "host" country institutions on performance. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(3), 469-490.
- Moss, T. W., Short, J. C., Payne, G. T., and Lumpkin, G. (2010). Dual identities in social ventures: An exploratory study. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*.
- Mouzelis, N. (2000). The subjectivist-objectivist divide: against transcendence. *Sociology*, 34(4), 741.
- Mouzelis, N. (2007). Habitus and Reflexivity: Restructuring Bourdieu's Theory of Practice. *Sociological Research Online*, 12(6), 9.
- Murphy, P., and Coombes, S. (2009). A model of social entrepreneurial discovery. *Journal of business ethics*, 87(3), 325-336.
- Nicholls, A. (2006). Playing the field: A new approach to the meaning of social entrepreneurship. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 2(1), 1-5.
- Nicholls, A. (2010). The Legitimacy of Social Entrepreneurship: Reflexive Isomorphism in a Pre-Paradigmatic Field. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 611-633.
- Nicholls, A., and Cho, A. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: The structuration of a field. In A. Nicholls (Ed.), *Social Entrepreneurship: New Models of Sustainable Social Change* (pp. 99-118). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Nyssens, M., Adam, S., and Johnson, T. (2006). *Social enterprise: at the crossroads of market, public policies and civil society*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Ozgen, E., and Baron, R. (2007). Social sources of information in opportunity recognition: Effects of mentors, industry networks, and professional forums. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 22(2), 174-192.
- Parker, S. C. (2011). Intrapreneurship or entrepreneurship? *Journal of Business Venturing*, 26(1), 19-34.
- Parkinson, C., and Howorth, C. (2008). The language of social entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 20(3), 285-309.
- Peattie, K., and Morley, A. (2008a). Eight paradoxes of the social enterprise research agenda. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 4(2), 91-107.
- Peattie, K., and Morley, A. (2008b). *Social enterprises: diversity and dynamics, contexts and contributions*. London: Social Enterprise Coalition.
- Peredo, A., and McLean, M. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: A critical review of the concept. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1), 56-65.
- Peredo, A. M., Anderson, R. B., Galbraith, C. S., and Honig, B. (2004). Towards a theory of indigenous entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 1(1), 1-20.
- Pérez, F. P. (2008). Voluntarism and Determinism in Giddens's and Bourdieu's Theories of Human Action. *Graduate Journal of Sociology, University of Essex*, 8.

- Perren, L., and Jennings, P. L. (2005). Government Discourses on Entrepreneurship: Issues of Legitimization, Subjugation, and Power. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(2), 173-184.
- Perrini, F. (2006). *The new social entrepreneurship: what awaits social entrepreneurial ventures?* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Prahalad, C. K. (2010). *The fortune at the bottom of the pyramid: eradicating poverty through profits*: Wharton.
- Ratcliff, D. (2002). Validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Qualitative research resources*. Available: <http://don.ratcliff.net/qual/validity.html>.
- Rauch, A., Wiklund, J., Lumpkin, G. T., and Frese, M. (2009). Entrepreneurial orientation and business performance: An assessment of past research and suggestions for the future. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(3), 761-787.
- Reed, J. R. (2008). Fighting Words: Two Proletarian Military Novels of the Crimean Period. *Victorian Literature and Culture*, 36(2), 331-342.
- Rice, M., Kelley, D., Peters, L., and O'Connor, G. (2001). Radical innovation: triggering initiation of opportunity recognition and evaluation. *R&D Management*, 31(4), 409-420.
- Ridley-Duff, R. (2008). Social enterprise as a socially rational business. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 14(5), 291-312.
- Robinson, J. (Ed.). (2006). *Navigating Social and Institutional Barriers to Markets: How Social Entrepreneurs Identify and Evaluate Opportunities*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Rotheroe, N. C., and Richards, A. (2007). Social Return on Investment and social enterprise: Transparent accountability for sustainable development. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 3(1), 31-48.
- Salamon, L., and Anheier, H. (1997). *The third world's third sector in comparative perspective*. Baltimore: John Hopkins Institute for Policy Studies.
- Salamon, L., and Sokolowsky, S. (2004). *Global civil society: dimensions of the nonprofit sector*. Bloomfield: Kumarian Press.
- Salamon, L., Sokolowsky, S., and Anheier, H. (2000). Social origins of civil society: An overview *Working paper of the Johns Hopkins comparative nonprofit sector project no. 38*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies.
- Sarason, Y., Dean, T., and Dillard, J. (2006). Entrepreneurship as the nexus of individual and opportunity: A structuration view. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 21(3), 286-305.
- Sarasvathy, S., Dew, N., Velamuri, S., and Venkataraman, S. (2003). Three Views of Entrepreneurial Opportunity. In Z. Acs and D. Audretsch (Eds.), *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research* (pp. 141-160). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Sarasvathy, S., Dew, N., Velamuri, S., and Venkataraman, S. (2005). Three views of entrepreneurial opportunity *Handbook of entrepreneurship research* (Vol. 1, pp. 141-160): University of Maryland.

- Schendel, D., and Hitt, M. (2007). Introduction to Volume 1. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 1(1-2), 1-6.
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). *The Theory of Economic Development: An Inquiry into Profits, Capital, Credit, Interest, and the Business Cycle*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Seelos, C., and Mair, J. (2005a). Social entrepreneurship: Creating new business models to serve the poor. *Business Horizons*, 48(3), 241-246.
- Seelos, C., and Mair, J. (2005b). Sustainable development: How social entrepreneurs make it happen. *IESE Research Papers*.
- Shah, D. (2009). A UK policy perspective: thought piece from the UK Social Enterprise Coalition. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 5(2), 104-113.
- Shalley, C. E., and Perry-Smith, J. E. (2008). The emergence of team creative cognition: the role of diverse outside ties, sociocognitive network centrality, and team evolution. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 2(1), 23-41.
- Shane, S., and Eckhardt, J. (2003). The Individual-Opportunity Nexus. In Z. Acs and D. Audretsch (Eds.), *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research: An Interdisciplinary Survey and Introduction* (pp. 161-194). Dordrecht: The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Shane, S., and Venkataraman, S. (2000). The Promise of Entrepreneurship as a Field of Research. *Academy of Management Journal*(25), 217-226.
- Shane, S., and Venkataraman, S. (2007). The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Entrepreneurship*, 171-184.
- Shaw, E. (2004). Marketing in the social enterprise context: is it entrepreneurial? *Qualitative Market Research*, 7(3), 194-205.
- Shaw, E., and Carter, S. (2007). Social entrepreneurship: Theoretical antecedents and empirical analysis of entrepreneurial processes and outcomes. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 14(3), 418-434.
- Shepherd, D. A., and Patzelt, H. (2011). The New Field of Sustainable Entrepreneurship: Studying Entrepreneurial Action Linking "What Is to Be Sustained" With "What Is to Be Developed". *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(1), 137-163.
- Short, J., Ketchen, D., Shook, C., and Ireland, R. (2010). The concept of "opportunity" in entrepreneurship research: Past accomplishments and future challenges. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 40-65.
- Short, J., Moss, T., and Lumpkin, G. (2009). Research in social entrepreneurship: past contributions and future opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 3(2), 161-194.
- Sison, A. J. G. (2009). From CSR to corporate citizenship: Anglo-American and continental European perspectives. *Journal of business ethics*, 89, 235-246.
- Skloot, E. (1987). Survival time for nonprofits. *Foundation news*, 28(1), 38-42.
- Slotte Kock, S., and Coviello, N. (2010). Entrepreneurship research on network processes: A review and ways forward. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(1), 31-57.

- Steyaert, C., and Dey, P. (2010). Nine Verbs to Keep the Social Entrepreneurship Research Agenda "Dangerous". *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1(2), 231-254.
- Strauss, L. (1968). *Savage mind*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Stroll, A. (1973). Linguistic Clusters and the Problem of Universals. *Dialectica*, 27(3 - 4), 219-260.
- Tang, J., Kacmar, K. M., and Busenitz, L. (2010). Entrepreneurial alertness in the pursuit of new opportunities. *Journal of Business Venturing*.
- Tashakkori, A., and Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Teddlie, C., and Tashakkori, A. (2006). A general typology of research designs featuring mixed methods. *Research in the Schools*, 13(1), 12-28.
- Teddlie, C., and Yu, F. (2007). Mixed Methods Sampling: A Typology With Examples. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 77-100.
- Thomas, K. (2008). Alimentary: Arthur Conan Doyle and Isabella Beeton. *Victorian Literature and Culture*, 36(2), 375-390.
- Thompson, J., and Doherty, B. (2006). The diverse world of social enterprise: A collection of social enterprise stories. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 33(5/6), 361-375.
- Tracey, P., and Jarvis, O. (2007). Toward a theory of social venture franchising. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(5), 667-685.
- Travaglini, C. (2009). *Social Enterprise in Europe: Governance Models*. Paper presented at the 2nd. EMES International Conference on Social Enterprise, Trento, Italy.
- Trivedi, C. (2010). Towards a Social Ecological Framework for Social Entrepreneurship. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 19(1), 63-80.
- Trivedi, C., and Stokols, D. (2011). Social Enterprises and Corporate Enterprises: Fundamental Differences and Defining Features. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 20(1), 1-32.
- Vasi, I. B., and Ziegler, R. (2009). New heroes, old theories? Toward a sociological perspective on social entrepreneurship. In R. Ziegler (Ed.), *An introduction to social entrepreneurship: Voices, preconditions, contexts* (pp. 155-173). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Venkataraman, S. (1997). The distinctive domain of entrepreneurship research. In G. T. Lumpkin and J. Katz (Eds.), *Advances in entrepreneurship, firm emergence and growth* (Vol. 3, pp. 119-138). New York.
- Wagner, A. (2000). Reframing" Social Origins" Theory: The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 29(4), 541-553.
- Webb, J. W., Kistruck, G. M., Ireland, R. D., and Ketchen Jr, D. J. (2010). The entrepreneurship process in base of the pyramid markets: The case of multinational enterprise/nongovernment organization alliances. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(3), 555-581.
- Weerawardena, J., and Mort, G. (2006). Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1), 21-35.

- Welter, F. (2011). Contextualizing Entrepreneurship-Conceptual Challenges and Ways Forward. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(1), 165-184.
- Wiklund, J. (1999). The sustainability of the entrepreneurial orientation-performance relationship. *Journal article by Johan Wiklund; Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice*, 24.
- Young, P. (2008). The Cooking Animal: Economic Man at the Great Exhibition. *Victorian Literature and Culture*, 36(2), 569-586.
- Young, R. (1995). *Colonial desire: Hybridity in theory, culture, and race*. London: Psychology Press.
- Yunus, M., and Weber, K. (2007). *Creating a world without poverty: social business and the future of capitalism*. New York: Public Affairs.
- Zahra, S., Gedajlovic, E., Neubaum, D., and Shulman, J. (2009). A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(5), 519-532.
- Zahra, S., Rawhouser, H., Bhawe, N., Neubaum, D., and Hayton, J. (2008a). Globalization of social entrepreneurship opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 2(2), 117-131.
- Zahra, S. A., Rawhouser, H. N., Bhawe, N., Neubaum, D. O., and Hayton, J. C. (2008b). Globalization of social entrepreneurship opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 2(2), 117-131.
- Zauner, A., Heimerl, P., Mayrhofer, W., Meyer, M., Nachbagauer, A., Paschak, S., and Schmidtmay, H. (2006). *Von der Subvention zum Leistungsvertrag. Neue Koordinations- und Steuerungsformen und ihre Konsequenzen für Non-profit Organisationen - eine systemtheoretische Analyse*. Bern: Haupt.

ORIGINAL PAPERS

I

**THE PHENOMENON OF SOCIAL ENTERPRISE IN AUSTRIA:
A TRIANGULATED DESCRIPTIVE STUDY**

by

Othmar M. Lehner, 2011

Journal of Social Entrepreneurship 2 (1), 53-78

Reproduced with kind permission by Routledge.

The Phenomenon of Social Enterprise in Austria: A Triangulated Descriptive Study

OTHMAR M. LEHNER

University of Jyväskylä, School of Business and Economics, Jyväskylä, Finland

ABSTRACT *There is little to no existing research on the phenomenon of social enterprises (SEs) in Austria. To enable subsequent comparative studies, the author first traces social enterprises' conceptual underpinnings from most current research found in leading journals and subsequently creates a framework based upon social origins theory for use on Austria's social enterprises. In order to validate the findings, the author employs a triangulated research approach, including an online-based survey, semi-structured interviews and two panel discussions. Social enterprises in Austria are characterized through social activities, organizational types, legal forms, the society sector, the outcome emphasis, and the strategic development base. The social entrepreneur him/herself was included as a source for a qualitative triangulation as well as a distinctive item. Austria's SEs are found to work in a multitude of fields, are independent, use market-based approaches, employ improvisation and innovation for the creation of social good and incorporate a strong entrepreneurial spirit.*

KEY WORDS: Social entrepreneurship, Austria, social enterprise, triangulation, social innovation

Introduction

This paper aims to contribute to a global comparative perspective of social enterprises (SEs) by first gathering triangulated data on Austria's social enterprises and subsequently clustering it into the appropriate dimensions for comparison based upon social origins theory.

The concept of a social enterprise broadly denotes a business model of non-governmental entities fulfilling social issues and needs by using market-based approaches and income generation. While the term *Social Enterprise* appears sometimes structurally overloaded, and players from different schools of

Correspondence Address: Othmar M. Lehner, University of Jyväskylä, School of Business and Economics, Jyväskylä, Finland. Email: olehner@gmail.com

ISSN 1942-0676 Print/1942-0684 Online/11/010053-26 © 2011 Taylor & Francis
DOI: 10.1080/19420676.2011.555775

thought try to collect the concept for their political agenda, its practical importance has immensely grown throughout the last three decades. Scholars around the globe have become interested in the concept and provided fascinating case studies and more recently also solid conceptual approaches. However from a comparative point of view, only a few theories and frameworks have been proposed and much less tested.

Over the last few years, the European Research Network (EMES) has come up with new findings on convergences and divergences of social enterprises within Europe and the US and developed a multidisciplinary framework for further exploration (Nyssens 2006, Defourny and Nyssens 2009). Also Kerlin (2009, 2010) has created and subsequently tested a framework of variables to enable a comparative approach based upon a socioeconomic context. Both frameworks build and extend upon research by Salamon *et al.* (2000), who in turn draw upon the John Hopkins comparative non-profit sector project, which was conducted in 22 countries during the 1990s. In their papers, Salomon and Sokolowsky (2004) develop social origins theory further, based on works by Moore and Müller (1969). Social origins theory at its very basic level, explains how the development of new institutions is limited by existing social institutions and patterns. In addition, studies by Esping-Andersen (1990), distinguishing three worlds of welfare capitalism, have also provided a foundation for these frameworks.

Comparative approaches by the EMES and Kerlin however are based upon certain ontological and epistemological perspectives, namely that there exists such a thing as a distinctive non-profit sector and that a framework of variables is suitable to describe and later explain differences. Kerlin also assumes that social enterprises are closely related to the non-profit sector, based upon earlier findings that the vast majority of social enterprises have civil society organizations as their base, and thus social origins theory can be used.

Accepting these principles and foundations, this paper applies Kerlin's dimensional framework to examine social enterprises in Austria through a multi-method approach. A prior literature review on existing research on social enterprises in Austria revealed very little insight. Almost no empirical data on the emergence and prevalence, structure or impact of social enterprises in Austria has been found. In major comparative studies, such as in the latest Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) report (Bosma *et al.* 2009), Austria has not been included at all in the social entrepreneurship section.

Research Approach

To gain a thorough understanding of its facets, and to build up a solid and tested framework for the empirical part, the concept of Social Enterprise was first explored through a literature review of current research from leading journals on this topic. As a result, meanings, categories and derived codes that can be used to identify, characterize and differentiate social enterprises in a certain region were postulated, partly drawn from the application of social origins theory (Salamon *et al.* 2000) on the concept of social enterprise (Kerlin, 2010).

In a second step, the setting in which potential social enterprises work in Austria, was closely reviewed, based upon important ground work from the Vienna University of Economics and Business on the non-profit sector, as well as through including data from Statistics Austria and the EMES research center. This step was particularly important to watch out for ambiguities and possible overlapping of concepts of SEs with the traditional non-profit sector.

For the empirical part, a survey was set up, consisting of an online questionnaire with qualitative as well as quantitative questions and subsequent interviews with practitioners and experts from the field. In addition, the author observed two moderated panel discussions on social entrepreneurship in Austria. As a framework for the combined results, the author used the categories and codes found in the literature review, as well as inductively derived codes from the material, based on established procedures for inductive theory building (Denzin and Lincoln 2005).

The online questionnaire was sent out via various email-newsletters, posted on Facebook in relevant groups and appeared in the online edition of the newspaper *Der Standard*. This random search for participants was necessary, because so far, there does not exist any catalog or directory of social enterprises in Austria. One downside of this approach of course is that the study cannot answer questions about the total numbers of social enterprises or their respective shares in the market. Another limit of this study will be that the online survey includes only people and companies who either regard themselves as being social enterprises or are otherwise interested in this topic. Existing non-profit organizations (NPOs) that might qualify as a social enterprise due to the use of similar methods, but without managerial awareness of this notion, may therefore not be included. The questionnaire for this survey included quantitative as well as qualitative questions. Based upon the results, and as a fourth step, 14 semi-structured interviews were then held with experts and practitioners to further explore the meaning and possible under-specification, ambivalence and ambiguity of the categories and codes. Most of the interviews took place face-to-face, and one via Skype and one via email. The transcripts were coded using Atlas.ti software, based on the technique of thematic analysis, using the previously postulated codes as well as inductively created codes from the interviews. The coding process itself was performed using established procedures for inductive theory building as described before.

For a further triangulation, the findings of two moderated panel-discussions on social entrepreneurship, with experts from the field, were also included and coded using the same approach. In a final step, the author brought together and combined all the gathered data, and described Austrian social enterprises within the newly introduced framework.

The Concept of Social Enterprise in Literature

The understanding of the meaning of the term *Social Enterprise* is still diverse and even disputed within scholars and practitioners (Pearce and Kay 2003, Mair and Marti 2006, Nicholls 2006, Nicholls and Cho 2006, Hill *et al.* 2010).

One interesting opposition, for example, can be found in the term itself, consisting of the words social and enterprise. Mair and Marti (2006) argue that these are two ambiguous words, connoting different things to different people and are often even regarded as mutually exclusive. This and other ambiguities in the field of social entrepreneurship would call for a post-structuralist approach, in which the contextual meaning is examined. In an upcoming paper, critical discourse analysis (Meyer and Wodak 2009) is applied upon an expert discussion on this topic, with participants from a broad field of backgrounds in Austria.

Change or Tradition

Social enterprises have been described in literature as for-profit social ventures (Dees and Anderson 2006), and social entrepreneurship as a means to alleviate social problems and catalyze social transformation. Some even go further in an almost revolutionary approach and state: social entrepreneurs find what is not working and solve the problem by changing the system, spreading the solution, and persuading entire societies to take new leaps (Drayton 2006). Other scholars argue that: these new institutions increasingly appear as support tools for welfare policies that can help to sustain the European Social Model (Hemerijck 2002). A few scholars, such as Meyer (2007, 2009), argue critically about the concept, claiming that the distribution of social welfare needs to be democratically controlled and that too much of a market-based approach, with its inherent concept of competition, may have unforeseen adverse effects. In the UK, where the concept of social enterprise has been on the agenda for some time now, we find, amongst a plethora of others, the following definitions: according to Social Enterprise London (SEL 2001), a social enterprise:

... is a business with primarily social objectives, whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximize profit for shareholders or owners. (SEL 2001, p. 13)

Pearce and Kay (2003) further demand that a social enterprise needs to:

- have a social purpose (or purposes);
- achieve these purposes by, at least in part, engaging in trade in the marketplace;
- not distribute profits to individuals (prohibition of dividend payouts);
- hold assets and wealth in trust for community benefit;
- involve its members in the governance of the organization;
- be an independent organization.

In their paper 'Conception of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States', Defourny and Nyssens (2009) explain that the specific context of social enterprises in the UK, with its liberal approach to

markets and welfare, must not be overlooked. Under the community interest company (CIC) law for example, a significant part of the total income must be market based, for the enterprise to qualify as a social enterprise. This focus on income generation however is not common for all definitions of a social enterprise. Nicholls (2006) sees the combination of an overarching social mission and entrepreneurial creativity as marking social entrepreneurship as distinct from other public, private or civil sector activity. According to a recent definition by the European Research Network on Social Economy and Social Entrepreneurship (EMES):

... the field of social enterprises includes both, traditional organizations refashioned by a new dynamic, and newly established entities that manage to combine a social and economic dimension. (Galera and Borzaga 2009, p. 9).

This definition again leaves room for interpretation. On a recent panel discussion on the topic of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship, a manager of the Red Cross asked whether his organization would not fit into this definition. Some expert scholars on the panel agreed, and it was a very puzzling question for the audience.

To include many different types and forms of social enterprises, the author uses the broad definition of the Social Enterprise London support agency (SEL 2001), as a selection criteria.

The Social Entrepreneur

Recent research has shown that the conceptions of a social enterprise are closely linked to the phenomenon of social entrepreneurs. However, social entrepreneurship is nothing new. In most definitions, Henry Dunant or Florence Nightingale would count as social entrepreneurs. Current entrepreneurship research (Grichnik 2006) claims that the elements of opportunity recognition and exploitation (Frank and Mitterer 2009), a strong entrepreneurial spirit and effectuation (Sarasvathy 2008) are essential in entrepreneurship. Consequently, Di Domenico *et al.* (2010) give an excellent introduction to the social entrepreneur as Bricolateur, focusing on resourcefulness, improvisation and the overcoming of limitations. Zahra *et al.* (2009) find a typology of social entrepreneurs building upon the legacy of Schumpeter, Hayek and Kirzner, all of which were great Austrian School economists. In their paper, Zahra *et al.* (2009) also provide an excellent condensed overview of other definitions and descriptions of social entrepreneurship. At the same panel discussion as mentioned before, a regional manager of the Vienna Hilfswerk, a traditional non-profit association fulfilling many social tasks, called herself a social entrepreneur, because she was constantly innovating social services, utilizing methods of Bricolage, while asking for contributing fees for these services from clients. This idea should be explored further, as we could see the beginning of a social intrapreneurship (Bosma *et al.* 2010) in traditional non-profit organizations in Austria, something that would allow for change from within.

The Non-profit Sector in Austria

Resistance to Change

In countries with a Bismarckian tradition, including, amongst others, Germany, Belgium, France and Austria, intermediate bodies play an important role in the management of social insurance and the provision of social services (Esping-Andersen 1999). This shaping commonality and the grown institutional characteristics may play an important role in the resistance of the Austrian non-profit sector to implement fundamental change, be it induced from within or through external influences, like social entrepreneurs. As Palier (2010) puts it:

... contributory benefits enjoy a particularly high level of legitimacy and are therefore difficult to be cut back radically. Transfers are 'paid' by social contributions, so workers assume that they have 'bought' social rights. Benefits are usually generous, so their loss would be more significant than the reduction of a benefit that is already at a low level. People prefer to pay more (contributions) than seeing their benefits (bought by their own work) diminished. Finally, insurance-based transfers are well defended by organized interests and in particular by trade unions of the different branches corresponding to the different professional schemes.

Market-based Approaches

The concept of non-profit organizations using, at least partly, market based approaches is not new (Neumayr *et al.* 2007, Statistics Austria 2007). In addition, many non-profit organizations in Austria recently had to face demanding change processes due to the government's decision to reduce lump-sum subsidies in favor of performance-based service contracts (Zauner *et al.* 2006). As Neumayr *et al.* (2007) examine, based on data from Statistics Austria (2007), service fees, sales and membership fees from the private sector can already make up for almost 37% of the revenues for non-profit organizations.

Specifics of the Austrian Non-profit Sector

Austria has a very distinctive volunteer force, often organized in associations (Badelt and Hollerweger 2007) or carrying a heavy workload of one-to-one help. However this is certainly not only true for Austria, Williams (2002) for example shows that one-to-one help is the principal type of voluntary work used by lower income populations in the UK to improve their material circumstances. He even explores the possibility of defining volunteer work as a distinguished fourth sector with its own policy in the UK. One Austrian peculiarity however is the significant role of professional associations, among them the chambers of labor and commerce, with strong links to political parties (Neumayr *et al.* 2007). Political parties have long sought to improve their influence and power in Austria through front-end social organizations,

working in the fields of sports, culture and the provision of social welfare. These organizations can be found even in the smallest towns and villages. Due to this peculiarity, newly founded non-profit organizations often find it hard to gain funding and become established if they do not work closely with one or the other political party (Neumayr *et al.* 2007). In addition the church is a key player in the field of providing social welfare through various organizations, such as Caritas and others. Very little statistical data exist on the non-profit sector in Austria compared with other European countries. Only due to an increased pressure on budget cutting, strong regulatory input from the European Union and a change in the political landscape towards a more liberal approach during the years 2000–2007 has Austria become more aware of the non-profit sector (Neumayr *et al.* 2009). One influential lasting cooperation of the state with non-profit organizations over the last two decades was the implementation of a second labor market program, promoting the integration of unemployed persons through productive activity. These dynamics are often branded as ‘social economy’ although this notion comprises much more (Borzaga *et al.* 2009).

Public Awareness

While in Anglo-Saxon countries such as the US or the UK, or – even closer to Austria – in Italy (Galera and Borzaga, 2009), social enterprises are already a widely recognized and even publicly endorsed concept, it has only been brought to public awareness in Austria within the last two to three years, through a sudden multitude of events and newspaper series. The distinction between traditional non-profit organizations and social enterprises however remains unclear for most Austrians so far. A media search comprising Austria’s leading newspapers for the years 2009 and 2010 came up with the following events and series on the concept of social enterprise (see Table 1).

Table 1. Results of media search

Event name	Media/Host	Year
Social Business Tour	Erste Bank Foundation	2010
Ashoka Globalizers Meeting	Ashoka	2010
Ideen gegen Armut	WU NPO, Coca-Cola, Der Standard	2010
Series on Good Capitalism	Der Standard news	2010
Social Impact Award	WU EC, Emersense	2010
Sozial Marie Preis	Unruhe Foundation	2009/2010
Architects of the Future	Waldzell Institute	2009/2010

Research Methodology – Creating a Framework for the Characterization of Social Enterprises

Kerlin (2010) examines the different factors shaping social enterprises in seven regions and countries. She draws on social origins theory (Moore and Müller 1969, Salamon and Sokolowsky 2004), recent comparative research as

found in Kerlin (2006) and Defourny and Pestoff (2008) and global socioeconomic data from the World Bank. Kerlin identifies six variables for the shape of social enterprises in the different regions and countries. In order to enable subsequent comparative studies including Austria, the author is going to use these variables as dimensions for the characterization of the social enterprises. In addition to the categories above as found by Kerlin, the author also included another dimension, concerning the entrepreneur him/herself. While these dimensions and related sub-codes were defined a priori and used in the online questionnaire, additional codes were later added inductively while emerging either in the online questionnaire or in the interviews. Data collected from all sources were combined for the findings in order to enable proper triangulation. For this, the author used the proven approach as found in Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and Edmondson and Mcmanus (2007). The quantitative parts of the online survey were evaluated using XLstat software from Addinsoft while the qualitative parts, coming from both surveys, as well as from the panel discussion, were analyzed and coded using Atlas.ti software. Qualitative and quantitative findings together were then used to categorize and cluster Austria's SEs, using the framework of dimensions as described earlier (see Figure 1).

The Dimensions of the Framework

The Types of Social Activities

In some European countries, public-private partnerships furthering the integration of unemployed persons through productive activities may be seen as more prevalent, in others, such as in the Scandinavian countries, with their high level of state welfare expenditures, associations with vast membership numbers are traditionally more involved in culture and leisure activities. In the US or the UK, where the field is much bigger and diverse, almost all types of social activities can be found (Defourny and Nyssens 2009). To explore and describe the fields of Austria's social enterprises, the author included a multiple response question providing several preselected items like workplace-integration or education, while at the same time leaving room and encouraging participants for own additions (see Table 2, Dimension I).

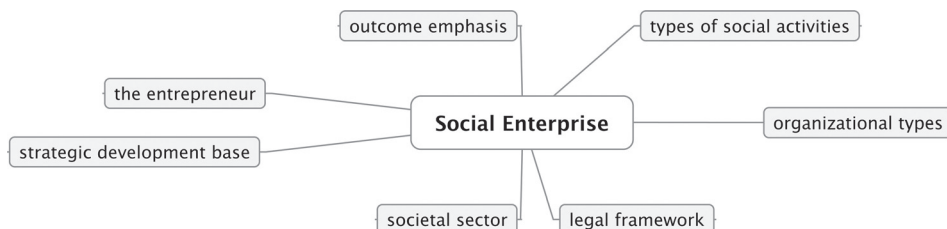


Figure 1. The dimensions of the framework

Organizational Types

Defourny and Nyssens (2009) argue that in countries with a Bismarckian tradition (Esping-Andersen 1989, 1999, 2006, Hemerijck 2002), amongst them Austria, intermediate bodies between the state and public play an important role in the management of social insurance and the provision of social services. The civil society regime in these countries is identified as corporate-statist in Esping-Andersen’s influential paper (Esping-Andersen 1989).

Defourny and Nyssens (2008) further examine that these countries are characterized by large non-profit private organizations, which are mainly financed and often regulated by public bodies. In Anglo-Saxon countries on the other hand, with their liberal civil society regime, the sole social entrepreneur and his small business plays a major role in delivering social services (Light 2006, Harding and Harding 2010). Only recently, with the spreading of international organizations and the active shaping and endorsement of social enterprises through them, is the mixture of organization types providing social welfare within the European countries increasing (Galera and Borzaga 2009). Codes for this dimension include, among others, intermediate/public bodies, affiliates and sole-proprietorships (see Table 2, Dimension II).

Table 2. Dimensions and codes for characterization

Dimension	Description and a-priori codes	Inductively found codes
I. Social Activities	Leisure, Culture, Welfare, Work Emplacement, Education, Mixture	
II. Organizational Types	Intermediate bodies, Public bodies, Sole-proprietor entrepreneur, Location	Affiliates, Team effort
III. Legal Framework	Legal form, Public-benefit, Tax-exempt	
IV. Societal Sector	Social economy, Market economy	Means of income generation, Reaching the target customer base, Importance of governmental service contracts, Volunteer workforce
V. Strategic Development Base	Sources of funding education, Infrastructure	Human resources, Role of state, Role of society, Factors of impact, Networks, Banks, Means of expansion
VI. The Entrepreneur	Education, Motivation	Research & development, Improvisation, Innovation, Perceived threats
VII. Outcome Emphasis	Immediate social benefit, Focus on self-sustainability	Altruism, Income generation focus, Creating social value, Balanced

The Legal Framework

So far, only a few countries have adopted a special legal form for social enterprises. This includes the CIC, the Community Interest Company in the UK (SEC 2006), and in Italy, which was among the first to adapt and further the concept of social enterprises, we find the *cooperative sociali*. The US has its low-profit limited liability company, the L3C tailored for social enterprises. The legal framework is very important when it comes to issues such as tax-deduction and exemption, participation of employees and stakeholders, access to equity capital, dividend payouts and the ability to receive grants. In Austria, there exists the so called gemeinnützige GmbH with some tax alleviations, but so far, this form does not closely relate to the concept of a social enterprise and is very much focused on traditional non-profit organizations. However, recent trends in tax-legislation seem to broaden several aspects of the gGmbH, and it seems that this form may once become a viable legal form for SEs in Austria. The author included the legal framework as dimension III, as seen in Table 2.

The Societal Sector

In Bismarckian countries, as specified before, most of the social enterprises can be placed in the so-called social economy (Defourny and Nyssens 2008) or the third sector, whereas in many regions of the world, social enterprises compete in the market economy. To find out about social enterprises in Austria, the author started with coding for social/market economy and added the following codes then inductively: volunteer workforce, means of income generation, reaching the target customer base and the importance of governmental service contracts (see Table 2, Dimension IV).

Strategic Development Base

What sources of funding and development initiatives for social enterprises are available? This may include international aid programs, as in many parts of Africa, private foundations and organizations, the business world itself and state-run programs. As with the for-profit sector, the strategic development base also includes human resources and infrastructure, including for example business incubators. Codes used for this dimension were: Sources of Funding, Education, Infrastructure, Human Resources, Role of State, Role of Society, Factors of Impact, Networks, Banks and Means of Expansion (see Table 2, Dimension V).

The Entrepreneur

The entrepreneur as the driving force behind the enterprise was included as a separate dimension although qualitative findings on the entrepreneur reflected on the other dimensions as well. 'Education' and 'motivation' were included as a-priori codes and several others, such as 'improvisation' or 'risk-taking', were later added while working with the data (see Table 2, Dimension VI).

The Outcome Emphasis

Is the focus of the social enterprise on an immediate social benefit as in many Western Europe countries or rather on self-sustainability, as is prevalent in many regions in Africa, Asia or South-America (Kerlin 2009). This dimension was carved out from inductively found codes of altruism, income generation focus, creating social value and balanced view (see Table 2, Dimension VII).

Presentation of the Findings

Thirty-four complete questionnaires were submitted. Amongst them, 32 agreed to the selection criteria (translated from German): *A social enterprise is characterized by pursuing a social purpose, while trading its services (at least partially) on the market, and is (at least partially) actively seeking for profit. Any surplus is reinvested for the social purpose and not paid out as dividends. – Is your company a Social Enterprise within this definition?, and only two disagreed. Both in disagreement were managers and not entrepreneurs, and both work in traditional NPOs, one from Caritas and another from a housing association in Linz. These two were not included in quantitative evaluations, but their answers certainly provided additional insight, being used as a comparison in the qualitative findings. One case of the remaining 32 turned out to be a double entry and was later deleted. Fifteen participants of the 33 stated their willingness to be contacted for further questions, and almost all expressed their high interest in the outcome. For the interviews, the author chose 14 practitioners in the field. The cases were selected to represent different sizes and fields of operation within Austria's social enterprises (see Table 3).*

As mentioned before, the collected data from two moderated panel discussions were also included for further triangulation of the findings. Participants of these panels were experts and practitioners from the field of social entrepreneurship, including:

- Sonja Mitsche from 4everyoung;
- Philipp Bodzenta from Coca-Cola;
- Felix Oldenburg from Ashoka Germany;
- Alan M. Webber from *Harvard business magazine* and *FastCompany magazine*;
- Johanna Mair, from IESE Business School, University of Navarra;
- Michael Meyer from Vienna University of Economics and Business;
- Georg Starhemberg, Siemens foundation;
- Martin Essl, baumax AG, Essl foundation.

Dimension I. Organizational Types

The federal states Vienna (29%) and Upper-Austria (29%) lead in numbers of participants in the online survey, followed by Lower-Austria, Styria and Carinthia. This does not come as a surprise, as these states display a high

Table 3. Cases of social entrepreneurs

Case no.	Interviewees	Principal activity
1	Marie R.	Ashoka is an international organization supporting social entrepreneurs through various activities, among them training and seed financing. They are also advocates for social entrepreneurship, constantly looking for <i>Changemakers</i> . Country directorate in Austria since 2010.
2	Georg K. Andreas I.	Cropster furthers fair-trade of coffee in South America through the implementation of a web-based tracking system of high quality crops.
3	Gundula S.	Waldzell is an Austrian organization furthering international social entrepreneurship through creating <i>Architects of the Future</i> . Promoting a combination of entrepreneurship and spirituality.
4	Evelina L. Gaythri R.	The good tribe hosts conferences, events and provides education for social entrepreneurs, for example on fair trade of textiles.
5	Sonja M.	4everyoung operates in the field of work-employment, education and empowerment. The workforce from the social target group repairs scraped computers, teaches their use and sells them to those in need.
6	Christian S.	books4life collects used books and sells them for a small amount. Earnings are then donated to social organizations.
7	Stefan P. Rüdiger W.	compuritas collects scraped computers, repairs them and sells them to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in developing countries. In addition they advise on green IT.
8	Egon S.	WineAid collects wine donations from wineries and sells them with their own logo and in nice packages, suitable as companies' giveaways.
9	Dorothea E.	Zimd works in gender sensitive education and runs several empowerment and self-awareness programs.
10	Theresia B.	Hermes is a social bank, allowing people to invest money for green or social purposes. Hermes gives then loans to social entrepreneurs (micro-finance)
11	Gabriele B.	Caritas is a traditional non-profit organization operating in a multitude of social welfare fields.
12	Heidemarie P.	Der glücklichste Augenblick builds awareness on how to stop smoking through low-threshold sympathetic temporary outlets.
13	Franz E.	GBL is a work-employment organization working for a specific region with high unemployment.
14	Mathias R.	The Hub Vienna provides a workplace and a network for social entrepreneurs.

entrepreneurial activity and lead in regional gross domestic product (Statistics Austria 2009). Among all participating enterprises, 74% are located in cities and 19% in the countryside. The rest are spread over several locations, including other countries. As can be seen in Table 4, Austria's social enterprises are relatively young.

Contrary to expectations that Austria's social enterprises would be found connected to large non-profit organizations, either as subsidiaries or through

Table 4. Foundation date of Austrian social enterprises

Variable	Mean	Median	Std. deviation	Range
Foundation year	2004.64	2007.00	6.27	28

Table 5. Ownership

Variable	Independent- single owner	Independent- multiple owners	Subsidiary of non-profit	Public- private- partnerships
Ownership	39%	52%	3%	6%

Table 6. Number of employees

Variable	Mean	Median	Std. deviation	Range
No. of employees	14.5	8	21	100

a redefinition of these as a social enterprises, the study came up with different results, as seen in Table 5.

Only two of the 31 enterprises had more than 50 employees, with a maximum of 100. Both were relatively old organizations, founded in 1996 and 1998, respectively. On average, a social enterprise in this study has 14.5 employees, as can be seen in Table 6. This is very much in line with the average workforce of Austria’s for-profit enterprises, considering the Chamber of Commerce and Statistics Austria reports (Statistics Austria 2009).

An overwhelming majority of the enterprises is independently owned and not affiliated with any private or public body. In line with findings from the EMES (Borzaga *et al.* 2009), only 52% have a multiple stakeholder structure while 39% are single-owned companies. Austria’s social enterprises are, on average, very young and thus the maturity grade can be assumed to be rather low. Subsequent longitudinal studies will certainly provide additional insights.

Dimension II. Types of Social Activity

The findings are based on a multiple response question, where people could select more than one item. The author provided several items upfront, but also left room for additional types of activity. The results showed the huge variety of fields in which social enterprises in Austria are working. In addition, 68% also work, simultaneously, in multiple fields. The pre-selection of the items, based upon preliminary talks with experts, also proved to be quite sufficient as only three had to manually add their fields, including

supporting less-privileged kids and helping kids with cancer. Among the more prevalent fields (multiple selections) were:

- education 47%;
- corporate social responsibility 36%;
- consulting other SE/NPO 33%;
- environment 30%;
- tolerance, working against discrimination 22%;
- international Cooperation, working for peace 22%;
- development in Third World countries 22%;
- health issues, prevention 19%;
- space for creativity 19%;
- research in the field 19%;
- reusing second-hand items 16%;
- work emplacement 16%.

Another interesting aspect that came up in discussions is that the Caritas (no. 11) as a traditional non-profit organization is already operating in almost all the fields, thus being a competitor – however, with a completely different financing and marketing approach, as will be displayed later in the study.

The findings from the interviews were quite similar. The interviewees work, amongst others, in the fields of networking, education, workplace integration, international rural development, fair trade and housing (nos. 1–14). Austria's social enterprises operate in a variety of fields, often as competitors to traditional non-profit organizations. This corresponds with current research findings from the EMES (Borzaga *et al.* 2009, Travaglini 2009).

Dimension III. Legal Framework

While the literature review showed that in some countries, such as the US, the UK, Italy or Japan, there are already special legal forms for social enterprises, there were no such constructs in Austria by 2010. Social enterprises in Austria therefore come in all different legal forms (see Table 7) and have to deal with all the advantages and disadvantages that the various legal forms bring with them. There is one construct for non-profits that allows for some tax alleviations, and can be used for social entrepreneurship as well – the *gemeinnützige GmbH.*, a form of a public benefit, limited company. Inherent regulations and demands to maintain this status however are highly complex and sometimes even ambiguous, thus greatly diminishing the value for social entrepreneurs. Forty-seven percent of all social enterprises state that they have applied for tax-exemptions within the various legal forms

Table 7. Legal forms

Variable	Sole-proprietor	GmbH. + gGmbH.	Association	Others
legal form	28%	32%	31%	9%

they are working in. There are no publicly listed social enterprises in the form of an AG (Aktiengesellschaft, an Austrian legal form for a company limited by shares) so far.

Dimension IV. Society Sector

In which society sector can Austria's social enterprises be located, public, private or civil society? Two indications were examined. First, is the enterprise based upon voluntary work, as in civil society (see Table 8), or is there a considerable paid workforce, operating in the market? Second, how do these enterprises reach their customer base, what marketing tools do they use?

Roughly half of the workforce in the participating organizations consists of volunteers and 20% come from the social target group. The interviews found further evidence in displaying that most of the unpaid volunteers were entrepreneurs themselves or experienced managers doing something meaningful by helping the entrepreneur, while day-to-day operations were in the hands of paid employees.

Further evidence on the workforce was found in the Interviews:

- (No. 5): Employing people from a wide range for a transitory year. Among them are socially disadvantaged teenagers, older laid off people and people with all kinds of disabilities.
- (No. 5): They all work together for a year, learning from each other, with the aim of subsequent inclusion in the first labor market.
- (No. 10): Directorate works on a volunteer basis to ensure growth.
- (No. 2): Experienced manager wants to do something meaningful and works on a volunteer basis.

A majority of all participant SEs in Austria, over 84%, reach their target group through acquisition and active participation in the market, using classic marketing tools such as promotion and public relations. Thirty-one percent of them are still relying on a multiple approach, a mixture of market and cooperation with other NPOs and public bodies. The customer scope ranges from 30% local and regional, 30% nationwide and 40% international.

In a multiple response question, concerning income generation, the results showed a mixture, with income from selling on the market as one option,

Table 8. Findings on employees

Variable	Percentage (%)
Enterprises with volunteer workers	45
% of volunteers in overall SE-workforce	46
Enterprises with employees from social target group	29.0
% of overall SE-workforce coming from social target group	21.9

leading with 68%. Among other important sources of income are 32% donations, 26% public grants, 23% service contracts and 16% from membership fees. However, 88% focus on creating their primary sustainable income from their own market-based activities. A supportive qualitative finding for this may be that in talks with social entrepreneurs and at the panel-discussions, one theme occurred quite often: the unpredictability of government funding over the years. In times of intense public budget debates and constant reduction of governmental expenditures, it is seen as extremely hard to keep up a sustainable income source from the government, especially for smaller companies, that are not in political or societal focus. Thus, a sustainable income from market-based activities is seen as a viable and desirable option. Another interesting finding was that managers coming from traditional non-profit organizations had some concerns with this approach, although they were quite open. Entrepreneurs did not display any resentment but saw this option as a natural way to go in order to fulfill their social purpose and to live from their activities at the same time. In addition, several participants claimed that their social activities would not be funded through government service contracts in the first place, because their social target group is so small and not in political focus and thus they do not have any other choice than to employ on market based activities. To conclude with a comparison with the comparative findings presented by Kerlin (2010), Austria's social enterprises are somewhere in between the civil society and the market. While the origins of many can be traced back to voluntarism, working within the social sector, a majority now utilizes market tools and fiercely strives for sustainable market-based income (Zahra *et al.* 2009).

Dimension V. Strategic Development Base

What resources can be found, fostering the development of social entrepreneurship in Austria? A priori codes included state and society, networks and financiers. The combined findings on the role of the state and society (multiple response) showed that participants:

- regard society as being supportive of their venture 55%;
- think that bureaucracy and legislation hinder their efforts 39%;
- enjoy a good cooperation with other NPOs or SEs 39%;
- think that legislation provides a good framework for their work 10% (!).

Case evidence on the role of state and society from the interviews:

- (No. 5): Cannot employ their cases from the target group longer than one year due to legislation on work-emplacment (transitory jobs).
- (No. 5): People cannot find a job in the first job market afterwards, due to the overly high minimum wages for older people in the collective contracts that are legally binding. So many older people would like to

work in the new field and be happy with reasonable wages, but they simply cannot, due to legislation.

- (Nos. 6, 5, 7): People donate books and computers for the social purpose.
- (Nos. 2, 8): Society is very open to social ideas and assists in selling and promoting.
- (No. 9): Schools endorse the idea and send pupils, as the state does not offer such a service.

A combined effort of experts in the field, using brainstorming techniques, produced the factors in Table 9 with a perceived impact on social enterprises in Austria.

Table 9. Factors with perceived impact on social enterprises in Austria

Beneficial	Detrimental
Flexible tertiary educational system (people can choose and are able to change over time)	Nepotism (need for necessary membership to the right parties for access to resources)
High income (room for finding meaningful occupations after building up a bolster pillow)	Little equity capital and rigid capital markets (hard to start a social activity with debt capital)
High social security (allowing for experiments)	Social security (rigid system, too much trust upon, no need for self-responsibility)
Networks (with the negative extreme of nepotism as being detrimental)	Provincialism
Laws and taxation (safety, little corruption and legal certainty)	Xenophobia
Geographic location (excellent hub for central and eastern Europe)	Religion (as in the church being an overly-powerful competitor)
Spread of media (mobilization)	Little entrepreneurial spirit
Human resources (very well educated and qualified workforce for almost all fields)	Risk aversion
Strong economy (creating opportunities)	
Strong associations (people are willing to do voluntary work)	
Religion (as Christian believes)	

Supporting Organizations and Networks

Thirty-five percent of the social entrepreneurs have never heard about any of the preselected support organizations, nor did they suggest any other candidates. Sixty-five percent however do know at least one of the given selections, with Ashoka and The Hub leading the field. This correlates well to the media search from the beginning, where the Hub Vienna, Ashoka, Ideen gegen Armut and Waldzell were found to be very prominent in the media reportages.

- The Hub 45%
- Ashoka 42%

- Ideen gegen Armut 32%
- Waldzell 29%
- Skoll 19%
- Social Enterprise Alliance 13%
- Social Enterprise Coalition 6%

Among the organizations added by the participants were: Vielfalter, Sozial Marie, Caritas Ausbildungszentrum, Echoing Green, Unlimited UK/India, Projekt500, Soziales Innovations Forum, Schwab Foundation and Brandstiftung.

Interestingly, there was no obvious correlation between the knowledge of any of these organizations and either, internationalization or sustainability. In the interviews, most participants however have already had contact with one or the other organization. The two top reasons for collaborating and seeking contact were the inspirational input from networking with peers in the sector and access to grants through the various competitions by the organizations. Marie R. from Ashoka (No. 1) explains that, while she is convinced that many social tasks are duties of the state and the public welfare system, when it comes to finding and fostering innovation within, the rigid system is simply not supportive enough. Therefore an organization like Ashoka can work as a catalyzer, assisting social entrepreneurs in Austria in many ways, from inducing ideas and concepts to providing seed finance. The ideas and concepts of the social entrepreneurs can then subsequently have an impact on change through being a working role-model for governmental action.

Access to Finance

Banks are neither seen as being overly supportive nor too restrictive by the social entrepreneurs. Only 10% however claim that they have sufficient financial means for expansion, but 42% state that means are scarce but will do. There are some banks, for example the Erste Bank Stiftung affiliate GoodBee, working in Central and East Europe, that are specifically addressing many needs of social entrepreneurs and can thus be seen as business incubators as well.

For example, the activities of GoodBee, as stated on its webpages, include:

- producing honey = offering simple, safe, affordable and accessible microfinance products;
- building hives = developing microfinance ventures in Central and Southeast Europe;
- cross-pollinating = joining forces and sharing resources with complementary partners for a greater impact;
- creating buzz = building awareness for inclusive financial services and social entrepreneurship;
- becoming a platform and enabler of social entrepreneurship in the region.

Theresia B. from Hermes Austria (No. 10), a social enterprise (micro-financing) bank, that was founded to bring affordable banking and support to people involved in ventures for environmental or societal benefit, sees a great interest and endorsement from people who want to invest their money to further these initiatives. Another aspect that must not be overlooked in Austria is the emergence of venture philanthropists and foundations, providing seed and venture capital to social entrepreneurs. Amongst them are Martin Essl, founder of baumax AG, Georg Starhemberg and the Turnauer family. They advocate social responsibility among for-profit enterprises and try to establish the role of foundations for social benefit in Austria just as the Bill and Melinda Gates foundation does worldwide. Millner, a scholar from the Vienna University of Economics and Business, sees a huge potential within Austria's foundations that has not been put to use for social purposes so far. To conclude and reflect on the findings, Austria's social ventures are very welcomed by the society. There are many supporting organizations and even relatively easy access to finance. The role of the state and its legislation is seen as highly ambivalent. In addition, the good provision of social welfare through state programs allows for experiments in social ventures, but it is also seen as rigid and often hindering through having adverse effects on motivation for social ventures (Palier 2010).

Dimension VI. The Entrepreneur/Entrepreneurial Manager

Austria's social entrepreneurs are very well educated. Almost all participants have at least a *Matura*, a UK A-levels equivalent, allowing for direct access to universities, while 68% are university graduates. When asked about their field of study (multiple answers possible), a majority of 56% have a business studies background, while 25% come from technical fields and 16% from social-studies. Of those who submitted their name, 44% were male and 56% female.

To find out more about the reasons (multiple answers), why the particular service had not been established in that way before, see Table 10.

In addition, participants provided the statements given in Table 11 on their services.

Again, qualitative findings provide additional insights.

Table 10. Why has this service not been established before?

Reason/Code	Percentage of consent (%)
the service idea had not been found before	50
the service/need is not in political/societal focus	39
no governmental financing	25
there were different ways before	18
the need was not existent before	11

Table 11. Statements about offered services

Statements – With my service, I . . . :	Percentage of consent (%)
create a new offer	68
supplement services found on the free market	45
supplement services from the state	19
can offer existing services in a new, more efficient way	32
create a completely new market	35
competing with other providers	26

Case evidence for new service/new market:

- (No.2): A global tracking system for high quality crops for small farmers.
- (No. 4): Hosting conferences and events on fair trade clothing.
- (Nos. 5, 7): Collecting scrapped computers, repairing them and selling them to those in need.
- (No. 10): Providing micro-financing for social and environmental entrepreneurs.
- (No. 9): Gender sensitive education through programs like *Roberta*, teaching robotics for girls, or *Burschentraining*, a role-finding program for male youngsters.

Concurring with the literature, innovation and improvisation are prevalent themes for social entrepreneurs.

Case evidence for improvisation and innovation:

- (No. 5): Necessity to improvise because of the lack of money for expansion.
- (No. 5): Making do with what is at hand while fulfilling social purpose.
- (No. 14): Renovating a loft in Vienna with little financial means, reusing objects and turning to the community for help.
- (No. 8): Seizing opportunities as presented in the media for own case.
- (No. 12): Asking befriended artists to help gain attention for free.

As Mathias from (No. 14) stated:

Improvisation is always a big topic, for example if you want to renovate a loft in Vienna's 7th district, that is going to look like The Hub, you need improvisation. It is not possible otherwise, you would need a relatively high budget to realize it with contractors. So you need to make ends meet, find smart solutions, reuse existing items, include the community . . .

When asked about the biggest threats for their enterprise (multiple answers possible), the coded findings are given in Table 12.

Table 12. Biggest threats

Threats	Percentage of consent (%)
Sustainable access to finance	52
Economic needs	45
Political changes	35
Legal issues and uncertainties	16
Increased competition	16

Many social entrepreneurs in the interviews explained that they have to struggle to generate the necessary income; only 64% see their business as yet financially sustainable. Austria's social entrepreneurs are well educated and utilize proven methods of entrepreneurship, such as improvisation. They create social value through innovation (Archer *et al.* 2009, Di Domenico *et al.* 2010, Fuglsang 2010). Unlike many of the more traditional non-profit forms, these social entrepreneurs take up a considerable amount of entrepreneurial risk and are willing to include their own stakes, enduring personal hardships.

Dimension VII. Outcome Emphasis

As the concept behind the dimension of outcome emphasis proved to be rather complex in the preliminary tests, the author decided not to define a priori codes but rather derive a description from the combined gathered data through induction and reflection. While working with the data, the author found the following codes within the material: creating social value, altruism, focus on income generation and balanced view.

Social value creation was a prominent and often the trigger motive for many of the interviewed social entrepreneurs. This is in-line with findings from Di Domenico *et al.* (2010), who examine the social entrepreneur as a Bricolateur with a focus on social value creation.

Case evidence of creating social value:

- (No. 12): Bringing a highly disputed health topic into public light
- (No. 8): Helping children in need.
- (Nos. 13, 5): Assisting unemployed people.
- (No. 9): Helping children find a gender aware role.
- (No. 2): Improving the income of crop farmers in South America.
- (No. 14): Providing room for social entrepreneurs to work in and exchange ideas
- (No. 8): Earning money through the selling of collected wine donations to subsequently donate to children's associations
- (No. 16): Earning money from the books they sell to donate to charitable organizations.

Case evidence for altruism while creating social value:

(Nos. 1, 2, 6, 8, 10): Working for the social purpose even if it means very little to no income.

Case evidence of focus on income generation while creating social value:

- (No. 9): Want to live from fulfilling the social purpose, therefore want to earn enough money for their lifestyle.
- (No. 2): Want to earn decent salaries for managers and employees while working only with the social target group.
- (No. 14): Want to live from the income while fulfilling their social purpose.

Case evidence for balanced view while creating social value:

- (No. 9): A family couple running a social venture together, she has a tendency towards entrepreneurial (income) thinking while he acts more altruistically.
- (No. 2): Taking decisions for either increasing social value or for income generation to enable sustainable provision of social value, according to the situation.
- (No. 13): Knowledge that under-financing can jeopardize the success of the whole social project in the long term.

The outcome emphasis of Austria's social enterprises clearly lies within the creation of social value through actively working in the field. Income generation is seen as necessary and valuable, but it is not the primary aim for the creation of the venture and it certainly is not the primary focus (Tan *et al.* 2005, Zahra *et al.* 2009).

Conclusion

Two aspects became prevalent during the study. First, there is a difference between social enterprises and traditional non-profit organizations in Austria, and second, not all results for the Western European region as found in Kerlin (2009, 2010) can be applied to Austria.

Differentiation between Traditional Non-profit Organizations

The study clearly showed that a social enterprise as a business concept in Austria differs from traditional non-profit organizations in this country. Single characteristics or traits, such as, for example, a focus on income generation from market-based activities, voluntarism or a prominent motivation of doing social good were seen to overlap, and are thus not useful to employ for a sharp distinction. As Gabriele from Caritas stated:

... every non-profit organization would want to create a financial surplus through their services, where this is possible, and they will want to invest this surplus for the creation of new offers and advancement of existing services within their own vision and aims. So, when the notion of Social Enterprise is broadly defined, there is no sufficient differentiation to the notion of a non-profit.

However, what was found to be useful for a differentiation between traditional non-profits and social enterprises was a combination of the characteristics, which was deliberately created by the social entrepreneur himself. This combination included a high level of autonomy, a significant amount of risk taking, a focus on income generation for the venture and the entrepreneur himself, and the strong motivation to constantly innovate and improvise for the purpose of creating social value. The study showed that, corresponding with Haugh's (2005) theoretical base, a combination of a social purpose, together with an entrepreneurial spirit, as opposed to either the prevalent managerialism in many traditional non-profits or the philanthropist non-profit spirit, can be seen as a constitutive factor of Austria's social enterprises. However, as being spirited is a personal trait, and managerialism on the other hand is often a mere consequence of the needs for scaling or competition, longitudinal research on social enterprises may provide additional insights, especially as many Austrian social enterprises are still at a very early maturity stage. Such studies can aim to find out for example, whether this uniqueness in entrepreneurial spirit will change through maturing and scaling, and thus blur the boundaries once more.

Comparative Analysis

In order to enable subsequent comparative analysis, the empirical findings have been explored, triangulated and clustered in the previous sections. This paper provides an anchor for further studies of similarities or dissimilarities, possible convergences and divergences of the development of social enterprises including Austria, and interdisciplinary research from a political, cultural or historical context.

In her paper, Kerlin (2010) presents a comparative overview between seven regions in a table format. In order to be compatible, the author will therefore draw upon the structure of this very table to present the quintessential findings of this study and thus allow for direct comparison (see Table 13).

As can be seen in Table 13, the findings for Austria came up with some different results than Kerlin presented for Western Europe. This once more displays the need for a cautious, granular approach in researching social enterprises from a comparative point of view and that the available data may not be sufficient for any generalizations on a global scale.

Austria's social enterprises are relatively young, independently owned and mostly not affiliated to large, traditional non-profit organizations. While in some countries and regions, such as for example in the United States, these organizations often embrace the concept of a social enterprise

Table 13. Findings of the study within the dimensions

Dimensions	Austria	Western Europe (Source: Kerlin 2010)	Eastern Europe (Source: Kerlin 2010)
Outcome emphasis	Social and ecological benefit	Social benefit	Social benefit
Program area focus	Human services/ employment/ environment	Human services/ employment	Human services/ employment
Common organizational type	Small business entrepreneurs, associations	Association/ cooperative	Association/ cooperative
Legal framework	gGmbH to some extent, no plans for a special legal form for SE	Developing	Developing
Societal sector	Eco-social market economy	Social economy	Social economy
Strategic development base	Government/EU/ private, crowd based initiatives	Government/EU	International donors/ EU

to generate an additional income; this is certainly not true for Austria. There almost seems to be a rivalry about legitimization on the delivery of social welfare.

Another good example of a difference is a focus on ecological issues within the types of social activities and a great variation within the fields, in contrast to a prevalent opinion that the focus would be on the delivery of social welfare and employment services. Western Europe as a region also differs in the creation of special legal forms for social enterprises. While Italy or the UK already have advanced concepts, Austria still struggles to adapt the non-profit form of a gGmbH for this purpose.

In addition, the society sector is unique in Austria. Due to the development of the 'Ökosoziale Marktwirtschaft' (eco-social market economy) as Austria's economic system over the last few decades, rules, regulations and the meanings of public/private and civil society are somewhat different from those concepts in other countries. Market-based ventures often automatically include a stakeholder participation. Austria's social enterprises are therefore found to be somewhere in between the civil society and the market. As a strategic development base, the study found several new forms of crowd-sourcing while the government and the EU still have a very large impact.

References

- Archer, G., Baker, T., and Mauer, R. 2009. Towards an alternative theory of entrepreneurial success: integrating bricolage, effectuation and improvisation. *Frontiers of entrepreneurship research*, 29 (6), article 4.

- Badelt, C. and Hollerweger, E., 2007. Ehrenamtliche Arbeit im Nonprofit Sektor. In: C. Badelt, M. Meyer, and R. Simsa, eds. *Handbuch der Nonprofit Organisationen. Strukturen und Management*. 4th ed. Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel, 503–531.
- Borzaga, C., Defourny, J., and Galera, G., 2009. Remarks on the study of practices and policies in the social enterprise sector in Europe carried out by KMU Forschung Austria. *EMES European Research Network*, March.
- Bosma, N., Jones, K., Autio, E., and Levie, J., 2009. *Global entrepreneurship monitor 2009*. Executive Report, Babson College, London Business School and Global Entrepreneurship Research Consortium (GERA).
- Bosma, N., Wennekers, S., and Stam, E., 2010. *Intrapreneurship – an international study*. Scales research reports, EIM Business and Policy Research.
- Dees, J. and Anderson, B., 2006. Framing a theory of social entrepreneurship – building on two schools of practice and thought. *ARNOVA occasional paper series*, 1 (3), 1–28.
- Defourny, J. and Nyssens, M., 2008. Social enterprise in Europe: recent trends and developments. *Social enterprise journal*, 4 (3), 202–228.
- Defourny, J. and Nyssens, M., 2009. Conceptions of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States: convergences and divergences. In: *Second EMES international conference on social enterprise*. Trento, Italy, 1–26.
- Defourny, J. and Pestoff, V., 2008. *Images and concepts of the third sector in Europe*. EMES working paper no. 0812. Available from: emes.net.
- Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y., 2003. *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*. 2nd ed. London: Sage.
- Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y., 2005. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. 3rd ed. London: Sage.
- Di Domenico, M., Haugh, H., and Tracey, P., 2010. Social bricolage: theorizing social value creation in social enterprises. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 34 (4), 681–703.
- Drayton, B., 2006. Everyone a changemaker: social entrepreneurship's ultimate goal. *Innovations*, 1 (1), 80–96.
- Edmondson, A. and Mcmanus, S., 2007. Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of management review*, 32 (4), 1155–1179.
- Esping-Andersen, G., 1989. The three political economies of the welfare state. *Canadian review of sociology/Revue canadienne de sociologie*, 26 (1), 10–36.
- Esping-Andersen, G., 1990. *The three worlds of welfare capitalism*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Esping-Andersen, G., 1999. *Social foundation of postindustrial economies*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Esping-Andersen, G., 2006. The three worlds of welfare capitalism. In: *The welfare state reader*. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Polity Press, 160–174.
- Frank, H. and Mitterer, G., 2009. Opportunity recognition – state of the art und Forschungsperspektiven. *Zeitschrift für Betriebswirtschaft*, 79 (3), 367–406.
- Fuglsang, L., 2010. Bricolage and invisible innovation in public service innovation. *Journal of innovation economics*, 1 (5), 67–87.
- Galera, G. and Borzaga, C., 2009. Social enterprise: an international overview of its conceptual evolution and legal implementation. *Social enterprise journal*, 5 (3), 210–228.
- Grichnik, D., 2006. Die Opportunity Map der internationalen Entrepreneurshipforschung: Zum Kern des interdisziplinären Forschungsprogramms. *Zeitschrift für Betriebswirtschaft*, 76 (12), 1303–1333.
- Harding, R. and Harding, D., 2010. *Social entrepreneurship in the UK*. London: Social Enterprise Coalition.
- Haugh, H., 2005. A research agenda for social entrepreneurship. *Social enterprise journal*, 1 (1), 1–12.
- Hemerijck, A., 2002. The self-transformation of the European social model (s). In: G. Esping-Andersen, eds. *Why we need a new welfare state*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 173–214.
- Hill, T., Kothari, T., and Shea, M., 2010. Patterns of meaning in the social entrepreneurship literature: a research platform. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1 (1), 5–31.
- Kerlin, J., 2006. *Social enterprise: at the crossroads of market, public policies and civil society*. London: Routledge.
- Kerlin, J.A., 2009. *Social enterprise: a global comparison*. Lebanon, NH: Tufts University Press.
- Kerlin, J., 2010. A comparative analysis of the global emergence of social enterprise. *VOLUNTAS: international journal of voluntary and nonprofit organizations*, 21 (2), 162–179.

- Light, P. 2006. Reshaping social entrepreneurship. *Stanford social innovation review*, (Fall), 47–51.
- Mair, J. and Marti, I., 2006. Social entrepreneurship research: a source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of world business*, 41 (1), 36–44.
- Meyer, M., 2007. Wie viel Wettbewerb vertragen NPO? Befunde zum Nutzen und Schaden von Wettbewerb im Dritten Sektor. In: B. Helmig, R. Purtschert, R. Schauer, and D. Witt, eds. *Nonprofit-Organisationen und Märkte*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 59–77.
- Meyer, M., 2009. Wie viel Wirtschaft verträgt die Zivilgesellschaft? Über Möglichkeiten und Grenzen wirtschaftlicher Rationalität in NPOs. In: I. Bode, A. Evers, and A. Klein, eds., *Bürgergesellschaft als Projekt*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 127–144.
- Meyer, M. and Wodak, R., 2009. *Methods for critical discourse analysis*. London: Sage.
- Moore, B. and Müller, H.G., 1969. *Social origins of dictatorship and democracy* (Soziale Ursprünge von Diktatur und Demokratie). Boston: Beacon Press.
- Neumayr, M., Meyer, M., and Pospisil, M., 2009. The role of civil society organisations in different nonprofit regimes: evidence from Austria and the Czech Republic. *Comparative social research*, 26, 167–196.
- Neumayr, M., Schneider, U., and Meyer, M., 2007. *The non-profit sector in Austria – an economic, legal and political appraisal*. Institute for Social Policy, Vienna University of Economics. Vienna: ePub.
- Nicholls, A., 2006. Playing the field: a new approach to the meaning of social entrepreneurship. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 2 (1), 1–5.
- Nicholls, A. and Cho, A., 2006. Social entrepreneurship: the structuration of a field. In: A. Nicholls, ed. *Social entrepreneurship: new models of sustainable social change*. New York: Oxford University Press, 99–118.
- Nyssens, M., 2006. *Social enterprise: at the crossroads of market, public policies and civil society*. London: Routledge.
- Palier, B., 2010. *A long goodbye to Bismarck?: the politics of welfare reform in continental Europe*. Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.
- Pearce, J. and Kay, A., 2003. *Social enterprise in anytown*. London: Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation.
- Salamon, L. and Sokolowsky, S., 2004. *Global civil society: dimensions of the nonprofit sector?* Bloomfield: Kumarian Press.
- Salamon, L., Sokolowsky, S., and Anheier, H., 2000. *Social origins of civil society: an overview*. Working paper of the Johns Hopkins comparative nonprofit sector project no. 38. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies.
- Sarasvathy, S., 2008. *Effectuation: elements of entrepreneurial expertise*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- SEC. 2006. *Keeping it legal, a guide to legal forms for social enterprises*. London: Social Enterprise Coalition.
- SEL. 2001. *Introducing social enterprise*. London: Social Enterprise London.
- Statistics Austria. 2007. *Nonprofit organisations in Austria. First extrapolations*. Vienna: Statistics Austria.
- Statistics Austria. 2009. *Statistik zur Demografie von Unternehmen*. Vienna: Statistics Austria.
- Tan, W., Williams, J., and Tan, T., 2005. Defining the ‘social’ in ‘social entrepreneurship’: altruism and entrepreneurship. *International entrepreneurship and management journal*, 1 (3), 353–365.
- Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C., 2003. *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research*. London: Sage.
- Travaglini, C., 2009. Social enterprise in Europe: governance models. In: *Second EMES international conference on social enterprise*, Trento, Italy: EMES, 1–26.
- Williams, C.C., 2002. Harnessing voluntary work: a fourth sector approach. *Policy studies*, 23 (3), 247–260.
- Zahra, S., Gedajlovic, E., Neubaum, D., and Shulman, J., 2009. A typology of social entrepreneurs: motives, search processes and ethical challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24 (5), 519–532.
- Zauner, A., Heimerl, P., Mayrhofer, W., Meyer, M., Nachbagauer, A., Paschak, S., and Schmidtmay, H., 2006. *Von der Subvention zum Leistungsvertrag. Neue Koordinations- und Steuerungsformen und ihre Konsequenzen für Non-profit Organisationen – eine systemtheoretische Analyse*. Bern: Haupt.

II

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP RESEARCH ACROSS DISCIPLINES: PARADIGMATIC AND METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

by

Othmar M. Lehner & Juha Kansikas, 2011

Paper presented at the 3rd EMES Conference on Social Enterprise Research
Roskilde, DK, July 2011

Reproduced with kind permission by the EMES Research Network



**SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP RESEARCH ACROSS DISCIPLINES:
PARADIGMATIC AND METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Othmar M. Lehner and Juha Kansikas

3RD EMES INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL ENTERPRISE

**SOCIAL INNOVATION THROUGH SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP
IN CIVIL SOCIETY**

4 – 7 July 2011 · Roskilde University (Denmark)

Contents

Abstract.....	3
1. Introduction	4
2. Existing paradigmatic discussions in SE research.....	5
3. A choice of frameworks for the analysis	6
3.1. Critical views	8
3.2. Alternatives	8
4. Methodological considerations.....	8
4.1. Coding.....	11
4.2. Interpretivist example	13
4.3. Functionalist Example	14
4.4. Outcomes and authors' inter-coding	15
5. Findings and Evaluation.....	15
6. Conclusion	18
7. References.....	19

Abstract

Social entrepreneurship research has recently been presented in literature as a field of action in a pre-paradigmatic state, a field that lacks an established epistemology. Despite that important facet, several major qualitative and quantitative studies have already been undertaken on the sole base of some institutions' worldview. Structuralists and social constructivists approaches have found much ambivalence in these and even question social entrepreneurship's legitimization as a distinctive item of research generally.

Articles on the topic of social entrepreneurship apply a great variety of frameworks, borrowing for example from neo-institutional or dialectic theory, bringing with them many different research methods and views from other disciplines. Instead of proposing another conceptual approach and yet contributing to the ongoing discussion, the authors enact on a deductive journey by examining and clustering underlying paradigmatic assumptions found in current literature based on the framework of Burrell and Morgan. Prevalent paradigms in social entrepreneurship literature are thus identified and correlated to disciplines and schools of thoughts. The authors find that from a longitudinal perspective social entrepreneurship research has undergone several paradigmatic *leitmotivs* over the years 2005 to 2010 and the applied methods and approaches differ between researchers from various disciplines.

1. Introduction

Social Entrepreneurship (SE) as an emerging research field has been well received by authors from a variety of disciplines (Ireland and Webb, 2007; Short *et al.*, 2009) such as:

- *sociology* (Hockerts *et al.*, 2010)
- *entrepreneurship* (Chell *et al.*, 2010; Corner and Ho, 2010)
- *(public) management* (Bagnoli and Megali, 2009; Meyskens *et al.*, 2010)
- *ethics* (Cornelius *et al.*, 2008)
- *finance* (Austin *et al.*, 2006)
- *politics and institutions* (Hemerijck, 2002; Dey and Steyaert, 2010)
- *psychology and education* (Chand and Misra, 2009)

Academic journals have embraced this topic with an increasing number of special issues, and in addition, several newly emerged journals and conferences, focusing especially on social entrepreneurship, have paved the way for an ever-increasing body of social entrepreneurship research. Mair & Marti (2006: 43) introduce SE as a fascinating playground for different perspectives and diverse theoretical lenses:

“... the variegated nature and multiple expressions of social entrepreneurship make it a fascinating playground for different perspectives and literature, and at the same time, suggest that it should be studied through diverse theoretical lenses.”

However, a diversity in disciplines does not necessarily result in a likewise diversity of the meta-theories, as meta-theoretical underpinnings can cross and transcend boundaries (Gergen and Thatchenkery, 1998; Perren and Ram, 2004).

While there are several articles discussing paradigmatic implications in SE research, so far, a comprehensive analysis of the meta-theoretical assumptions in SE research has been missing. Such philosophical and societal foundations of a field are of high relevance if scholars search for *justification, consolidation or solidification* of their approaches (Grant and Perren, 2002; Jennings *et al.*, 2005) – issues of high importance in the field of SE research. To thus gain insight into the construction of paradigmatic *leitmotifs*, the authors explore scholarly literature on SE in the context of the paradigm-framework by Burrell & Morgan (1979).

Carefully selected SE literature from the years 2005 to 2011 was reflected onto this framework to shed new light onto the:

- paradigmatic and methodological choices in SE research
- influences from disciplines and theories
- longitudinal development of the field

The subsequent evaluation of the findings then explored:

- possible preferences and missing approaches
- domination of some disciplines and theories
- longitudinal changes
- signs of development and maturation
- possible criteria for a methodological fit in SE research

In order to achieve the set research aims, the authors followed well-established procedures of analysing literature, as demonstrated and seen in (Grant and Perren, 2002; Harden and Thomas, 2005; Kyro and Kansikas, 2005).

2. Existing paradigmatic discussions in SE research

Given the name of the field, one may derive the conclusion that research on SE is just another offspring of entrepreneurship research. However when reading through literature, it becomes eminent that research methodology and inherent paradigms somewhat differ from commercial entrepreneurship literature. Within the field of traditional for-profit entrepreneurship, most of the applied theory of research is located within the bounds of the "Functionalist" paradigm (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Grant and Perren, 2002; Burrell and Morgan, 2005), and thus characterized by an objectivist perspective and rooted in a regulation view on society (Chell and Pittaway, 1998; Jennings *et al.*, 2005).

In SE literature however, relatively few authors embark on quantitative, theory testing research from a positivist epistemology, within a realist ontology (Short *et al.*, 2009) - rather the opposite: definitions are called for with caution (Zahra *et al.*, 2009; Lehner, 2011), outcomes depend on the eye of the observer (Hill *et al.*, 2010; Hoogendoorn *et al.*, 2010), the individual is seen as an important hero-like actor in for example creating opportunities (Seelos and Mair, 2005; Drayton, 2006; Mair and Marti, 2009), and institutions are using different definitions of SE for their own, sometimes divergent and intrinsic agenda (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Hervieux *et al.*, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010).

Even the words *social entrepreneurship*, although constituting the essence of the field (Mair and Marti, 2006), are often regarded as spanning a tension-field, as being mutual exclusive. Two very different domains are combined through the dualistic aim of *creating social value* and at the same time achieving *economic sustainability* (Nicholls, 2006; Hockerts *et al.*, 2010). Therefore social entrepreneurship research has to cater for a dual logic, social and entrepreneurial, and often fails in delivering methodological robustness by omitting one or the other (Edmondson and Mcmanus, 2007).

Articles on social entrepreneurship are often seen as being grounded in a subjective ontology with an antipositivist epistemology and a voluntarist view of human nature (Burrell and Morgan, 2005; Hervieux *et al.*, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010). Scholars apply qualitative coding schemes in thematic analyses, for example based on Denzin & Lincoln (2003; Di Domenico *et al.*, 2010), are using myth and metaphors (Cho, 2006; Trivedi and Stokols, 2011) to define the world of social entrepreneurs, enact on (critically) analysing discourse as presented in (Phillips *et al.*, 2007; Meyer and Wodak, 2009) (Downing, 2005; Jones *et al.*, 2008; Dey, 2010; Dey and Steyaert, 2010) and yet others start by defining social entrepreneurs as *change agents* a-priori in an advocacy point of view (Drayton, 2006). Due to the nascent nature of the field and its researchers' caution in finding a definition, as well as due to the on-going redefinition of the research agenda, several scholars such as Nicholls (2010) or Hervieux (2010) examine the process of legitimization. Nicholls (2010), following Kuhn (Kuhn, 1963; 1996) calls SE a field in a pre-paradigmatic state, a field that thus lacks an established epistemology. Through the lenses of the structuration theory (Giddens, 1984) Nicholls for example, identifies how institutions try to gain control over the field through their narrative-logic in an *reflexive isomorphism*. Hervieux examines the legitimization of SE through a discourse analysis. Short, Moss and Lumpkin (2009) further examine the field of SE research in a functionalist

fashion and consequently find a lack of formal hypotheses and rigorous methods. Suggestions in their article include the future inclusion of quantitative methods such as multivariate-analysis and the call to include well-established theories from strategic entrepreneurship. However this would imply that a) SE is grounded within the domain of entrepreneurship and b) that its definitions and boundaries are already carved out in a way to allow for quantitative theory testing. However, even in current years, most SE scholars begin with what seems a quest for definition and a careful exploration of the field, as can be seen for example in Zahra et al. (2009).

3. A choice of frameworks for the analysis

Burrell and Morgans' (1979) text *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis* has not lost its appeal and relevance to social science research. As Grant and Perren (2002) state, it is still one of the most widely disseminated paradigmatic frameworks. There are over 600 citations to Burrell and Morgan (1979) in the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) from the years 1990 to 2000 (Grant and Perren, 2002).

While many disciplines and theories can be identified as contributing to the field, even sometimes competing with each other, the ultimate underpinnings in form of “*a philosophy of science and a theory of society*” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979: 1) are still of relevance if scholars search for justification, consolidation or solidification of their approaches (Grant and Perren, 2002; Jennings *et al.*, 2005). Based on the state of research in SE, such a call seems of a particularly high relevance.

To enable such a quest for the philosophical underpinnings of a research field, a closer look on philosophical assumptions within the prevailing literature seems appropriate. Such assumptions, including those on:

- Ontology: What exists in the world, what is the nature and structure of it,
- Epistemology: The nature of human knowledge and understanding that can be acquired through different means of inquiry,
- Methodology: How can we find out whatever it is believed to be known

- are either explicitly (openly stated) or implicitly (can be derived) used as a base by researchers. Within these, the extreme positions are reflected in “Positivism”, standing for a *realist ontology with a positivist epistemology, a deterministic view of human nature and nomothetic methodologies* and, on the other side, “Anti-Positivism” with a *subjective ontology, an anti-positivist epistemology, a voluntaristic view of human nature and ideographic methodologies* (see table 1).

	Objective View	Subjective View
Ontology	Realism	Nominalist
Epistemology	Positivist	Anti-positivist
Human Nature	Determinism	Voluntarism
Methodology	Nomothetic	Ideographic

Table 1. Assumptions in Objective/ Subjective View in Burrell and Morgan (1979)

Similarly, researchers hold differing views about the nature of society, for example whether they see cohesion or disintegration. This particular view has an impact on

the perspective and ultimately on the valuation and presentations of their findings. On the one hand the “Regulation” perspective explains *status quo, organization, coherence, structure, social order, consensus, social integration, solidarity, individual and actuality* and in contrast, the “Radical Change” perspective is concerned with explaining *structural conflicts, domination and subjugation, contradictions, emancipation and potentiality* (see table 2).

	Radical View	Regulation View
Dynamic Nature	Change	Status quo
Decision and will forming	Conflict	Order
Participation	Power, Domination	Consensus
Capital	Emancipation	Solidarity
Time frame, scope	Deprivation	Need Satisfaction
	Potentiality, Future	Actuality

Table 2. Assumptions in Objective/ Subjective View in Burrell and Morgan (1979)

These independent ends then span a two-dimensional force field of:

(Subjective vs. Objective) --> (Regulation vs. Radical Change)

- thus setting the quadrants for four distinct paradigms (see figure 1): “Functionalist,” “Interpretive,” “Radical Humanist,” and “Radical Structuralist” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Burrell and Morgan, 2005) These paradigms enable clustering and identifying meta-theoretical assumptions of researchers that underpin the shared *philosophy, perspective, mode of theorizing, and approaches*.

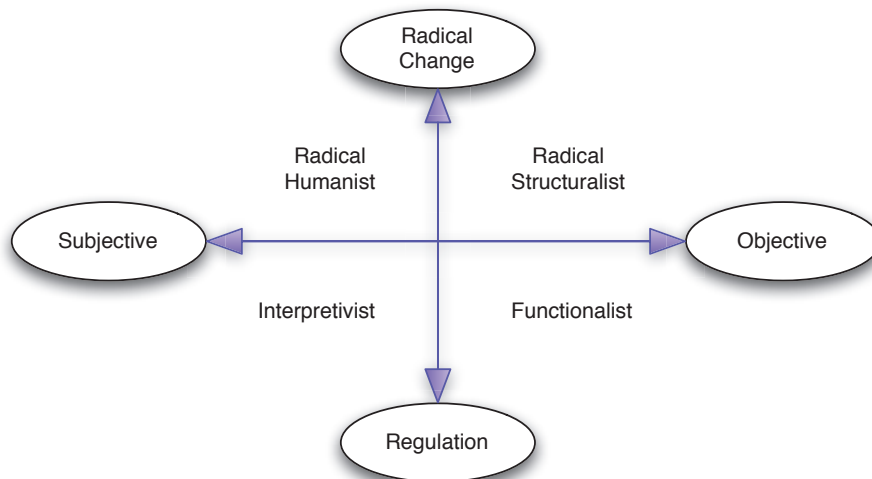


Figure 1. Paradigmatic Framework based on Burrell and Morgan(1979)

The “Functionalist” paradigm has been shown to dominate in commercial entrepreneurship literature (Grant and Perren, 2002; Jennings *et al.*, 2005), but what about the other three paradigms for the analysis of social theory, namely “Interpretive”, “Radical Humanist” and “Radical Structuralist” (see figure 1)? Can we identify these in social entrepreneurship research? If yes, and as these paradigms are typically more seen in research from authors rooted in other disciplines than

entrepreneurship or management, it would mean that SE research is distinctive in that matter - and as such, SE research may well influence the domain of entrepreneurship research as a whole in reflection. Ideological, epistemological and ontological dimensions of social entrepreneurship have already been critically examined in a variety of ways (Haugh, 2005; Cho, 2006; Nicholls and Cho, 2006; Chell, 2007; Peattie and Morley, 2008; Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010) and the applied methods were scrutinized (Short *et al.*, 2009), but so far, no systematic review of *underlying meta-theoretical assumptions* has been conducted. Burrell and Morgans' framework seems to be particularly suited for such a task, as it is widely accepted and the dimensions of *Change* and *Regulation* have a high significance in SE discourse. This framework, as seen in figure 1, became also a de-facto standard, given that several disciplines and research fields have made use of it to examine their own theoretical underpinnings. Thus adhering to this standard will also enable subsequent comparative studies and may thus provide additional insights.

3.1. Critical views

It has to be acknowledged that this framework has been criticized and adapted by several scholars (Alvesson and Willmott, 1996; Deetz, 1996; Scherer, 1998; Burrell, 1999; Scherer and Steinmann, 1999; Heugens and Scherer, 2010) to reflect changes and problems in their particular research fields. This can be seen however as a sign of great influence and impact of this framework and the authors still hold the merits of its original assumptions and propositions for the meta-theoretical analysis of SE literature, as most of the criticism and further developments are only based on individual observations and arising needs from special research applications.

3.2. Alternatives

Giddens structuration theory (1984) claims a *transcendence from paradigmatic meta-theories* and draws upon interpretative, structural and structuralist sociologies (Mouzelis, 2000). This framework has been used by Nicholls (2010) in the SE realm, but it was not chosen by the authors as the degree of success of the transcending strategies is still not commonly agreed (Mouzelis, 2000; Grant and Perren, 2002; Watkins-Mathys, 2005). Also Bourdieu (Steyaert, 2007; Emirbayer and Johnson, 2008) and with him philosophical foundations from Wittgenstein, Husserl, Weber or Marx would have been an option. However such a choice would have not provided a likewise commonly accepted framework and thus have counter measured the authors' intentions to allow for a field wide discussion based on common ground.

4. Methodological considerations

As stated before, to come up with valid findings, the authors followed well-established procedures of analysing literature, as demonstrated and seen in (Grant and Perren, 2002; Harden and Thomas, 2005; Kyro and Kansikas, 2005).

The method flow is displayed in figure 2 and holds to the standard stages of a systematic review as found in Harden & Thomas (2005):

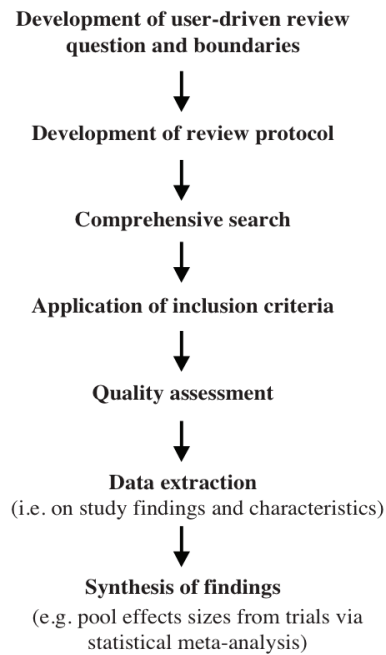


Figure 2. Stages for a systematic literature review Source: (Harden and Thomas, 2005)

One of the problems in relatively new research fields is a lower acceptance of corresponding articles in major journals, such that hidden gems, protagonists and well-cited articles are often found in not so well known journals or in conference proceedings. In addition, there are several journals that just emerged with the field themselves and are thus too young for an inclusion in any ranking list or the SSCI, the Social Sciences Citation Index. All these make it difficult to set out and create suitable boundaries within SE research literature.

Therefore the authors were using a two-step approach. First they selected and included scholarly articles that were searchable through the SSCI, from the years 2005 till 2011. In a second step, they identified journals, edited books and conferences in the references of these articles. The list of the journals, which were seen to contribute several cited articles to the topic, is compiled in table 3. Several more journals contributing only few articles to the field were included in the literature survey but not listed here.

Journals with articles of relevance	
Business Horizons	Journal of Entrepreneurship
Business Review, University of Auckland	Journal of Innovation Economics
Corporate Governance	Journal of Management
Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	Journal of Public Affairs Education
Erasmus Research Institute of Management	Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development
Handbook of Research in Social Entrepreneurship	Journal of Social Entrepreneurship
International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business	Journal of World Business
International Small Business Journal	Transaction Society
Journal of Business Ethics	Socio-economic Review
Journal of Business Venturing	Stanford Social Innovation Review
	Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal

Journals with articles of relevance	
International Journal of Entrepreneurship Behaviour and Research	Journal of Enterprising Communities
Entrepreneurship and Regional Development	Social Enterprise Journal
International Journal of Emerging Markets	International Journal of Social Economics
Public Administration Review	International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations
Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly	

Table 3. Identified Journals with articles of relevance as compiled by the authors.

In a second step these journals were then searched for articles with keywords “social entrepreneur*”, “social enterprise”, “social venture” or “social business” from the years 2005-2011. 2005 seems to mark a census, as most SE literature before appears to be based on success stories developed and narrated in an anecdotal way. Literature after 2005 started to include a much broader variety of approaches, several theoretical contributions and also more critical voices. Thus, to provide a theory based on the recent past and concurrently enabling future steps while keeping the sample size manageable, the authors chose to start with the years 2005 for their sampling. The found articles then had to pass a reflective, quantitative sort and selection criteria, based on the self computed citations count within the constant growing body of articles under review. To keep the sample of literature relevant, the authors only included articles with a citation count of at least two. This arbitrary low number was chosen as citation counts within this young developing field are generally not high (except for some highly influential and foundational articles that appear to be heavily cited) and even articles from top journals sometimes only counted for three or four citations. To validate the sorting based on the found citations, the authors were using Harzing’s “Publish or Perish” software (Harzing, 2008), which provides comprehensive statistics on journals, papers and authors.

For the classification within the framework of Burrell and Morgan, the authors were using the qualitative method of a thematic analysis (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). Methodical findings and paradigmatically relevant text fragments were explored. While the identification of the method was comparatively easy, as most papers had a section explaining the applied methods; the paradigmatic part turned out to be more sophisticated. For this the authors embarked on a deductive coding of the articles according to the constructs identified by Burrell and Morgan (see table 4 and 5) and thus reflected on the underlying paradigms (see figure 3).

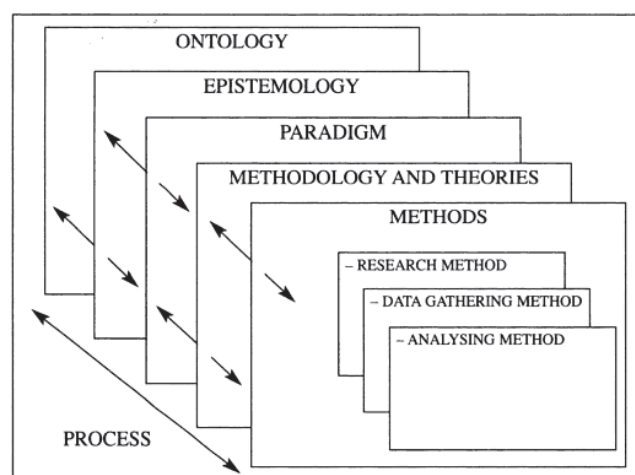


Figure 3. Interplay of Methods and Ontology (Kyro, 2003)

In addition, if applicable, applied theories and perspectives from outside SE research, especially from other disciplines were also identified. Finally, to differentiate “extraordinary research” from “normal science” in entrepreneurship (Kuhn, 1970) the authors chose to compare articles to Kuhn’s demands that authors doing extraordinary research:

- find difficulty in relating their work to existing published research studies in the field.
- demonstrate a heightened awareness of methodology and reflexivity that extends far beyond that typically exhibited in the Functionalist paradigm papers that dominate top journals.

4.1. Coding

The found articles were deductively coded to the framework by examining proxy artefactual evidence (Grant and Perren, 2002) and matching these to the paradigmatic positions as seen in Burrell and Morgans’ framework (see tables 1 and 2). The inherent meaning as well as the classification order is displayed in tables 4 and 5.

	Interpretation	Result
Ontology	Is reality existing detached from mind or a product of the individual’s reality given or a product of the mind?	
Realism	Realism assumes that the real world has hard, tangible structures that exist irrespective of our labels. The social world is separate from the individual’s perception of it and has the same hard structures as the physical world.	Objective
Nominalism	Nominalism assumes that social reality is relative, and the “social world” is built up mainly by names, concepts, and labels that help the individuals structure reality. These labels however are artificial creations, often only fully comprehended by the creator.	Subjective
Epistemology	What forms of knowledge can be obtained, how can truth and false be distinguished. Can knowledge be acquired, or must it be in-depth experienced?	
Positivist	Positivists believe knowledge to explain and predict what happens in the social world can be obtained by searching for patterns and relationships between people. They believe one can develop hypotheses and test them, and that knowledge is a cumulative process.	Objective
Anti-Positivist	Anti-positivists claim that observing behaviour cannot help one understand it. One must experience it directly and personally. In their extreme form, anti-positivists reject that social science can create true objective knowledge of any kind.	Subjective
Human Nature	Are humans determined by their environment, or do humans create their environment?	
Determinism	Plan or a	Objective
Voluntarism	"Free will"	Subjective
Methodology	How can we find out about what we believe exists?	
Nomothetic	Nomothetic M. relies on scientific methods as seen for example in physics and hypothesis testing, using quantitative tests like surveys, experiments, and standardized tools.	Objective
Ideographic	Ideographic inquiry focuses on "getting inside" a subject and exploring the background. This includes often involvement in people’s normal lives and observation.	Subjective

Table 4. Four socio-philosophical positions and their meaning (Burrell and Morgan, 1979)

In order to classify articles within the framework, the authors focused first on the single attributes such as Ontology, Epistemology, Human Nature, Methodology and the View on Society, and then matched the outcome to the corresponding paradigms (see table 5).

Paradigm		Examples from SE Literature
Interpretivist Focuses on how individuals create, modify, and interpret the world, and see things as more relativistic.	Nominal Anti-Positivist Ideographic Voluntarism Regulation	(Steyaert and Dey, 2010) (Nicholls, 2010)
Radical Humanist Same as Interpretivist, but with aspects (low threshold) of a radical view as seen in table 2	Nominal Anti-Positivist Ideographic Voluntarism Radical View	(Dey and Steyaert, 2010) (Mair and Marti, 2007)
Functionalist Examines relationships and regularities between the elements. They search for concepts and universal laws to explain reality.	Realism Positivist Determinism Nomothetic Regulation	(Korosec and Berman, 2006) (Bagnoli and Megali, 2009)
Radical Structuralist Same as Functionalist but but with aspects (low threshold) of a radical view as seen in table 2.	Realism Positivist Determinism Nomothetic Radical View	(Chand, 2009) (Murphy and Coombes, 2009)

Table 5. Paradigms as seen by Burrell and Morgan (1979) and sample occurrences within SE literature.

In order to transparently display the coding process based on the textual proxies, a sample coding is presented here as a pars-pro-toto based on two articles. The first one was later classified in the “Interpretivist” paradigm (Steyaert and Dey, 2010), and in contrast the second one in the “Functionalist” paradigm (Korosec and Berman, 2006) The samples show only some textual fragments, while in the complete process a categorical fit was only derived after several redundant occurrences of the codes in the articles. The coding itself was based on established methods by Denzin and Lincoln (2003).

4.2. Interpretivist example

As Steyaert and Dey (2010) write:

(2010: 231) "... Taking a theoretical view of research as 'enactment', this paper explores research as a constitutive act and explores a range of ways of relating with and constructing the subject of inquiry..."

Research is seen as a constitutive act, and relates with the subject.



Nominalism

(2010: 232) "... Research agendas are more than just negotiations that pinpoint potential directions for accommodating the careers of scholars; they can also be seen as political and ethical tools for considering other possible worlds ..."

The subject of inquiry is seen as hermeneutic, as being constructed.



Anti Positivist

(2010: 244-245) "... that if social entrepreneurship aims to counter social injustices, poverty, disasters or diseases at source, there is also a need to invent research practices that are able to 'match' this complexity, that are critical of the research process and that also consider how research can contribute to the ongoing enactments of different social worlds to increase the interventionist dimension of enactive research."

Researchers are seen to not only consider social change but also to initiate the process through their research.



Voluntarism

(2010: 235) "... Critique as denaturalizing operates on the basis of a linguistic paradigm (Deetz, 2003) that conceives of social entrepreneurship as being the product of particular social or dialogical practices (Cho, 2006)."

This displays a focus on analysis in terms of agency and structure thus being interpretive of the language.



Idiographic

The view on society of this paper was not easy to derive. While there are several hints to a more *Radical view* (e.g. calling research "dangerous", identifying intervening potential) the authors finally concluded to categorize it in the **Regulation view** as most of these hints were merely used to explain how society and individuals reflect on SE research. Matching the attributes as seen in table 5, the underlying meta-theories of the paper were thus identified as belonging to the **Interpretivist** group.

4.3. Functionalist Example

As Korosec and Berman (2006) write:

(2006: 448) "This study examines how cities help social entrepreneurship the activity of private individuals and organizations taking initiative to address social challenges in their communities."

Social Entrepreneurship is seen as being existent irrespective of any names.



Realism

(2006: 448) "This study examines activities through which municipalities support the development of programs and efforts by private individuals in their communities, and how these activities affect social entrepreneurship in their communities."

A search for patterns and relationships can help explain the world.



Positivist

(2006: 450) "A survey was mailed to city managers and chief administrative officers (CAOs) of 544 U.S. cities with populations over 50,000 during the fall of 2003 ..."

Use of statistics and large-scale surveys.



Nomothetic

(2006: 453) "We also examined correlates of the aggregate measure of municipal support. For example, we assessed the prevalence of concerns about municipal support for social entrepreneurship and their impact on that support."

The environment has an influence on the actors.



Determinism

(2006: 449) "Of course, social entrepreneurs are also expected use modern management practices in their efforts"

The view on society is on regulation and management.



Regulation

According to the framework in table 5, this article was classified as belonging to the **Functionalist** paradigm group.

4.4. Outcomes and authors' inter-coding

At the end of the coding of each article, there were three outcomes to deal with as displayed in table 6. Several articles showed tendencies to deviate in one attribute from the classification framework. Methodology for example was found to be of a qualitative nature, e.g. a case study, whereas the underlying meta-theory would have been one from Positivism and Realism. Such occurrences were then dealt with as seen in table 6, outcome 3 and it was individually examined whether these deviations were voluntarily emplaced (e.g. due to the nascent research field) or whether these can be seen as erroneous, as contradicting a methodological fit.

Possible outcome of the coding process	Steps
1. Agreement on the individual attributes between the authors.	On to classification as seen in table 5
2. Disagreement on the individual attributes.	Discussion & possible Re-Evaluation -> Decision -> On to classification as seen in table 5
3. Conflicting or inconsistent individual attributes seen by both authors.	Discussion & possible Re-Evaluation -> Examination whether approach was chosen voluntarily and documented within the article -> then either a) or b) -> a) On to classification using a "best-fit" approach. Remarks b) Classifying paradigm as Pragmatist through induction. Remarks

Table 6. Possible Outcomes of the coding process and subsequent steps

In addition, the articles were explored by the authors whether an already established theory (Ireland and Webb, 2007; Schendel and Hitt, 2007) was applied explicitly as a base and a connection to a research discipline could be made. The found theories are displayed in table 8.

5. Findings and Evaluation

Literature was identified and examined through the processes described in the previous sections and subsequently clustered, based on the criteria of Burrell and Morgans' framework (see tables 4 and 5). The emerging data was then

- a. statistically evaluated as presented in tables 7-9, and
- b. reflexively put into the context of existing literature.

In total there were 323 articles analysed. As earlier reviews on commercial entrepreneurship literature would suggest, the authors expected the majority share of papers as being classified in the "Functionalist" paradigm (Grant and Perren, 2002). In SE research however, the majority of the articles was found to be based on the philosophy of the "Interpretivists" and as such literature differs from commercial entrepreneurship and management research.

Paradigm	Count/ Percentage
Functionalist	146 (45%)
Radical Structuralist	4 (1%)
Interpretivist	161 (50%)
Radical Humanist	12 (4%)

Table 7. Classification of SE literature, N=323

Also themes and theories from different disciplines were examined (Ireland and Webb, 2007; Short *et al.*, 2009). The found themes and their relative occurrence were displayed in table 8.

Found Themes	Occurrence (+ to +++)
Innovation	+++
Bricolage, Improvisation	+++
Opportunity Recognition & Creation	+++
Strategy	++
Politics/ Institutionalism	++
Change	+++
Leadership	+
Behaviourism/ Psychology	++
Finance/ Accounting	+
Culture	+
Networking/ Social Capital	+++
Public management/ Welfare	++
Resource Based View	++
Critical Discourse	++
Management	++
Ecology	+
Public Relations (CSR)	++
Growth/ Scaling	+

Table 8. Identified theories

What was found missing for example were the role of risk, technology, experience, and education (Schendel and Hitt, 2007). Also the finance, accounting, operational research and organization management canon appears sparsely populated. Ecology however seems to have recently found its way into SE as more and more papers emerge since 2010 (Trivedi, 2010). The transformation of social entrepreneurs into more managerial oriented social enterprises and sub sequential scaling, for example through franchising (Tracey and Jarvis, 2007), is still an almost un-researched and promising field that was called for in literature.

The found data offers remarkable insights into the state of SE research, which will be explored in-depth underneath table 9. Over 20% of the articles showed inconsistencies in the classification attributes, most of the literature was using qualitative methods in data evaluation and 48% of the articles were of a conceptual nature, describing and explaining social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurial processes.

Statistics to induce further exploration	Percentage
Articles with inconsistencies between Paradigm (Burrell and Morgan) and Methods	70 (22%)
Conceptual Papers	155 (48%)

Statistics to induce further exploration	Percentage
Qualitative Methods	258 (82%)
Quantitative Methods	61 (19%)

Table 9. Emerging irregularities and peculiarities, multiple entries possible, therefore sum > 100%

A reflection of the found data onto existing research came up with the following findings:

1. Many articles can be classified within the “Interpretivist” paradigm, this is different to commercial entrepreneurship literature where most of the research can be classified within the “Functionalist” paradigm (Grant and Perren, 2002).
2. Several articles (22%) showed inconsistencies during the classification in the framework of Burrell and Morgan. While pleading for an objectivist perspective, authors were for example using ideographic methods and paying careful attention to individuals and phenomena (Lehner, 2011). While some may see these approaches as erroneous and a disregard of methodological fitness, others may find a necessary pragmatically mixed method approach, suiting the complex field of SE research (Creswell, 2009). Also, whether to use nomothetic or idiographic approaches in the social sciences, whose subjects are unique individuals (ideographic perspective), but from whom certain general properties or behaviour, according to general rules (nomothetic perspective) shall be derived, can pose a difficult challenge and has thus being taken into account in the analysis of methodological fitness (Molina-Azorín and Cameron, 2010).
3. Paradigmatical leitmotifs can be identified from a longitudinal perspective. Early literature between 2005 and 2007 is full of contradictions and inconsistencies, traditional “Functionalist” thinking is being challenged by the need of *constructional awareness*, and attempts to *derive generalization* through, sometimes inadequate, means. 2008 to 2011 saw a dawn on self-confidence in the field and several endeavours to argue critically on the construction of SE and its legitimacy. Scholars seem to have become more alert to the paradoxes of SE research (Peattie and Morley, 2008). Attempts include new conceptualizations through for example schools of thought (Hoogendoorn *et al.*, 2010) or the adoption of theories such as neo-institutionalism to find explanations. In addition 2008 to 2011 sees an increasing number of linguists, constructivists and structuralists, examining the politics and narration of SE (Jones *et al.*, 2008; Dey and Steyaert, 2010).
4. The body of literature so far rises exponentially. 2008 - 2010 has seen almost triple the amount of new journal articles compared to the numbers in 2005 – 2007.
5. While in classic entrepreneurship literature a societal view of “Regulation” is very common (Grant and Perren, 2002), SE literature also includes more “Radical” views on conflict, power, emancipation, potentiality and future. SE literature seems to be a playground for advocacy and political agendas, much more than commercial entrepreneurship. However, possibly through adverse preconceptions towards radical approaches, this view is not as obvious as for example in classical Marx and often offers itself almost subliminal on a low threshold in the articles.
6. Research purpose leads to either explorative, descriptive or causal research designs, depending on the maturity of a field and the corresponding research questions. Thus as SE research is still in its early stages (Nicholls, 2010), its literature often needs to employ explorative research designs based on qualitative strategies of inquiry due to the nascent character of the field. However, the exact interplay between purposes, fitting strategies of inquiry and methodology, and the

baseline paradigmatical assumptions need to be further questioned to derive implications.

6. Conclusion

The high percentage of conceptual papers may be seen as a sign that SE research is still in flux, searching for direction and legitimacy, and that commonly accepted theories are still rare. Some scholars from the management sciences argue that only when a *theory* has been found and research (meaning data gathering and analytical) methods are typically quantitative, only then the field gains legitimacy (Cummings, 2007). However, paradigms as well as methodological fits (Edmondson and Mcmanus, 2007) in SE literature has been shown to differ from commercial management and entrepreneurship literature. Thus, Cummings legitimacy criteria may not be applicable in SE.

While some may see the found mixed approaches as erroneous and deny methodological robustness in these papers, others may embrace them as a new dawn on how research in SE should be done. It may be interesting to see whether these approaches will hold only in a seemingly constructed field with such a diverse background in theories and disciplines, or may actually reflect back on commercial entrepreneurship and management research and thus break the dominance of the "Functionalist" paradigm in these.

Literature itself suggests some reasons for the difference of SE research to commercial entrepreneurship and management that may be based on:

- the structural dichotomy between *social* and *entrepreneurship*, a tension field both dividing and fertilizing (Chell, 2007).
- SE being a *voluntarily constructed phenomenon* through narration and politics, that fails to be understood from a positivist view, as it actually is constructed (Hervieux *et al.*, 2010; Steyaert and Dey, 2010)
- the early state of the research field, as it needs to borrow qualitative methods to explore and build its theories (Nicholls, 2010).
- a paradigmatical shift in the researchers' communities themselves, as there is a growing understanding on how to employ for example mixed mode methods in a pragmatical approach and how to look out for different contexts (Creswell, 2009; Molina-Azorín and Cameron, 2010; Lehner, 2011; Welter, 2011)

To finally answer the question on extraordinary research following Kuhn, the authors saw the following paradigmatic approach frequently in highly influential SE literature such as (Dees and Anderson, 2006; Mair and Marti, 2006; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006; Zahra *et al.*, 2009; Nicholls, 2010). This approach actually however transcends the paradigmatic boundaries as presented by Burrell and Morgan, and may as such be further examined whether it can be used as a signpost in SE research:

- Ontology: A constructivist view with some realism
- Epistemology: Hermeneutics and Structuralism
- Methodology: Interpretive Structuralism, Focus on the analysis of cases in terms of agency and structure
- Social action: Voluntarism with structural constraints.

7. References

- Alvesson, M. & Willmott, H., (1996) *Making sense of management: A critical introduction*, London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Austin, J., Stevenson, H. & Wei Skillern, J., (2006) "Social and commercial entrepreneurship: Same, different, or both?", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30, 1, pp. 1-22.
- Bagnoli, L. & Megali, C., (2009) "Measuring performance in social enterprises", *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 20, 10, pp. 1-17.
- Burrell, G., (1999) "Normal science, paradigms, metaphors, discourses and genealogies of analysis", in Clegg, S.R. & Clegg, C.H. (eds.) *Studying organization: Theory & method*, London: SAGE Publications, pp. 388-404.
- Burrell, G. & Morgan, G., (1979) *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis*, London: Heinemann.
- Burrell, G. & Morgan, G., (2005) *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life*, Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Chand, V.S., (2009) "Beyond nongovernmental development action into social entrepreneurship", *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 18, 2, pp. 139-166.
- Chand, V.S. & Misra, S., (2009) "Teachers as educational-social entrepreneurs: The innovation-social entrepreneurship spiral", *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 18, 2, pp. 219-228.
- Chell, E., (2007) "Social enterprise and entrepreneurship: Towards a convergent theory of the entrepreneurial process", *International Small business journal*, 25, 1, pp. 5-26.
- Chell, E., Nicolopoulou, K. & Karatas-Ozkan, M., (2010) "Social entrepreneurship and enterprise: International and innovation perspectives", *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 22, 6, pp. 485-493.
- Chell, E. & Pittaway, L., (1998) "The social construction of entrepreneurship". *ISBA National Small Firms Conference*, Durham University.
- Cho, A.H., (2006) "Politics, values and social entrepreneurship: A critical appraisal", *Mair, J. & Robinson, J. and Hockerts, K.: Social Entrepreneurship. Hampshire*, pp. 34-56.
- Cornelius, N., Todres, M., Janjuha-Jivraj, S., Woods, A. & Wallace, J., (2008) "Corporate social responsibility and the social enterprise", *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81, 2, pp. 355-370.
- Corner, P.D. & Ho, M., (2010) "How opportunities develop in social entrepreneurship", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34, 4, pp. 635-659.

- Creswell, J., (2009) *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*, London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Cummings, T.G., (2007) "Quest for an engaged academy", *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 2, pp. 355-360.
- Dees, J. & Anderson, B., (2006) "Framing a theory of social entrepreneurship - building on two schools of practice and thought", *ARNOVA Occasional Paper Series*, 1, 3, pp. 1-28.
- Deetz, S., (1996) "Describing differences in approaches to organization science: Rethinking burrell and morgan and their legacy", *Organization science*, 7, pp. 191-207.
- Deetz, S., (2003) "Reclaiming the legacy of the linguistic turn", *Organization*, 10, 3, p. 421.
- Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y., (2003) *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials, second edition*, London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y., (2005) *The sage handbook of qualitative research, third edition*, London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Dey, P., (2010) "The symbolic violence of social entrepreneurship: Language, power and the question of the social (subject)". *The Third Research Colloquium on Social Entrepreneurship*, Oxford, 1-39.
- Dey, P. & Steyaert, C., (2010) "The politics of narrating social entrepreneurship", *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 4, 1, pp. 85-108.
- Di Domenico, M., Haugh, H. & Tracey, P., (2010) "Social bricolage: Theorizing social value creation in social enterprises", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34, 4, pp. 681-703.
- Downing, S., (2005) "The social construction of entrepreneurship: Narrative and dramatic processes in the coproduction of organizations and identities", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29, 2, pp. 185-204.
- Drayton, B., (2006) "Everyone a changemaker: Social entrepreneurship's ultimate goal", *Innovations*, 1, 1, pp. 80-96.
- Edmondson, A. & Mcmanus, S., (2007) "Methodological fit in management field research", *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 4, pp. 1155-1179.
- Emirbayer, M. & Johnson, V., (2008) "Bourdieu and organizational analysis", *Theory and Society*, 37, 1, pp. 1-44.
- Gergen, K. & Thatchenkery, T.J., (1998) "Organizational science in a postmodern context", *In the Realm of Organization. Essays for Robert Cooper*, pp. 15-42.
- Giddens, A., (1984) *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*, Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

- Grant, P. & Perren, L., (2002) "Small business and entrepreneurial research: Meta-theories, paradigms and prejudices", *International Small Business Journal*, 20, 2, pp. 185-211.
- Harden, A. & Thomas, J., (2005) "Methodological issues in combining diverse study types in systematic reviews", *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8, 3, pp. 257-271.
- Harzing, A.W., (2008) "On becoming a high impact journal in international business and management", *European Journal of International Management*, 2, 2, pp. 115-118.
- Haugh, H., (2005) "A research agenda for social entrepreneurship", *Social Enterprise Journal*, 1, 1, pp. 1-12.
- Hemerijck, A., (2002) "The self-transformation of the european social model", in Esping-Andersen, G. (ed.) *Why we need a new welfare state*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 173-214.
- Hervieux, C., Gedajlovic, E. & Turcotte, M., (2010) "The legitimization of social entrepreneurship", *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 4, 1, pp. 37-67.
- Heugens, P. & Scherer, A.G., (2010) "When organization theory met business ethics: Towards further symbiose", *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 20, 4, pp. 643-672.
- Hill, T., Kothari, T. & Shea, M., (2010) "Patterns of meaning in the social entrepreneurship literature: A research platform", *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1, 1, pp. 5-31.
- Hockerts, K., Mair, J. & Robinson, J. (eds.) (2010) *Values and opportunities in social entrepreneurship*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hoogendoorn, B., Pennings, H. & Thurik, A., (2010) "What do we know about social entrepreneurship? An analysis of empirical research", *International Review of Entrepreneurship*, 8, 2, pp. 71-112.
- Ireland, R.D. & Webb, J.W., (2007) "A cross-disciplinary exploration of entrepreneurship research", *Journal of Management*, 33, 6, p. 891.
- Jennings, P.L., Perren, L. & Carter, S., (2005) "Guest editors' introduction: Alternative perspectives on entrepreneurship research", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29, 2, pp. 145-152.
- Jones, R., Latham, J. & Betta, M., (2008) "Narrative construction of the social entrepreneurial identity", *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 14, 5, pp. 330-345.
- Korosec, R.L. & Berman, E.M., (2006) "Municipal support for social entrepreneurship", *Public Administration Review*, 66, 3, pp. 448-462.
- Kuhn, T.S., (1963) "The function of dogma in scientific research", *Scientific change*, pp. 347-369.

- Kuhn, T.S., (1996) *The structure of scientific revolutions*: University of Chicago press.
- Kyro, P., (2003) "Revising the concept and forms of benchmarking", *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 10, 3, pp. 210-225.
- Kyro, P. & Kansikas, J., (2005) "Current state of methodology in entrepreneurship research and some expectations for the future", in Fayolle, A., Kyrö, P. & Ulijn, J. (eds.) *Entrepreneurship research in europe: Outcomes and perspectives*, UK: Edward Elgar, pp. 121-149.
- Lehner, O.M., (2011) "The phenomenon of social enterprise in austria: A triangulated descriptive study", *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 2, 1, pp. 53 - 78.
- Mair, J. & Marti, I., (2006) "Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight", *Journal of World Business*, 41, 1, pp. 36-44.
- Mair, J. & Marti, I., (2007) "Entrepreneurship for social impact: Encouraging market access in rural bangladesh", *Corporate Governance*, 7, 4, pp. 493-501.
- Mair, J. & Marti, I., (2009) "Entrepreneurship in and around institutional voids: A case study from bangladesh", *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24, 5, pp. 419-435.
- Meyer, M. & Wodak, R., (2009) *Methods for critical discourse analysis*, London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Meyskens, M., Robb-Post, C., Stamp, J.A., Carsrud, A.L. & Reynolds, P.D., (2010) "Social ventures from a resource-based perspective: An exploratory study assessing global ashoka fellows", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34, 4, pp. 661-680.
- Molina-Azorín, J. & Cameron, R., (2010) "The application of mixed methods in organisational research: A literature review", *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 8, 2, pp. 95-105.
- Mouzelis, N., (2000) "The subjectivist-objectivist divide: Against transcendence", *Sociology*, 34, 4, p. 741.
- Murphy, P. & Coombes, S., (2009) "A model of social entrepreneurial discovery", *Journal of business ethics*, 87, 3, pp. 325-336.
- Nicholls, A., (2006) *Social entrepreneurship: New models of sustainable social change*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nicholls, A., (2010) "The legitimacy of social entrepreneurship: Reflexive isomorphism in a pre-paradigmatic field", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34, 4, pp. 611-633.
- Nicholls, A. & Cho, A., (2006) "Social entrepreneurship: The structuration of a field", in Nicholls, A. (ed.) *Social entrepreneurship: New models of sustainable social change*, New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 99-118.
- Peattie, K. & Morley, A., (2008) "Eight paradoxes of the social enterprise research agenda", *Social Enterprise Journal*, 4, 2, pp. 91-107.

- Perren, L. & Ram, M., (2004) "Case-study method in small business and entrepreneurial research", *International Small Business Journal*, 22, 1, p. 83.
- Phillips, N., Sewell, G. & Jaynes, S., (2007) "Applying critical discourse analysis in strategic management research", *Organizational Research Methods*, 11, 4, pp. 770-789.
- Schendel, D. & Hitt, M., (2007) "Introduction to volume 1", *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 1, 1-2, pp. 1-6.
- Scherer, A.G., (1998) "Pluralism and incommensurability in strategic management and organization theory: A problem in search of a solution", *Organization*, 5, 2, p. 147.
- Scherer, A.G. & Steinmann, H., (1999) "Some remarks on the problem of incommensurability in organization studies", *Organization Studies*, 20, 3, pp. 519-544.
- Seelos, C. & Mair, J., 2005. Sustainable development: How social entrepreneurs make it happen. *IESE Research Papers*. Navarra: IESE Business School of the University of Navarra.
- Short, J.C., Moss, T.W. & Lumpkin, G.T., (2009) "Research in social entrepreneurship: Past contributions and future opportunities", *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 3, 2, pp. 161-194.
- Steyaert, C., (2007) "Entrepreneurship as a conceptual attractor? A review of process theories in 20 years of entrepreneurship studies", *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 19, 6, pp. 453-477.
- Steyaert, C. & Dey, P., (2010) "Nine verbs to keep the social entrepreneurship research agenda "dangerous"", *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1, 2, pp. 231-254.
- Tracey, P. & Jarvis, O., (2007) "Toward a theory of social venture franchising", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31, 5, pp. 667-685.
- Trivedi, C., (2010) "Towards a social ecological framework for social entrepreneurship", *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 19, 1, pp. 63-80.
- Trivedi, C. & Stokols, D., (2011) "Social enterprises and corporate enterprises: Fundamental differences and defining features", *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 20, 1, pp. 1-32.
- Watkins-Mathys, L., (2005) "Small business and entrepreneurship research: The way through paradigm incommensurability", *International Small Business Journal*, 23, 6, pp. 657-677.
- Weerawardena, J. & Mort, G., (2006) "Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model", *Journal of World Business*, 41, 1, pp. 21-35.
- Welter, F., (2011) "Contextualizing entrepreneurship-conceptual challenges and ways forward", *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35, 1, pp. 165-184.

Zahra, S., Gedajlovic, E., Neubaum, D. & Shulman, J., (2009) "A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges", *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24, 5, pp. 519-532.

III

OPPORTUNITY RECOGNITION IN SOCIAL ENTREPRE- NEURSHIP: A THEMATIC META ANALYSIS

by

Othmar M. Lehner & Juha Kansikas, 2012

Journal of Entrepreneurship 21 (1), 25-58

Reproduced with kind permission by SAGE

Opportunity Recognition in Social Entrepreneurship: a Thematic Meta Analysis

Othmar M. Lehner and Juha Kansikas

School of Business and Economics, University of Jyväskylä, Finland

Abstract

Opportunity recognition (OR) is at the very heart of entrepreneurship. However research on OR in the context of social entrepreneurship is still in its early stages. This paper identifies, codifies and analyses OR relevant articles on social entrepreneurship (SE) through the lens of Sarasvathy's three views of entrepreneurial opportunity recognition. In a second step, statistical methods are applied on the results to indicate possible correlations of different schools of thought in SE and views of OR. OR in social ventures is found to be a prevalent topic in SE literature and differences in OR between social and commercial ventures are found.

Paper type: Research paper

Keywords: social entrepreneurship, opportunity recognition, meta-analysis, thematic-analysis

INTRODUCTION

Helen Haugh (2005) elaborates on the then current state of research in social entrepreneurship (SE) and calls amongst others for a further investigation into opportunity recognition (OR) within SE. OR is at the very heart of venture creation, some scholars regard OR as the basis of entrepreneurship. Thus examining OR in a social entrepreneurship context should shed new light on the inner workings of social entrepreneurs. However, so far only few scholars have followed the lead and contributed to this field. When reading through current papers on this topic, a prevalent focus on case studies and inductive theory building can be found. This can be explained due to the nascent nature of research on opportunity recognition in social entrepreneurship. Nicholls (2010) for example, following Kuhn, finds SE research as a field of action in a pre-paradigmatic state, a field that lacks an established epistemology. Logically therefore, few links, referrals and rebuttals between the current studies on OR in SE exist, nor can quantitative deductive approaches be found. Short et.al. (2010) examine SE literature as a whole and find mostly conceptual and to some lesser extend qualitative case studies but almost no quantitative research. Trivedi gives an excellent overview of current SE literature (2010). As Mair and Marti (2006) state:

... most studies are typically based on anecdotal evidence or case studies, applying diverse research designs and methods and introducing insights from other disciplines.

Fittingly, existing social entrepreneurship literature on OR draws upon a multitude of theoretical frameworks for their research. Amongst others, theories from for example, Austrian School economists like Schumpeter, Kirzner and Hayek (Murphy & Coombes, 2009; Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009) are employed and the behavioural theory of the firm (Zahra, Rawhouser, Bhawe, Neubaum, & Hayton, 2008) is applied. In addition,

closely related concepts to OR, such as Bricolage or Innovation are used to integrate opportunity recognition and exploitation into a broader perspective of social entrepreneurship (Archer, Baker, & Mauer, 2009; Corner & Ho, 2010; Di Domenico, Haugh, & Tracey, 2010; Fuglsang, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Shaw & Carter, 2007).

Some scholars maintain that SE opportunities are different to those found in for-profit ventures (Mair & Noboa, 2006; Robinson, 2006). Reasons for that may be the somewhat different context in which SE takes place, as well as a completely different outcome orientation. It is commonly found in SE research that social entrepreneurs are thriving to create social value as well as a sustainable financial income. However in all reported cases so far, the social mission has always dominated. In addition, as *social value* is a rather circumscribed aim, an aim that is sometimes only socially constructed over time and through intense interaction and collaboration - so this very outcome definition may have a significant impact on OR in SE. Also what must be taken into account is the somewhat uncharted territory that social entrepreneurs find themselves in. Often their ventures are placed between civil-society, the state and the market, with influences from all three. One limiting example for opportunity recognition and exploitation may be different legal forms in different nations, that can sometimes have a severe impact on the way a social entrepreneur is allowed to do business. To sum up, there are several factors why OR in SE is assumed to be different, however what is missing is an intertwined theory, accounting for the different schools of thought of social entrepreneurship as well as for different views on OR. Such a theory would call for a quantitative evaluation to be tested. However so far limits and ambivalences in the recognition and legitimization of social entrepreneurship in several cultures have prevented statistical approaches. Therefore, as the next steps in exploring OR in a SE context need to be taken very carefully, to address and cater for the different contexts, the authors take a pragmatic view in applying a mixed mode research design on data that is already available on a meta level.

This paper aims to:

- a) thematically analyse and cluster current research on OR in SE
- b) identify possible correlations between the schools of thought in SE and Sarasvathy's three views on entrepreneurial OR.
- c) derive knowledge on differences in OR between social and commercial ventures.

The following four sequential research guidelines were created:

- (1) Which quality articles on social entrepreneurship are found to display a contribution to the field of opportunity recognition?
- (2) What schools of thought in SE are these papers based upon, what theoretical background from the OR side and the SE side can be identified in them?
- (3) Can correlations between underlying schools of thought in SE and the presented view of OR be found?
- (4) Can evidence of a different approach to OR in SE be found?

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

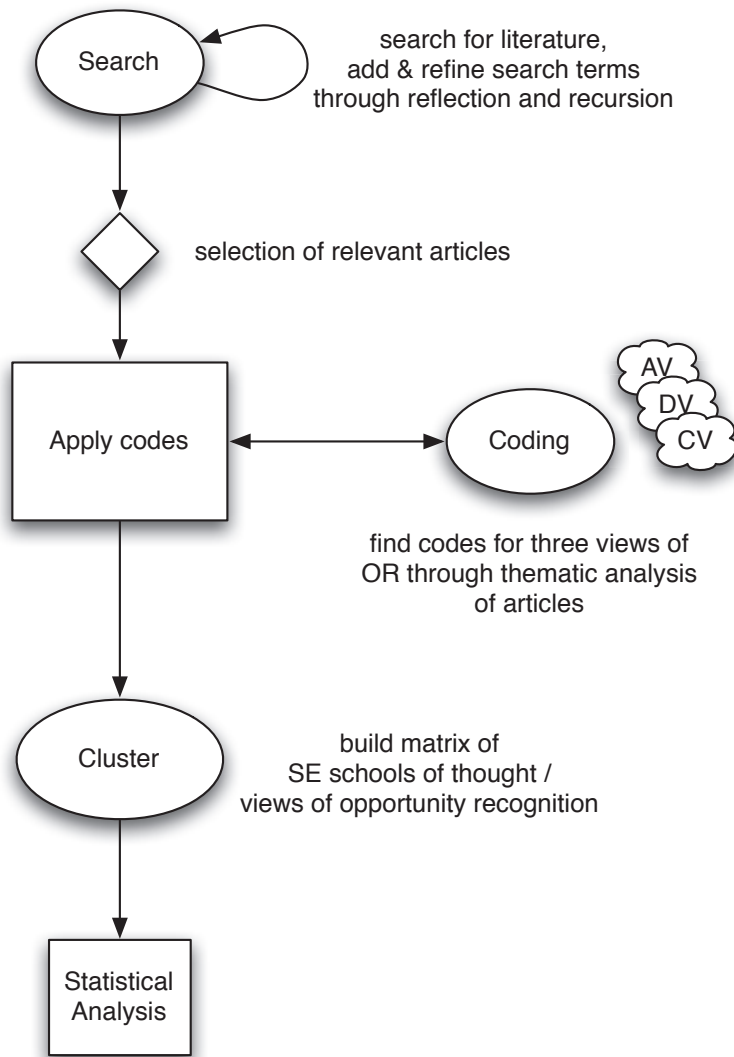
For the selection of articles used in their analysis, the authors reviewed academic peer-reviewed journals that are included in the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI), an interdisciplinary database that covers citations from about 1.950 leading journals of social sciences. The authors selected articles from this database in August 2010 and included all papers published between 2005 and 2010. The advanced search term was TS=(“social entrepreneur*” SAME opportunity). The search came up with only few articles. In order to increase the scale and scope and to provide a more comprehensive collection of this field, the authors subsequently worked out additional search terms inductively and extended the search onto current literature on social entrepreneurship and opportunity recognition from journals that were cited in the previously found papers from the SSCI. This technique is especially important in nascent research fields, as there are many journals on that topic that are too young to be included in any quality list but otherwise provide many hidden gems on the topic.

In total there were N=77 papers included in this review. All articles in this selection were then evaluated whether any substantial focus on opportunity recognition could be found within n=34 and, if applicable, these papers were then subsequently codified to detect the research aim, paradigm and methods, the corresponding schools of thought in social entrepreneurship and a possible theoretical linkage to any of the theories on opportunity recognition. Data analysis included individual paper analysis and cross-paper comparison within categories (see Table 1) and was carried out using Atlas.ti, a qualitative analysis software package for data management, coding, and retrieval. The operating principle of Atlas.ti is based on the technique of thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005), which was applied for this study. Through constantly going back and forth between the papers, emerging codes were identified and applied in a reflective and recursive manner. Statistical evaluations were then subsequently computed to find percentages, conditional percentages and correlations (see Figure 1). While the authors are aware that neither the search nor the evaluation and coding process can guarantee that all possibly relevant articles were found and/or identified, the actual number of papers included and the variety of frameworks that were found make it safe to claim some validity and allow for a cautious generalization of the findings.

Table 1. Categories for the thematic-analysis

Variable	Description
Research Paradigm	Paradigmatic assumptions of ontology, epistemology, methodology, and ethics, clustered into categories.
Research Method	Quantitative, Qualitative or Mixed Mode. Methods of data collection.
Relevance	Relevance of the findings for opportunity recognition
School of Thought in Social Entrepreneurship	Innovation, earned income, EMES or UK – what are the influential perspectives or schools of thought that the paper is based upon.
Linkage to Theories of Opportunity Recognition	Can a specific linkage to established theories, views or schools of thought in opportunity recognition be made? How do the findings in the paper reflect on current OR literature and frameworks.

Figure 1. Method flow



THE SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP CONTEXT IN LITERATURE

The understanding of the meaning of the terms Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneur is still diverse and even disputed within scholars and practitioners (Hill, Kothari, & Shea, 2010; Mair & Marti, 2006; Nicholls, 2006, 2010; Nicholls & Cho, 2006; Pearce & Kay, 2003). Several schools of thought have been identified in current research literature, most based upon geographical traditions (Hoogendoorn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2009). In the US, literature identifies two prevalent schools, one emphasizing innovation for new and better ways to address social problems (Dees & Anderson, 2006) and the other focusing on earned-income

while serving a social mission (Defourny & Nyssens, 2009; Kerlin, 2006). Both schools are very active in promoting their ideas through private foundations, role models and leading figures. For the innovation school we find for example the organization Ashoka with its founder Bill Drayton (2002, 2006) or the Skoll foundation. Edward Skloot, Jerr Boschee and Jed Emerson (Defourny & Nyssens, 2009) are main protagonists for the earned-income school. Academic contribution to this field comes from a multitude of disciplines. Literature within the innovation school draws its foundation from the knowledge of strategic entrepreneurship with a focus on the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities. The earned-income school on the other hand focuses more on the creation and management of organizations (Kerlin, 2010).

In Europe, the EMES (European Research Network on Social Enterprises) strives to find an ideal typical definition of a social enterprise. In the case of the EMES approach, a social enterprise has an explicit aim to benefit the community, is launched by a group of citizens, enjoys a high degree of autonomy, is participatory in nature, and does not base decision-making power on capital ownership (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006).

Definitions based upon organizational structure or income generation are contrasted to more entrepreneurial approaches in the definition. Nicholls (2006) for example sees the combination of an overarching social mission and entrepreneurial creativity as marking social entrepreneurship as distinct from other public, private or civil sector activity. Other scholars and protagonists focus on the broader political and societal impact of social entrepreneurs and state: *Social entrepreneurs find what is not working and solve the problem by changing the system, spreading the solution, and persuading entire societies to take new leaps* (Drayton, 2006). Several authors apply a neo-institutional view and find *that these new organizations increasingly appear as support tools for welfare policies that can help to sustain the European Social Model* (Hemerijck, 2002). In the same tradition, Meyer (2007, 2009) argues critically to the concept, claiming that the distribution of social welfare needs to be democratically controlled and that too much of a market based approach, with its inherent concept of competition may have unforeseen adverse effects upon. Scholars in a Functionalist tradition (Elizabeth Chell, et al., 2010; Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009) demand further contributions to the field of SE from *established theories, such as contingency theory, creation theory, discovery theory, innovation diffusion theory, resource dependence theory, and other theoretical bases relevant to strategic entrepreneurship research*.

Consequently, Di Domenico, Haugh and Tracy (2010) give an excellent introduction to the social entrepreneur as Bricolateur, focusing on resourcefulness, improvisation and the overcoming of limitations. Zahra et.al. (2009) present a typology of social entrepreneurs on building upon the legacy of Schumpeter, Hayek and Kirzner, all of which were great Austrian School economists. Finally Hoogendoorn (2009) clusters different perspectives on social entrepreneurship into schools of thought (see Table 2), of which the authors are going to make use of in clustering the findings. These schools of thought provide an excellent contextual background and include many of the intrinsic differences in definitions of social entrepreneurship.

However in discussions with scholars on this article, several argued that the boundaries between the schools are blurred and they do not want to be boxed or institutionalised. This is a concern the authors are going to take care of by being very cautious in deriving generalizations as well as through working with the material in a recursive way.

Table 2. Schools of Thought in SE, Source: Hoogendoorn (2009)

Variable	American Tradition		European Tradition	
	Social Innovation School (SIS)	Social Enterprise School (SES)	EMES approach	UK approach
Unit of Observation	Individual	Enterprise	Enterprise	Enterprise
Link mission services	Direct	Direct/ indirect	Direct	Direct/ indirect
Legal structure	No constraints	Non-profit	Some constraints	No constraints
Innovation	Prerequisite	Not emphasized (n/e)	n/e	n/e
Profit distribution	No constraints	Constraint	Limited	Limited
Earned income	n/e	Prerequisite	n/e	Important
Governance	n/e	n/e	Multiple stakeholder involvement emphasized	Multiple stakeholder involvement recommended

OPPORTUNITY RECOGNITION, CODE COLLECTION AND REFLECTIONS ON SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

With the emergence of *entrepreneurship* as a stand-alone item of research and a distinctive realm within the field of business, a need for a differentiation to managerialism (Shane & Venkataraman, 2007) came up. One concept, opportunity recognition and exploitation seems particularly well suited, as it involves a multitude of behavioural aspects, such as for example risk-taking, creativity or effectuation that research has shown to be prevalent amongst entrepreneurs. Research on OR has reached a critical mass (Short, et al., 2009), however the final step for a great unification theory of opportunities has yet to be made. Amongst the most influential authors on this topic are Sarasvathy and Venkataraman with their *Three Views of Entrepreneurial Opportunity* (2003; 2005). The first is the *allocative view*, which asserts opportunities arise from inefficient allocations in the market, the second is the *discovery view*, which emphasizes the value of prior information in discovering information asymmetries about the true value of resources and the third is the *creative view*, which holds that entrepreneurs seek to optimize the gains of a large group of stakeholders and thus identify opportunities post hoc (Eckhardt & Shane, 2003). These views still often provide a philosophical base on which further research in the field is built upon (see Table 2) and are thus used to provide a framework for an explanation of OR within the different schools of thought in social entrepreneurship.

Table 3. Three views of entrepreneurial opportunity (Sarasvathy, et al., 2003)

View	Description
Allocative View	The <i>allocative view</i> asserts opportunities arise from inefficient allocations in the market, which can be exploited by moving to <i>pareto superior allocations</i> (Dean and McMullen, 2002) Information is readily available and networks are known so OR is seen as a random process, that any economic agent could fulfil. The focus therefore lies on the system and not on individuals. Uncertainty is managed through diversification, resources compete.
Discovery View	Opportunities are searched for and found, and are targeted through correcting the problems recognized. Available information is shared imperfectly amongst involved actors. Experiments are made in order to manage changes and uncertainty. Discovery view includes also the employing of tools to manage failure in innovation processes. Depending on the nature of the discovery, only one side is known, either supply or demand. Discovery view emphasizes the fact that strategies are vital to succeed in competition. The market is seen as being alive and in flux.
Creative View	The creative process view focuses on decision making. Creative thinking brings entrepreneurial opportunities through innovations. Information and possible networks are unknown or only partially recognized. Entrepreneurial actions like effectuation are used to manage uncertainty. Through creative processes and intense interaction, knowledge on managing conflicts is built up. Creativity challenges pre-assumed assets and values in the competition.

To prepare the context of OR and to come up with a-priori codes, the authors examined different perspectives and research streams on OR and found the following contexts and perspectives:

Venture Creation. Venture creation is linked in literature to either the discovery of a business opportunity or the creation of such by the entrepreneurs themselves (Cha & Bae, 2010). Gregoire, Shepherd and Lambert (2010) however suggest that opportunity recognition research has been uncritical on the data collection phase: ... *several studies have relied on observations that are susceptible to retrospective and recall biases (e.g., asking respondents about opportunities they recognized in some distant past), self-reporting and demand characteristics issues (e.g., asking what made one recognize an opportunity), and censored data and selection biases (e.g., studies that only include cases of successful opportunities).* This challenges opportunity recognition research to study cases in which opportunities are focused not on performance, but on non-profit projects like in social venturing. Especially the prevalent cases of heroic entrepreneurs in SE research may cause biases.

Perception. Opportunity recognition is often connected to the process of perceiving an opportunity. Perceptions lead to opportunity recognition and new kinds of combinations of opportunities available. This also makes opportunities unequal – opportunities are rooted upon perceiving resources, environment and surroundings differently (Krueger, 2005). Social entrepreneurship is seen in many cases as being grounded within the environment. Social innovations have been shown in research to be aiming for a change in local circumstances and tackle regional challenges, thus perception is vital in finding opportunities to do so. This

process is greatly influenced by individual entrepreneurial alertness which is needed for the identification of an opportunity (Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Ray, 2003). This alertness is further influenced by patterns, as Baron (2006) calls them, which direct decision making by individual entrepreneurs. Patterns can be negative (not feasible opportunity) or positive (suggesting that this opportunity can be a business opportunity).

Experience. Baron and Ensley (2006) compared novice and experienced entrepreneurs. Novice entrepreneurs' opportunity patterns were more influenced by novelty, newness and feelings. Experienced entrepreneurs' opportunities however were more influenced by clearly defined business concepts, and a desire to run the venture and to manage the new business start-up. Also they displayed a greater focus on the financial performance within their opportunity recognition. Thus experience has a positive influence on the survival rate of opportunity seizing. Social Entrepreneurs have been shown to be serial entrepreneurs; however so far there are no studies on failure and learning in SE.

Networks. Ozgen and Baron (2007) also showed that informal networks, mentoring, and participation in professional associations can have a positive influence on opportunity recognition. Opportunities might even stem from these networks and informants. Through participation *social capital* is created, through which the likelihood of exploiting opportunities is greatly increased. Networks play an important role in SE, they inform and educate as it is the case for example in University programs, they support through various means and they even exert control on the concept of SE through their narration and logic (Hervieux, Gedajlovic, & Turcotte, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Steyaert & Dey, 2010).

Risk taking. Mahnke, Venzin, and Zahra (2007) see entrepreneurial opportunities as an emerging sign of a process in which resources, commercialization, and the recognition of new ideas are intertwined. Keh, Foo and Lim (2002) examine the evaluation of risk by entrepreneurs through cognitive processes. Measuring and estimating rising opportunities and correlated risks is seen as an entrepreneurial process. Baron (2004) also shows that risk perception has got a connection on how actively opportunities are recognized. Also the overweighting of small probabilities, optimism and the illusion of control benefits opportunity recognition. Vision and idealism in creating social value can thus be seen as important factors in seizing social opportunities.

Opportunity Costs, Learning and Information Processing. Opportunity recognition and entrepreneurial processes create opportunity costs. These are costs and delays in time, and the use of resources available in evaluating and exploiting an opportunity (Gruber, MacMillan, & Thompson, 2008). Learning might decrease opportunity costs through an increase of expertise, which might dampen opportunity costs. Learning differs throughout the entrepreneurial process. Preparation (learning through analyzing), incubation (learning through reflection and observation), evaluation (learning through experience and imagination), and elaboration (learning through experiments and experiences) are identified by Corbett (2005) and imply different learning styles. Together with learning, approaches to processing information vary the likelihood of opportunity seizing. This leads to opportunity construction through information processing and learning (Vaghely & Julien, 2010).

Innovative and active information searching among entrepreneurs leads to a higher number of perceived business opportunities (Ucbasaran, Westhead, & Wright, 2008). As Ucbasaran et.al. (2009) find out, experienced entrepreneurs can process information faster and thus recognize more opportunities, and more innovative opportunities than other individuals. This might be connected to the fact that the spread of information is unequal: opportunities are not the same for everyone. As Chiasson and Saunders (2005) argue, opportunities are recognized differently by individual persons. Information processing is thus seen as an important factor

within the entrepreneurial process with a decisive impact on opportunity recognition. The differences in information influence the birth of opportunities (Shane, 2000). As Minniti (2004) shows, alertness and information both have a big influence on the entrepreneurial process and the birth of new opportunities. An entrepreneurial process can thus be described as being based upon the individual although to some extent influenced by environment, family, partners, customers, networks and other stakeholders (Arenius & Clercq, 2005; Shepherd & DeTienne, 2005). In SE, an active seeking for opportunities is common for people who plan to do something meaningful in their life through social entrepreneurship. Networks such as *The Hub*, a working space for social entrepreneurs with worldwide franchises, assist in this seeking for example through providing events and networking opportunities.

Innovation, Bricolage and Effectuation. Researchers in the field of SE have already taken on neo-classical theory as well as on modern Austrian School economists like Schumpeter, Kirzner and Hayek (Sarasvathy & Dew, 2009; Zahra, et al., 2009) focusing on innovation. Opportunity recognition may or may not lead to opportunity exploitation (Sarasvathy, 2008; Sarasvathy, et al., 2003), but when, there exists a strong connection between the opportunity and the entrepreneur, some scholars call it even a nexus (Sarason, Dean, & Dillard, 2006; Shane & Eckhardt, 2003). Within the exploitation of opportunities, methods of Bricolage, including improvisation and making-do have been identified, the concept of innovation is strongly linked, and Sarasvathy came up with the notion of *Effectuation* (Sarasvathy, 2008), opposing the well-researched causal-thinking paradigm.

It is within this plethora of perspectives that scholars from the field of social entrepreneurship try to connect their findings to existing theories of opportunity recognition. Most of the perspectives can be traced to have a philosophical background in one of the three views of Sarasvathy, for that reason the authors are using these views as a framework for OR in the social entrepreneurial context.

Based upon the findings and perspectives of this literature review, it became clear that further synthetic development in the field of OR within SE is severely limited by the impossibility to compare findings without taking the context of the social entrepreneur and the view of SE of the author into consideration. Thus, while a-priori codes for OR and schools of thought in SE were postulated based upon the existing research in OR and applied on the found articles, new, inductively found codes were carved out additionally through working with the articles and used in a reflective and recursive manner. The end result of this process is presented in table 4.

Table 4. Coding framework a-priori and indicated view a-posteriori

Code	Description, Theme occurring in text	Indicated View
<i>Allocative View (AV)</i>	<i>Both supply and demand exist rather obviously, focus on the system</i>	
<i>Discovery View (DV)</i>	<i>Only one side exists – i.e. demand exists but supply does not, and vice versa, focus on realizing information</i>	
<i>Creative View (CV)</i>	<i>Neither supply nor demand exists in an obvious manner, one or both have to be created, focus on effectuation</i>	
Bricolage	Making do with what is at hand through creativity, not being limited	CV
Effectuation	a logic that is applied by expert entrepreneurs to solve problems in highly uncertain market environments	CV
Network	Supporting and information providing	DV
Social Injustice	Injustice is perceived and acted upon, Resources compete	AV
Institutional Voids	Some see opportunities where others see voids	DV
Mobilization	The opportunity is visible or pressing enough to be acted upon	AV
Timing	Being at the right time at the right place	DV
Inefficiency	Social needs are catered for in an inefficient way, thus the opportunity to improve	AV
Behavioural Theory of the Firm	Behavioural psychology, bounded rationality and perception of opportunities	DV
Prevalence, Relevance and Urgency	Behavioural Perception filters on what is prevalent, relevant and urgent.	DV
Motivational	An opportunity is actively searched for through a personal motivation	DV
Hayekian	Knowledge, especially tacit knowledge is important, opportunities do not present themselves equally to all entrepreneurs	DV
Kirznerian	Alert entrepreneurs exploit market opportunities through the re-allocation of productive resources	AV
Schumpeterian	Opportunities are innovative and disequilibrating. The theory is about disruptive market activities and creative destruction.	CV

PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The following journals (see Table 5) were found to publish several articles of relevance on the field of opportunity recognition and social entrepreneurship.

Relevancy (+ ... has some relevance to +++ ...very relevant) was interpreted and measured by the authors based upon:

- room for discussion of OR (or a related code) in the paper
- newness of the findings on the field of OR in a SE setting

Table 5. Journals with papers of relevance to the fields

Journals	
Business Horizons	Journal of Entrepreneurship
Business Review, University of Auckland	Journal of Innovation Economics
Corporate Governance	Journal of Management
Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	Journal of Public Affairs Education
Erasmus Research Institute of Management	Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development
Handbook of research in Social Entrepreneurship	Journal of Social Entrepreneurship
International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business	Journal of World Business
International Small Business Journal	Transaction Society
Journal of Business Ethics	Socio-economic Review
Journal of Business Venturing	Stanford Social Innovation Review
International Journal of Entrepreneurship Behaviour and Research	Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal
	Journal of Enterprising Communities
	Social Enterprise Journal

For a classification within the presented schools of thought in SE, predefined attributes as presented by Hoodgendorn (2009) were used. If either the school of thought or the view on OR were found to apply to multiple definitions, it was classified as *mixed* in that aspect. This was the case especially in conceptual papers that dealt with the issue of different schools or views. 34 articles were identified that show at least some relevance to the field of OR in SE. These were used for the exploration of the codes through a thematic analysis.

Table 6. Results of the coding process on selected articles

Nr	Reference	Article	Relevance for OR	Research Design	OR codes	OR View	SE school of thought
1	(Nicholls, 2010)	The Legitimacy of Social Entrepreneurship: Reflexive Isomorphism in a Pre-Paradigmatic Field	++	Inductive, Conceptual, Thematic analysis, Discourse	Various, Integrative	Mixed	UK
2	(Di Domenico, et al., 2010)	Social Bricolage: Theorizing Social Value Creation in Social Enterprises	++	Empirical, Qualitative, Case studies, Interviews, Inductive, Thematic analysis	Creative, Bricolage	CV	UK
3	(Corner & Ho, 2010)	How opportunities develop in social entrepreneurship	+++	Inductive, Empirical, Case studies, Qualitative	Discovery, Effectuation	CV	UK
4	(Hervieux, et al., 2010)	The legitimization of social entrepreneurship	++	Discourse analysis, Structuralism, Constructivism	Various, Integrative	Mixed	Various
5	(Fuglsang, 2010)	Bricolage and invisible innovation in public service innovation	++	Case studies, Empirical	Innovation, Bricolage, Discovery,	CV	UK
6	(Hill, et al., 2010)	Patterns of Meaning in the Social Entrepreneurship Literature: A Research Platform	+	Inductive, Meta-analysis, Network analysis, Conceptual analysis, Qualitative text analysis	Various	Mixed	SES
7	(Chand & Misra, 2009)	Teachers as Educational-Social Entrepreneurs: The Innovation-Social Entrepreneurship Spiral	+++	Case studies	Allocative, Embeddedness,	DV	SIS
8	(Short, et al., 2009)	The Concept of Opportunity in Entrepreneurship Research: Past Accomplishments and Future Challenges	+++	Conceptual analysis, Literature Review	Discovery, Creative, Social injustice	Mixed	Various
9	(Bielefeld, 2009)	Issues in social enterprise and social entrepreneurship	+	Conceptual	Discovery	DV	SES
10	(Hoogendoorn, et al., 2009)	What do We Know about Social Entrepreneurship: An Analysis of Empirical Research	++	Meta study on empirical research on social entrepreneurship, literature review	Allocative, Discovery, Integrative, Creative	Mixed	EMES

Nr	Reference	Article	Relevance for OR	Research Design	OR codes	OR View	SE school of thought
11	(Light, 2009)	Social entrepreneurship revisited	++	Popular, Advocacy	Opportunities arise in waves	CV	SIS
12	(Mair & Marti, 2009)	Entrepreneurship in and around institutional voids: A case study from Bangladesh	++	Case Study	Institutional voids open opportunities, Seeing opportunities where others see problems	DV	SIS
13	(Zahra, et al., 2009)	A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives search processes and ethical challenges	+++	Conceptual, Literature review	Discovery, Creative, Hayek, Kirzner, Schumpeter	Mixed	SIS
14	(Murphy & Coombes, 2009)	A model of social entrepreneurial discovery	+++	Conceptual	Mobilization, Timing, Inefficiency, Needs	DV	SIS
15	(Zahra, et al., 2008)	Globalization of social entrepreneurship opportunities	+++	Conceptual, Historical, Context	Behavioural Theory of the firm, Prevalence, Relevance, Urgency	DV	SIS
16	(Yujucio, 2008)	Connecting the dots in social entrepreneurship through the capabilities approach	++	Conceptual	Causal, Motivational, Behavioral and Directive	DV	UK
17	(Monllor & Ataran, 2008)	Opportunity recognition of social entrepreneurs: an application of the creativity model	+++	Case Study	Creative	CV	SIS
18	(Dees, 2007)	Taking Social Entrepreneurship Seriously	+	Popular, Advocacy	Discovery	DV	SES
19	(Dees & Anderson, 2006)	Framing a Theory of Social Entrepreneurship: Building on Two Schools of Practice and Thought	+	Conceptual, Case Study	Various	Mixed	Various
20	(E-Chell, 2007)	Social enterprise and entrepreneurship: towards a convergent theory of the entrepreneurial process	+++	Conceptual, Discourse, Social constructionism	Various, Integrative, Conceptual	Mixed	UK
21	(Mair & Marti, 2007)	Entrepreneurship for social impact: encouraging market access in rural Bangladesh	++	Case Study	Opportunities arise from voids	DV	SIS

Nr	Reference	Article	Relevance for OR	Research Design	OR codes	OR View	SE school of thought
22	(Cohen & Winn, 2007)	Market imperfections opportunity and sustainable entrepreneurship	+++	Conceptual, Examples used for deduction, mixed mode	Market Imperfections (inefficient firms, externalities, flawed pricing and information asymmetries) provide opportunities	DV	UK
23	(Shaw & Carter, 2007)	Social entrepreneurship: Theoretical antecedents and empirical analysis of entrepreneurial processes and outcomes	+++	Phenomenological, In-depth interviews, constructivist	Social Needs, locally bound provision	DV	UK
24	(Austin, et al., 2006)	Social and commercial entrepreneurship: same, different, or both?	++	Conceptual	Innovative, social value creation, Discovery	DV	SIS
25	(Dorado, 2006)	Social entrepreneurial ventures: different values so different process of creation, no?	+++	Review of Research	Seeing difference to commercial ventures	DV	SIS
26	(Robinson, 2006)	Navigating Social and Institutional Barriers to Markets: How Social Entrepreneurs Identify and Evaluate Opportunities	+++	Case Study	Social Networks and Institutions	DV	SIS
27	(K. Hockerts, 2006)	Entrepreneurial opportunity in social purpose business ventures	+++	Conceptual, Literature review	Source based, Activism	DV	EMES
28	(Ferrini, 2006)	The new social entrepreneurship: what awaits social entrepreneurial ventures	++	Conceptual, Multiple approaches, mixed	Peter Drucker, Discovery	DV	EMES
29	(Swedberg, 2006)	Social entrepreneurship: the view of the young Schumpeter	+++	Historical, Conceptual	Schumpeterian approach	CV	SIS
30	(Mair & Marti, 2006)	Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation prediction and delight	+	Conceptual, Literature review, Advocacy	New combinations	CV	SIS
31	(Weerawardena & Mort, 2006)	Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model	++	Grounded theory, Case studies	Creative	CV	UK
32	(Christie & Honig, 2005)	Social entrepreneurship: New research findings	+	Literature review	Creative	CV	SIS

Nr	Reference	Article	Relevance for OR	Research Design	OR codes	OR View	SE school of thought
33	(Seelos & Mair, 2005)	Social entrepreneurship: Creating new business models to serve the poor	+	Case studies	Creative	CV	SIS
34	(Roberts & Woods, 2005)	Changing the world on a shoestring: The concept of social entrepreneurship	+	Literature review, Conceptual	Various	Mixed	SIS

Within the 34 papers, the authors identified schools of thought on SE, as defined by Hoogendoorn (2009). It became clear that the SIS, the Social Innovation School as well as the UK school of thought were leading in publications on the topic of OR (see table 7).

Table 7. Schools of Thought in SE literature on OR

Variable	Numbers, Percentage
Papers total	34 (100%)
Papers with high/medium relevance for OR	14 (41.2%) / 13 (38.2%)
SIS – Social Innovation School	16 (47.0%)
SES – Social Enterprise School	3 (8.8%)
UK based approaches	9 (26.5%)
EMES based approaches	3 (8.8%)
Various/ mixed	3 (8.8%)

To connect to Short, Moss and Lumpkin (2009), research approaches in the selected literature have been identified and presented in table 8. There were no quantitative studies.

Table 8. Research Design and Schools of Thought, multiple entries for research methodology possible

Variable	Total	SIS	SES	UK	EMES	Various
Papers total	34	16	3	9	3	3
Conceptual	17	7	2	4	2	2
Case study	11	6	0	4	0	0
Literature review	7	4	1	0	2	1
Others like discourse analyses, advocacy and constructivist approaches	4	1	1	1	0	1

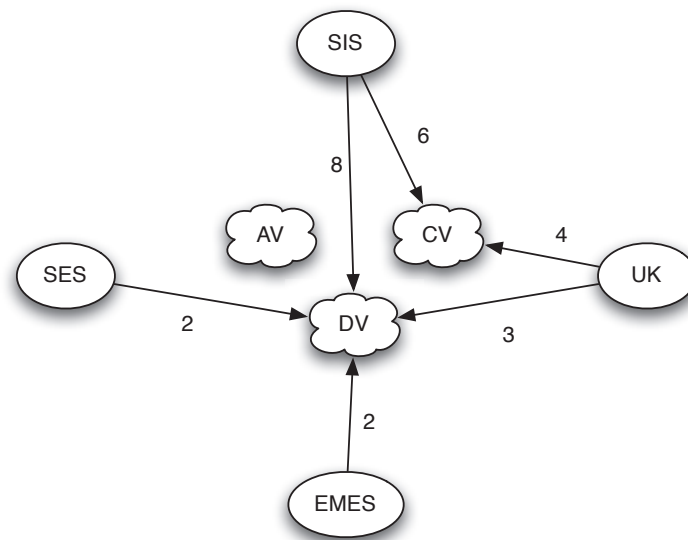
In order to point out possible correlations between the three views on OR and the SE schools of thought a matrix was built up for evaluation in table 9. None of the identified papers were based on the allocative view.

Table 9. OR lenses and SE schools of thought

Schools of Thought	AV	DV	CV	Mixed
Papers total	0	15	10	9
SIS – Social Innovation School	0	8	6	2
SES – Social Enterprise School	0	2	0	1
UK based approaches	0	3	4	2
EMES based approaches	0	2	0	1
Various	0	0	0	3

Statistical correlation computations using Spearman and chi-square were initially performed, but due to the small sample size, their validity and significance would be highly disputed. Therefore the percentages and trends are presented here as indicators and would need further evaluation through quantitative deductive field studies. To gain further insight and to allow for a qualitative, intuitive understanding, the authors therefore chose to create a network representation of the OR/ SE correlation (see figure 2, link weights represent count of articles within a certain view on OR).

Figure 2: Network Representation of the Findings, link weights represent number of articles within a certain view on OR.



DISCUSSION AND COMPARISON OF THE FINDINGS

Research guidelines 1 and 2 asked for papers with relevancy to OR and the subsequent identification of the underlying schools of thought in SE.

A number of promising approaches to opportunity recognition and exploitation in social entrepreneurship have been identified. Scholars were linking to the behavioural theory of the firm, addressing concepts of *perception and alertness* (Ardichvili, et al., 2003; Krueger, 2005; Zahra, et al., 2008), or identifying patterns (Baron & Ensley, 2006). Others link to *activism and information processing* (K. Hockerts, 2006; Ucbasaran, et al., 2008) and yet others have addressed the importance of *collaboration and networks* and *social value creation* (Di Domenico, et al., 2010; Dorado, 2006; K Hockerts, et al., 2010; Mair & Marti, 2006; Ozgen & Baron, 2007). What was found to be missing were studies examining the role of *experience and education* (Baron & Ensley, 2006) as well as *risk awareness and perception* (Keh, et al., 2002).

The prevalence of conceptual approaches and case studies and the lack of explanatory, quantitative approaches imply that research on social entrepreneurship is still a pre-paradigmatic field (Nicholls, 2010). Although several studies find that OR can be seen as a key theme in SE (Corner & Ho, 2010; K Hockerts, et al., 2010; Mair,

Marti, & Ganly, 2007; Shaw & Carter, 2007; Weerawardena & Mort, 2006) relatively view scholars have embarked explicitly on this topic and none employed a statistical quantitative approach. Hockerts, Mair and Robinson (2010) as book editors present social entrepreneurship as closely linked to the concepts of opportunity recognition and value creation through a resource based view. In the end, 34 papers were examined and clustered in an appropriate way to reflect the codes found on the social entrepreneurial context as well as the opportunity recognition.

Research guideline 3 asked for a possible correlation between Sarasvathy's three views and the underlying schools of thought in SE.

It became prevalent in the evaluation, that the Allocative View (AV), with a focus on the system and not on individuals or firms, could not be derived from, nor was it discussed in social entrepreneurship literature. In contrast to literature on non-profit organizations, the innovative social entrepreneur or enterprise is the main protagonist in current SE research. Therefore assumptions in the AV, for example that all economic agents are equally likely to detect a given opportunity, or on the markets being in a competitive equilibrium are not addressed in social entrepreneurship literature.

Creative View (CV) on the other hand is emphasized in research from both, the SIS and UK schools of thought. Often creativity is seen as being responsible for bringing about systematic change through creating role models for social provision. For a simple triangulation, the authors contacted some of the researchers and started discussions on the findings. It became emergent that even though, based on the derived codes, their work would fit in the Discovery View (DV) perspective on opportunity recognition, several authors would rather have them put in the CV perspective due to their own paradigmatic views, especially from the UK and SIS school of thought. Discovery View however could be identified in papers from all schools and can be seen as a link between all schools of thought. While the authors are aware of the constraints for generalization of any quantitative evaluation in this case due to the limited number of articles, the percentages are presented as indicators.

Table 10. Opportunity Recognition Views within different schools of thought, P(A/B) ... conditional probability of A given B.

Evaluation	Percentage
P(CV/ SIS)	37.5%
P(DV/ SIS)	50.0%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ SIS)	12.5%
P(CV/ UK)	44.4%
P(DV/ UK)	33.3%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ SIS)	22.2%
P(DV/ SES)	66.7%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ SES)	33.3%
P(DV/ EMES)	66.7%
P(Mixed CV and DV/ EMES)	33.3%

At least an indication to a linkage between the fields of opportunity recognition and the perspectives derived from the so called schools of thought within social entrepreneurship (Hoogendoorn, et al., 2009) can be found. Among the very active

Social Innovation School for example, social entrepreneurs are often presented as creating new opportunities through innovation with the purpose of social value creation and bringing about change. The UK as well as the EMES school find examples of locally embedded entrepreneurs, that make use of their intrinsic knowledge to find and exploit opportunities from a disequilibrium.

A network representation of the OR/ SE schools correlation was built up to allow for a explorative understanding (see figure 2).

Research guideline 4 asked whether differences in OR between social and commercial ventures can be found.

What became evident was that in most papers opportunity recognition and later exploitation was not presented with an eminently high accuracy between DV and CV (Vaghely & Julien, 2010). In many papers it was only a marginal decision to put it in the DV or CV corner as elements of *discovery* (a rational economic approach, experimentation), as well as of *effectuation* (negotiation, networking etc.) were present. Also the process of opportunity recognition seemed to move forwards and backwards between the identification and exploitation phase (Cha & Bae, 2010). This issue should be more looked upon in further studies, as it may provide a grasp of a rather different approach of OR in SE. These findings also relate to Corner and Ho (2010), who found similar outcomes in their inductive case studies on opportunity recognition among social entrepreneurs when they illustrate (Corner & Ho, 2010, p. 654):

... reflected the pattern of opportunity development as substantively more complex and recursive than the traditional opportunity identification and exploitation framework.

Scholars such as Austin (2006), Dorado (2006), Hockerts (2006), Mair (2006) and Robinson (2006), were among the first to compare opportunity recognition between commercial and social ventures. They find three specialities in social entrepreneurship

- SE encompasses attempts to create social value more than profit
- SE OR often happens in collectives rather than individual entrepreneurs
- SE as a hybrid form between non-profit and for-profit venture can be limited in opportunity recognition and exploitation due to the specific context (laws, regulations, legal-forms, institutions) in which the venture takes place.

Recent empirical studies (Corner & Ho, 2010) have explored the concept OR in between a force field of rational-economic (outcome clear, resources are being searched for) versus effectuation (actor depended, start with resources at hand), and find that OR in the examined cases of SE can be placed in between these two with no clear preference.

To conclude, opportunity recognition among social entrepreneurs is still an underestimated field of research.

Based upon the findings, the authors come up with the following three propositions to provide a connection point for future research:

1. OR in SE cannot easily be put in either discovery or creative view. The process seems to include strategies and processes from both and may thus be in between. This would call for a reconsideration of the underlying philosophy of OR and may well give back to the field of entrepreneurship as a whole.
2. The corresponding paradigmatic view on SE of the author has an impact on how OR is presented in research. SE thus appears as socially constructed and any a closer look at the legitimization seems appropriate.
3. OR in SE works differently compared to commercial entrepreneurs. Social Entrepreneurs are seen to move forwards and backwards between the phases of recognition and exploitation. A dualistic target situation in venture creation of SE (social and financial good) may be the cause.

References

- Archer, G., Baker, T., & Mauer, R. (2009). Towards an alternative Theory of Entrepreneurial Success: Integrating Bricolage, Effectuation and Improvisation. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, 29(6).
- Ardichvili, A., Cardozo, R., & Ray, S. (2003). A theory of entrepreneurial opportunity identification and development. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(1), 105-123.
- Arenius, P., & Clercq, D. (2005). A network-based approach on opportunity recognition. *Small Business Economics*, 24(3), 249-265.
- Austin, J., Stevenson, H., & Wei Skillern, J. (2006). Social and commercial entrepreneurship: same, different, or both? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30(1), 1-22.
- Baron, R. (2004). The cognitive perspective: a valuable tool for answering entrepreneurship's basic why questions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 19(2), 221-239.
- Baron, R. (2006). Opportunity recognition as pattern recognition. *Academy of Management Perspective*, 20(1), 104-119.
- Baron, R., & Ensley, M. (2006). Opportunity recognition as the detection of meaningful patterns: Evidence from comparisons of novice and experienced entrepreneurs. *Management Science*, 52(9), 1331.
- Bielefeld, W. (2009). Issues in social enterprise and social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 15(1), 69-86.
- Borzaga, C., & Tortia, E. (2006). An Evolutionary Perspective on the Theory of Social Enterprise: Trento: Department of Economics, University of Trento.
- Boyatzis, E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: thematic analysis and code development*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Cha, M.-S., & Bae, Z.-T. (2010). The entrepreneurial journey: From entrepreneurial intent to opportunity realization. *Journal of High Technology Management Research*, 21(1), 31-42. doi: 10.1016/j.hitech.2010.02.005
- Chand, V. S., & Misra, S. (2009). Teachers as Educational-Social Entrepreneurs: The Innovation-Social Entrepreneurship Spiral. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 18(2), 219-228. doi: 10.1177/097135570901800205

Forthcoming in the SAGE Journal of Entrepreneurship, 2012, 21 (1), p. xxx-xxx

- Chell, E. (2007). Social enterprise and entrepreneurship: towards a convergent theory of the entrepreneurial process. *International Small business journal*, 25(1), 5-26.
- Chell, E., Nicolopoulou, K., & Karatas-Ozkan, M. (2010). Social entrepreneurship and enterprise: International and innovation perspectives. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 22(6), 485-493. doi: 10.1080/08985626.2010.488396
- Chiasson, M., & Saunders, C. (2005). Reconciling diverse approaches to opportunity research using the structuration theory. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 20(6), 747-767.
- Christie, M., & Honig, B. (2005). Social entrepreneurship: New research findings. *Graduate College of Management Papers*, 231.
- Cohen, B., & Winn, M. (2007). Market imperfections, opportunity and sustainable entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 22(1), 29-49.
- Corbett, A. (2005). Experiential learning within the process of opportunity identification and exploitation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(4), 473-491.
- Corner, P. D., & Ho, M. (2010). How Opportunities Develop in Social Entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 635-659. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2010.00382.x
- Dees, J. (2007). Taking Social Entrepreneurship Seriously. *Transaction Society*, 44(3), 1-8.
- Dees, J., & Anderson, B. (2006). Framing a Theory of Social Entrepreneurship - Building on Two Schools of Practice and Thought. *ARNOVA Occasional Paper Series*, 1(3), 1-28.
- Defourny, J., & Nyssens, M. (2009). *Conceptions of Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States: Convergences and Divergences*. Paper presented at the Second EMES International Conference on Social Enterprise, Trento, Italy.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2005). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research, Third Edition*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Di Domenico, M., Haugh, H., & Tracey, P. (2010). Social Bricolage: Theorizing Social Value Creation in Social Enterprises. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 681-703. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2010.00370.x
- Dorado, S. (2006). Social entrepreneurial ventures: different values so different process of creation, no? *Journal of developmental entrepreneurship*, 11(4), 319-343.
- Drayton, B. (2002). The citizen sector: Becoming as entrepreneurial and competitive as business. *California Management Review*, 44(3), 120-132.
- Drayton, B. (2006). Everyone a Changemaker: Social Entrepreneurship's Uitimate Goal. *innovations*, 1(1), 80-96.
- Eckhardt, J., & Shane, S. (2003). Opportunities and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Management*, 29(3), 333-349.
- Fuglsang, L. (2010). Bricolage and invisible innovation in public service innovation. *Journal of Innovation Economics*, 1(5), 67-87.
- Grégoire, D., Shepherd, D., & Schurer Lambert, L. (2010). Measuring Opportunity-Recognition Beliefs. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13(1), 114-145.
- Gruber, M., MacMillan, I., & Thompson, J. (2008). Look before you leap: Market opportunity identification in emerging technology firms. *Management Science*, 54(9), 1652-1665.
- Haugh, H. (2005). A research agenda for social entrepreneurship. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 1(1), 1-12.
- Hemerijck, A. (2002). The self-transformation of the European social model (s). In G. Esping-Andersen (Ed.), *Why we need a new welfare state* (pp. 173-214). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hervieux, C., Gedajlovic, E., & Turcotte, M. (2010). The legitimization of social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 4(1), 37-67.
- Hill, T., Kothari, T., & Shea, M. (2010). Patterns of Meaning in the Social Entrepreneurship Literature: A Research Platform. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1(1), 5-31.
- Hills, G., Hansen, D., & Hultman, C. (2004). *Opportunity Recognition Processes: A Value Creation Context*. Paper presented at the Babson-Kauffman Entrepreneurship Research Conference.
- Hockerts, K. (2006). Entrepreneurial opportunity in social purpose business ventures. In J. Mair, J. Robinson & K. Hockerts (Eds.), *Social Entrepreneurship* (pp. 142-154). New York: Macmillan.
- Hockerts, K., Mair, J., & Robinson, J. (Eds.). (2010). *Values and Opportunities in Social Entrepreneurship*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hoogendoorn, B., Pennings, H., & Thurik, A. (2009). What do We Know about Social Entrepreneurship: An Analysis of Empirical Research. *Research Paper*.
- Keh, H., Foo, M., & Lim, B. (2002). Opportunity evaluation under risky conditions: The cognitive processes of entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 27(2), 125-148.

- Kerlin, J. (2006). Social enterprise in the United States and Europe: understanding and learning from the differences. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 17(3), 246-262.
- Kerlin, J. (2010). A Comparative Analysis of the Global Emergence of Social Enterprise. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 21(2), 162-179. doi: 10.1007/s11266-010-9126-8
- Krueger, N. (2005). The cognitive psychology of entrepreneurship. In Z. Acs & D. Audretsch (Eds.), *Handbook of entrepreneurship research* (pp. 105-140). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Light, P. (2009). Social Entrepreneurship Revisited: Not just anyone, anywhere, in any organization can make breakthrough change.'. *Social Innovation Review*, 7(3), 21-22.
- Mahnke, V., Venzin, M., & Zahra, S. (2007). Governing Entrepreneurial Opportunity Recognition in MNEs: Aligning Interests and Cognition Under Uncertainty*. *Journal of Management Studies*, 44(7), 1278-1298.
- Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2006). Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1), 36-44.
- Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2007). Entrepreneurship for social impact: encouraging market access in rural Bangladesh. *Corporate Governance*, 7(4), 493-501.
- Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2009). Entrepreneurship in and around institutional voids: A case study from Bangladesh. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(5), 419-435. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusvent.2008.04.006
- Mair, J., Marti, I., & Ganly, K. (2007). Institutional voids as spaces of opportunity. *European Business Forum*(31), 35-39.
- Mair, J., & Noboa, E. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: How intentions to create a social venture are formed. In M. J. J. Robinson & K. Hockerts (Eds.), *Social entrepreneurship* (pp. 121-135). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Meyer, M. (2007). Wie viel Wettbewerb vertragen NPO? Befunde zum Nutzen und Schaden von Wettbewerb im Dritten Sektor. In B. Helmig, R. Purtschert, R. Schauer & D. Witt (Eds.), *Nonprofit-Organisationen und Märkte* (pp. 59-77). Wiesbaden VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Meyer, M. (2009). Wie viel Wirtschaft verträgt die Zivilgesellschaft? Über Möglichkeiten und Grenzen wirtschaftlicher Rationalität in NPOs. In I. Bode, A. Evers & A. Klein (Eds.), *Bürgergesellschaft als Projekt* (pp. 127-144). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Minniti, M. (2004). Entrepreneurial alertness and asymmetric information in a spin-glass model. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 19(5), 637-658.
- Monllor, J., & Attaran, S. (2008). Opportunity recognition of social entrepreneurs: an application of the creativity model. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 6(1), 54-67.
- Murphy, P., & Coombes, S. (2009). A model of social entrepreneurial discovery. *Journal of business ethics*, 87(3), 325-336.
- Nicholls, A. (2006). Playing the field: A new approach to the meaning of social entrepreneurship. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 2(1), 1-5.
- Nicholls, A. (2010). The Legitimacy of Social Entrepreneurship: Reflexive Isomorphism in a Pre-Paradigmatic Field. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 611-633.
- Nicholls, A., & Cho, A. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: The structuration of a field. In A. Nicholls (Ed.), *Social Entrepreneurship: New Models of Sustainable Social Change* (pp. 99-118). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ozgen, E., & Baron, R. (2007). Social sources of information in opportunity recognition: Effects of mentors, industry networks, and professional forums. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 22(2), 174-192.
- Pearce, J., & Kay, A. (2003). *Social enterprise in anytown*. London: Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation.
- Perrini, F. (2006). *The new social entrepreneurship: what awaits social entrepreneurial ventures?* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Roberts, D., & Woods, C. (2005). Changing the world on a shoestring: The concept of social entrepreneurship. *University of Auckland Business Review*.
- Robinson, J. (Ed.). (2006). *Navigating Social and Institutional Barriers to Markets: How Social Entrepreneurs Identify and Evaluate Opportunities*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Sarason, Y., Dean, T., & Dillard, J. (2006). Entrepreneurship as the nexus of individual and opportunity: A structuration view. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 21(3), 286-305.
- Sarasvathy, S. (2008). *Effectuation: Elements of entrepreneurial expertise*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Forthcoming in the SAGE Journal of Entrepreneurship, 2012, 21 (1), p. xxx-xxx

- Sarasvathy, S., & Dew, N. (2009). Without judgment: An empirically-based entrepreneurial theory of the firm. *Review of Austrian Economics (forthcoming)*.
- Sarasvathy, S., Dew, N., Velamuri, S., & Venkataraman, S. (2003). Three Views of Entrepreneurial Opportunity. In Z. Acs & D. Audretsch (Eds.), *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research* (pp. 141-160). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Sarasvathy, S., Dew, N., Velamuri, S., & Venkataraman, S. (2005). Three views of entrepreneurial opportunity *Handbook of entrepreneurship research* (Vol. 1, pp. 141-160): University of Maryland.
- Seelos, C., & Mair, J. (2005). Social entrepreneurship: Creating new business models to serve the poor. *Business Horizons, 48*(3), 241-246.
- Shane, S. (2000). Prior knowledge and the discovery of entrepreneurial opportunities. *Organization science, 11*(4), 448-469.
- Shane, S., & Eckhardt, J. (2003). The Individual-Opportunity Nexus. In Z. Acs & D. Audretsch (Eds.), *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research: An Interdisciplinary Survey and Introduction* (pp. 161-194). Dordrecht: The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Shane, S., & Venkataraman, S. (2007). The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Entrepreneurship, 171*-184.
- Shaw, E., & Carter, S. (2007). Social entrepreneurship: Theoretical antecedents and empirical analysis of entrepreneurial processes and outcomes. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development, 14*(3), 418-434.
- Shepherd, D., & DeTienne, D. (2005). Prior knowledge, potential financial reward, and opportunity identification. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 29*(1), 91-112.
- Short, J., Moss, T., & Lumpkin, G. (2009). Research in social entrepreneurship: past contributions and future opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal, 3*(2), 161-194.
- Smith, B., Matthews, C., & Schenkel, M. (2009). Differences in Entrepreneurial Opportunities: The Role of Tacitness and Codification in Opportunity Identification*. *Journal of Small Business Management, 47*(1), 38-57.
- Steyaert, C., & Dey, P. (2010). Nine Verbs to Keep the Social Entrepreneurship Research Agenda Dangerous. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship, 1*(2), 231-254.
- Swedberg, R. (2006). I. Social entrepreneurship: the view of the young Schumpeter. *Entrepreneurship as social change: a third movements in entrepreneurship book, 21*.
- Trivedi, C. (2010). A Social Entrepreneurship Bibliography. *Journal of Entrepreneurship, 19*(1), 81-85. doi: 10.1177/097135570901900105
- Ucbasaran, D., Westhead, P., & Wright, M. (2008). Opportunity Identification and Pursuit: Does an Entrepreneur's Human Capital Matter? *Small Business Economics, 30*(2), 153-173.
- Ucbasaran, D., Westhead, P., & Wright, M. (2009). The extent and nature of opportunity identification by experienced entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing, 24*(2), 99-115.
- Vaghely, I., & Julien, P. (2010). Are opportunities recognized or constructed?: An information perspective on entrepreneurial opportunity identification. *Journal of Business Venturing, 25*(1), 73-86.
- Weerawardena, J., & Mort, G. (2006). Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 21-35.
- Yujuico, E. (2008). Connecting the dots in social entrepreneurship through the capabilities approach. *Socio-economic review, 6*(3), 493-513.
- Zahra, S., Gedajlovic, E., Neubaum, D., & Shulman, J. (2009). A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing, 24*(5), 519-532.
- Zahra, S., Rawhouser, H., Bhawe, N., Neubaum, D., & Hayton, J. (2008). Globalization of social entrepreneurship opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal, 2*(2), 117-131.

IV

**SOZIALE INNOVATION DURCH SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS
IN ÖSTERREICH**

by

Othmar M. Lehner, 2010

Paper presented at the INAS - Forschungskonferenz Zukunftsperspektiven
der Sozialwirtschaft - Linz, Feb. 2011

Reproduced with kind permission by INAS



INAS Conference Proceedings

Feb. 2011

Bassarack H., editor

Soziale Innovation durch Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich

Othmar M. Lehner

School of Business and Economics
University of Jyväskylä, Finland

Abstract

Das Konzept einer Social Enterprise bezeichnet vereinfacht ein Geschäftsmodell von nicht-staatlichen Organisationen und Unternehmen, das soziale Themen und Bedürfnisse erfüllt, und dabei überwiegend über den freien Markt seine Klienten findet sowie nachhaltige Einnahmen erzielt.

Während der Begriff im Sprachgebrauch verschiedener Akteure oftmals strukturalistisch oder sozial-konstruktivistisch überladen erscheint, haben Social Enterprises in den letzten Jahrzehnten weltweit eine enorme praktische Bedeutung erlangt. In vielen Ländern lösen Social Enterprises auf innovativem Weg soziale Probleme und gelten oft als Changemakers und Role-Models für staatliche Organisationen. Österreich mit seinem historischen Einfluss aus Bismarck'schen Zeiten kennzeichnet ein spezielles Modell der Wohlfahrtserbringung. Dabei treten große private Organisationen oftmals bloß als Mittler zwischen Staat und der Gesellschaft in der sozialen Leistungserbringung auf. Dennoch bilden sich auch in Österreich vermehrt Social Enterprises welche vorhandene Lücken im Sozialstaat als Geschäftsideen nützen, bestehende Leistungen auf neuen Wegen effizienter erbringen und teilweise sogar ihren eigenen Markt kreieren.

Aufbauend auf und beitragend zu komparativen Forschungsarbeiten durch das EMES (European Research Center für Social Enterprises) wurde in Österreich vom Autor eine breit angelegte triangulierte Studie zu diesem Thema erstellt. Die vorliegende Arbeit untersucht darauf aufbauend den Zusammenhang zwischen Social Entrepreneurs und sozialer Innovation. Aufgrund der möglichen Überlappung mit dem traditionellen non-profit Sektor und historisch gewachsener Mehrdeutigkeiten der verwendeten Begriffe wird das Umfeld für Social Enterprises in Österreich anhand von aktueller Forschung und Literatur aufbereitet.

Als Ergebnis werden einerseits quantitative Aussagen bezüglich sozialer Innovation und Social Entrepreneurs dargestellt und andererseits die qualitativen Quellen mittels der Technik der thematischen Analyse induktiv codiert. Die Arbeit zeigt einen Zusammenhang zwischen sozialer Innovation und dem Auftreten von Social Entrepreneurs und liefert aufgrund der Codierung gleichzeitig Einblicke in die dafür verantwortlichen Prozesse.

Soziale Innovation durch Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich

Othmar M. Lehner

Paper presented at the: INAS-Konferenz, Linz 24.-25. Feb. 2011,
„Zukunftsthemen der Sozialwirtschaft“ Lehner, Markus und Bassarak, Herbert eds.

1. Einleitung

Das Konzept einer Social Enterprise bezeichnet vereinfacht ein Geschäftsmodell von nicht-staatlichen Organisationen und Unternehmen, das soziale Themen und Bedürfnisse erfüllt, und dabei überwiegend über den freien Markt seine Klienten findet sowie nachhaltige Einnahmen erzielt. Gewinne sollen erzielt werden und für weitere Expansionen und Innovationen dienen, diese dürfen aber nicht an die Eigentümer ausgeschüttet werden.

Während die Begriffe Social Enterprise oder Social Entrepreneur oftmals strukturalistisch oder sozial-konstruktivistisch überladen erscheinen und von Akteuren aus allen Lagern mit oftmals widersprüchlichen Konnotationen verwendet werden, hat die weltweite praktische Bedeutung in den letzten drei Jahrzehnten immens zugenommen. Social Enterprises existieren real und liefern erstaunliche Lösungen für soziale und ökologische Probleme. Zahlreiche Wissenschaftler untersuchen höchst effektive Fallstudien und beschäftigen sich konzeptionell und vermehrt auch komparativ mit diesem Phänomen. Europas Regierungen sehen in SEs oftmals einen Hoffnungsschimmer, um Sozialkürzungen abzufedern und unterstützen deren Entwicklung beispielsweise durch eigene Rechtsformen und Ministerialbeamte.

Basierend auf und beitragend zu komparativen Forschungsarbeiten durch das EMES (European Research Center für Social Enterprises) untersucht die vorliegende Arbeit den Zusammenhang zwischen dem Auftreten von Social Entrepreneurs und sozialer Innovation in Österreich. Anhand einer vom Autor durchgeführten, triangulierten Studie (Lehner, 2011) mit einer Kombination aus qualitativen und quantitativen Daten (mixed-mode research design) kann gezeigt werden, dass Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich Innovation auf zweierlei Arten als Wettbewerbsvorteil einsetzen: einerseits um vorhandene, vom System nicht abgedeckte soziale Bedürfnisse durch kreative Lösungen als Markt zu erschließen und andererseits, um vorhandene Prozesse und Abläufe durch neue Varianten mit einem stärkeren unternehmerischen Risikokalkül zu verbessern. Während viele der innovativen

Lösungen bisher nicht oder nur unzureichend angeboten wurden, zeigte sich aber auch deutlich, dass Social Enterprises vermehrt Aufgaben übernehmen, die bisher direkt oder indirekt durch den Staat erbracht wurden.

2. Epistemologie und Methodik

Um den unterschiedlichen Begriffsdefinitionen und möglichen Facetten dieses Phänomens in Österreich gerecht zu werden, und ein solides Rahmenwerk für die empirische Studie zu bilden wurde in einem ersten Schritt das Konzept einer Social Enterprise in der Literatur untersucht. Als zweiter Schritt wurden die Rahmenbedingungen für Social Enterprises in Österreich erforscht, basierend einerseits auf Studien und Arbeiten der Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien für den non-profit Sektor, sowie andererseits auf verfügbaren Daten der Statistik Austria und des EMES Forschungszentrums. Dieser Schritt war im Speziellen notwendig, um im Vorfeld auf mögliche Störvariablen, Mehrdeutigkeiten und Überlappungen mit dem traditionellen non-profit Sektor aufmerksam zu werden. Der empirische Teil bestand aus einem online Fragebogen mit qualitativen und quantitativen Fragen, darauffolgenden Interviews mit Experten und Praktikern sowie zwei moderierten Fokus Gruppen zu dem Thema Social Entrepreneurship. Als Rahmenwerk für die kombinierten Ergebnisse dieses mixed-mode Forschungsaufbaus wurden Kategorien und Codes aus der vorangegangenen Literaturstudie sowie weitere induktiv gefundene Codes aus dem empirischen Material erarbeitet. Dazu wurde der etablierte Prozess der induktiven Theoriebildung nach Denzin und Lincoln (2003; 2005) verwendet. 34 komplette Fragebögen wurden rückgesendet, davon waren 31 gültig und entsprachen dem Selektionskriterium für Social Enterprises. Basierend auf diesen Daten und als nächster Schritt wurden 14 ausführliche semi-strukturierte Interviews geführt, um Definitionen und Trends zu klären sowie eventuelle Mehrdeutigkeiten der verwendeten Codes zu hinterfragen. Die Transkripte wurden mittels der Technik der relativen thematischen Analyse (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) in der Software ATLAS.TI codiert. Dabei wurden sowohl die im vorangegangenen Abschnitt postulierten Codes verwendet als auch induktiv neue Codes in rekursiver Arbeit mit dem Material definiert. Für eine weitere Triangulation wurden die Ergebnisse zweier Fokus Gruppen zu diesem Thema ebenfalls inkludiert und rekursiv codiert. In einem finalen Schritt kam es zu einer reflektierten Synthese des Materials im Hinblick auf die Forschungsfrage.

3. Der Begriff Social Entrepreneurship in der Literatur

In Österreich werden laut einer aktuellen Medienrecherche gleichlautend mit Social Enterprise die übersetzten Begriffe *Sozial-Unternehmung* oder *Sozial-Business* verwendet. Diese Begriffe können gerade in einem Land, in dem soziale Unternehmen traditionell und häufig nur als Mittler Aufgaben des Staates übernehmen für Verwirrung sorgen. Im Sinne einer internationalen Vergleichbarkeit bezüglich Bezeichnung und Definition hat sich der Autor entschieden auch in deutschen Manuskripten und Journal Artikeln den Begriff Social Enterprise und Social Entrepreneur zu verwenden. Die Bedeutung, die den SEs in Europa beigemessen wird, zeigt sich auch in der Errichtung des European Research Networks EMES (www.emes.net). Dieses wurde im letzten Jahrzehnt als ein Zusammenschluss von mehreren Universitäten und Forschungsstätten gegründet und untersucht seitdem Struktur, Konvergenzen und Divergenzen von Social Enterprises in den verschiedenen Ländern. So existieren beispielsweise in Italien und England bereits eigene Rechtsformen für Social Enterprises und in Österreich/ Deutschland wird gerade an der Weiterentwicklung der gemeinnützigen GmbHs. gearbeitet um diese für Social Enterprises geeignet zu machen. Nyssens et. al. (2006; Defourny and Nyssens, 2008, 2009) haben ein interdisziplinäres Rahmenwerk erarbeitet, um komparative Studien zu ermöglichen. Kerlin (2010) wiederum nutzt vorhandene komparative Forschung aus dem non-profit Sektor (Salamon et al., 2000; 2004), um ein Rahmenwerk aus Variablen zu erstellen und nachfolgend zu testen, welches Anleihen an der Theorie des sozialen Ursprungs (Moore and Müller, 1969) nimmt. Die Theorie soll im Kontext von non-profit- und Social Enterprises erklären, wie die Entwicklung und Innovation neuer Institutionen durch existierende Organisationen und Muster limitiert werden. Der dänische Soziologe Esping-Andersen (1990) wiederum unterscheidet drei Welten des Wohlfahrtskapitalismus, nämlich liberal (USA, UK, Australien), konservativ (Deutschland, Österreich, Italien, Frankreich) und sozial-demokratisch (nordische Staaten) mit unterschiedlichen Ausprägungen der Wohlfahrtstriade bestehend aus Staat, Familie und Markt. Der Begriff Social Enterprise selbst wird in der Literatur mit unterschiedlichem Fokus definiert (Pearce and Kay, 2003; Mair and Marti, 2006; Nicholls, 2006; Nicholls and Cho, 2006; Hill et al., 2010). SEs werden beschrieben als:

- *a for profit social venture (Dees and Anderson, 2006)*
- *a means to alleviate social problems and catalyze social transformation. (Mair and Marti, 2006)*

- *Social Entrepreneurs find what is not working and solve the problem by changing the system, spreading the solution, and persuading entire societies to take new leaps. (Drayton, 2006)*
- *these new institutions increasingly appear as support tools for welfare policies that can help to sustain the European Social Model (Hemerijck, 2002)*

Einige Wissenschaftler fordern, dass die Verteilung von sozialen Leistungen demokratisch kontrolliert werden sollte, und argumentieren kritisch, dass zu viel Markt, mit seinem inneliegenden Konzept des Wettbewerbs auch unvorhergesehene negative Auswirkungen haben kann. (Meyer, 2007, 2009). Nicholls (2006) sieht die Kombination einer übergeordneten sozialen Mission und unternehmerischer Kreativität als identitätsstiftendes Merkmal, welches Social Enterprises von anderen öffentlichen oder zivilgesellschaftlichen Organisationen abgrenzt.

4. Innovation und Social Entrepreneurs

Aktuelle Forschung zeigt auf, dass die Konzeption einer Social Enterprise eng verbunden ist mit den Protagonisten, den Social Entrepreneurs. Frank und Mitterer (2009) zeigen auf, dass das Erkennen und Nutzen von Chancen und Gelegenheiten sowie Effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2008) Merkmale eines erfolgreichen Unternehmers sind. Di Domenico, Haugh und Tracy (2010) erforschen darauf basierend den Social Entrepreneur empirisch als Bricolateur (Strauss, 1968) mit folgenden Eigenschaften:

- Fokus auf vorhandene Mittel und Ressourcen
- Improvisation
- Überschreiten von Grenzen

Zahra et.al. (2009) erarbeiten eine Typologie von Social Entrepreneurs indem sie auf dem Vermächtnis von Schumpeter, Hayek und Kirzner und deren Zugang zu Innovation aufbauen. Lehner und Kansikas (2011) untersuchen den Prozess der *Opportunity Recognition* bei Social Entrepreneurs. Bosma et.al. (2010) überschreiten den Unternehmerbegriff und erforschen Social Intrapreneurship, das unternehmerische Denken innerhalb bestehender non-profit Organisationen. Als Basis für die a-priori Codierung des Materials wurden folgende Codes/Kategorien aus der Literatur (Archer *et al.*, 2009; Zahra *et al.*, 2009; Di Domenico *et al.*, 2010) erarbeitet: Bricolage, Effectuation und Improvisation.

5. Der non-profit Sektor in Österreich als Hintergrund für Social Enterprises

In Ländern mit einer *Bismarck'schen Tradition* wie zum Beispiel Deutschland und Österreich, spielen Organisationen als Mittler zwischen Staat und Gesellschaft eine sehr wichtige und große Rolle in der Erbringung von sozialen Leistungen (Esping-Andersen, 1999). Diese

formende Gemeinsamkeit und die gewachsenen institutionellen Eigenheiten erklären den Widerstand traditioneller non-profit Unternehmen in diesen Ländern gegen fundamentale Veränderungen. Palier (2010) schreibt

... contributory benefits enjoy a particularly high level of legitimacy and are therefore difficult to be cut back radically. Transfers are 'paid' by social contributions, so workers assume that they have 'bought' social rights. Benefits are usually generous, so their loss would be more significant than the reduction of a benefit which is already at a low level. People prefer to pay more (contributions) than seeing their benefits (bought by their own work) diminished. Finally, insurance-based transfers are well defended by organized interests and in particular by trade unions of the different branches corresponding to the different professional schemes.

Die zumindest teilweise Nutzung von Marktzugängen ist für non-profit Unternehmen in Österreich nichts Neues. (Neumayr *et al.*, 2007; Statistics Austria, 2007). Zudem mussten viele traditionelle Organisationen kürzlich weitreichende Änderungen an ihren Geschäftsmodellen vornehmen und gezwungen durch politische Entscheidungen vermehrt Pauschalvergütungen durch Leistungsverträge ersetzen (Zauner *et al.*, 2006). Neumayr, Schneider und Meyer (2007) berechnen aufgrund von Daten durch die Statistik Austria 2007, dass bereits 37% des Einkommens von non-profit Organisationen nicht mehr durch den Staat aufgebracht wird. Nicht unterschätzen darf man zudem die auch für Social Enterprises wichtige Bedeutung von Freiwilligenarbeit in Österreich (Badelt and Hollerweger, 2007). Österreichs non-profit Sektor ist außerdem geprägt von starken, oftmals politischen Organisationen, die ihren Einfluss über alle Arten von sozialen und gesellschaftlichen Einrichtungen sicherstellen wollen, so zum Beispiel im Sport und Kulturbereich. Aufgrund dieser Eigenheiten haben Social Entrepreneurs oftmals Schwierigkeiten die notwendigen Ressourcen zum Start aufzutreiben wenn sie nicht der einen oder anderen Partei angehören (Neumayr *et al.*, 2007). Überdies ist in Österreich die Kirche ein wichtiger Akteur im Bereich der sozialen Leistungserbringung. Spenden sind in Österreich generell nahezu institutionalisiert, wenige Organisationen teilen sich den Spendenkuchen. Stiftungen begünstigen im weltweiten Vergleich eher selten soziale Zwecke. Einige große Stiftungen, wie beispielsweise die ESSL Stiftung, versucht aber diesbezügliches Lobbying zu betreiben. Detaillierte Daten zum non-profit Sektor in Österreich sind rar verglichen mit anderen europäischen Ländern. Erst seit einigen Jahren werden genauere Daten zum non-profit Sektor in Österreich erhoben. Dies ist zurückzuführen einerseits auf vermehrten Budget- und Transparenzdruck durch EU Zielvorgaben und andererseits auf einen Wechsel in der politischen Landschaft im Jahr 2000, der einen markt-liberaleren Zugang mit sich brachte (Neumayr *et al.*, 2009). Eine für Social Enterprises in Österreich longitudinal prägende

staatliche Kooperation mit privaten Akteuren war die Einführung eines „2. Arbeitsmarktes“, der die Reintegration von Langzeitarbeitslosen in den normalen Arbeitsmarkt durch begleitete, geregelte und produktive Arbeit zum Ziel hat.

6. Ergebnisse der Studie

Österreichs Social Enterprises arbeiten in einer Vielzahl von sozialen Bereichen (Lehner, 2011) und schaffen dabei komplett neue soziale Angebote (21 Zustimmungen), ergänzen bestehende Angebote von Staat und Markt (21 Zustimmungen) oder bieten vorhandene Dienstleistungen auf eine neue, effizientere Weise an (11 Zustimmungen). Die Teilnehmer nannten dabei folgende Gründe als ausschlaggebende (Mehrfachnennungen möglich), warum ihre sozialen Leistungen so bisher noch nicht erbracht wurden:

- für große NPO nicht interessant (2 Zustimmungen)
- keine Finanzierung über die öffentliche Hand möglich (8 Zustimmungen)
- nicht im politischen/ gesellschaftlichen Fokus (10 Zustimmungen)
- die Idee hatte noch keiner für meine Zielgruppe (14 Zustimmungen)
- Bedarf war noch nicht vorhanden (3 Zustimmungen)
- Bedarf wurde bisher anders gedeckt (5 Zustimmungen)

Nach der Codierung der Daten aus den quantitativen sowie qualitativen Quellen (vgl. Anhang 1) im Rahmen der a-priori definierten Codes wurde eine reflektive Synthese durchgeführt. Folgende Codes wurden dabei als Ergebnis induktiv erarbeitet, spiegeln den erweiterten Zusammenhang von Innovation und Social Entrepreneurs in Österreich wider (vgl. Tabelle 1) und gewähren Einblick in die dafür verantwortlichen Prozesse.

Innovation und erarbeitete Codes	Definition der Innovationsprozesse	Evidenz in den Interviews (siehe Anhang 1)
Kreativität	Neue Ideen zur Lösung sozialer Probleme, neue Märkte selbst generieren	(#1)(#2)(#3)(#4)(#9) (#14)(#10)
Bricolage	Auskommen mit Vorhandenem, Überschreiten von Grenzen	(#4)(#5)(#7)(#12)
Improvisation	Neue Kombination von Ressourcen und Prozessen, um das Ziel zu erreichen, Ausprobieren statt abzuwarten	(#2)(#4)(#5)(#7)(#8)
Wiederverwendung	Verwendung abgenützter Ressourcen für neue Zwecke, Wertschöpfung durch Sammeln von Altstoffen	(#5)(#6)(#7)(#14)
Social Bricolage	Netzwerke und kollektive Arbeit nutzen	in allen Fällen sichtbar
Effectuation	Das Ziel hartnäckig mit allen Mitteln verfolgen	(#4)(#5)(#7)(#8) (#10)(#12)
Risikobereitschaft	Die Bereitschaft persönliches Risiko einzugehen, wenn der mögliche soziale Nutzen überwiegt. Einsatz von eigenem Kapital	in allen Fällen sichtbar außer (#1)(#11)
Grenzen überschreiten	Imaginäre, gesellschaftliche und reale Grenzen werden nicht als endgültig limitierend gesehen	(#1)(#2)(#4)(#5)(#7)(#8) (#9)(#10)(#12)(#13)(#14)

Tabelle 1, Innovation und erarbeitete Codes a-posteriori

7. Konklusio

Der soziale Zweck und die soziale Wertschöpfung stehen für Social Entrepreneurs klar im Vordergrund. Unternehmerisches Denken wird genutzt, um diesen sozialen Zweck nachhaltig zu gewährleisten und nicht von Gönnern abhängig zu sein. Starre Strukturen und staatliche Vorgaben werden als hemmend für die notwendige Flexibilität gesehen. Ausprobieren, Kreativität und Risikobereitschaft gelten als Mittel zum Zweck. Ein offenes Auge für soziale Missstände und ein offenes Ohr für vorhandene Ressourcen sowie Kreativität in der Kombination der beiden tragen zum Erfolg und zur Einzigartigkeit der Social Enterprises in Österreich bei. Abgrenzungen sowohl zum traditionellen non-profit Sektor als auch zum freien Markt sind oftmals fließend, aber übereinstimmend mit der Literatur in der Gesamtheit der Merkmale gegeben (Nicholls, 2006). Auch wenn ein kritischer Blickwinkel in Österreich im Hinblick auf die zukünftigen Aufgaben des Sozialstaats angebracht ist, so können Social Enterprises befruchtend und katalytisch auf bestehende Organisationen einwirken und als Vorbilder für den Export von Lösungen für weniger entwickelte Sozialstaaten dienen.

Literaturverzeichnis

- Archer, G., *et al.*, 2009. Towards an alternative Theory of Entrepreneurial Success: Integrating Bricolage, Effectuation and Improvisation. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, 29(6).
- Badelt, C. and Hollerweger, E., 2007. Ehrenamtliche Arbeit im Nonprofit Sektor. In M. Badelt C., M., Simsa, R. (Ed.), *Handbuch der Nonprofit Organisationen. Strukturen und Management 4th ed.* Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel.
- Bosma, N., *et al.*, 2010. Intrapreneurship-An international study. *Scales Research Reports*.
- Dees, J. and Anderson, B., 2006. Framing a Theory of Social Entrepreneurship - Building on Two Schools of Practice and Thought. *ARNOVA Occasional Paper Series*, 1(3), 1-28.
- Defourny, J. and Nyssens, M., 2008. Social enterprise in Europe: recent trends and developments. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 4(3), 202-228.
- Defourny, J. and Nyssens, M. 2009. Conceptions of Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States: Convergences and Divergences, *Second EMES International Conference on Social Enterprise*: 1-26. Trento, Italy.
- Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y., 2003. *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials, second edition*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y., 2005. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research, Third Edition*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Di Domenico, M., *et al.*, 2010. Social Bricolage: Theorizing Social Value Creation in Social Enterprises. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4), 681-703.
- Drayton, B., 2006. Everyone a Changemaker: Social Entrepreneurship's Uitimate Goal. *innovations*, 1(1), 80-96.
- Eisenhardt, K. and Graebner, M., 2007. Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 50(1), 25-32.
- Esping-Andersen, G., 1990. *The three worlds of welfare capitalism*. Cambridge: Cambridge.
- Esping-Andersen, G., 1999. *Social Foundation of Postindustrial Economies*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Frank, H. and Mitterer, G., 2009. Opportunity Recognition–State of the Art und Forschungsperspektiven. *Zeitschrift für Betriebswirtschaft*, 79(3), 367-406.
- Hemerijck, A., 2002. The self-transformation of the European social model (s). In G. Esping-Andersen (Ed.), *Why we need a new welfare state*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 173-214.
- Hill, T., *et al.*, 2010. Patterns of Meaning in the Social Entrepreneurship Literature: A Research Platform. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1(1), 5-31.
- Kerlin, J., 2010. A Comparative Analysis of the Global Emergence of Social Enterprise. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 21(2), 162-179.
- Lehner, O.M., 2011. The Penomenon of Social Enterprise in Austria: a triangulated descriptive Study. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 3(1).
- Lehner, O.M. and Kansikas, J., 2011. Opportunity Recognition among Social Entrepreneurs: a Thematic Meta-Analysis. In J. Katz, and T. Lumpkin (Eds.), *Advances in Entrepreneurship, Firm Emergence and Growth*. New York: Emerald Group.
- Mair, J. and Marti, I., 2006. Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1), 36-44.
- Meyer, M., 2007. Wie viel Wettbewerb vertragen NPO? Befunde zum Nutzen und Schaden von Wettbewerb im Dritten Sektor. In B. Helmig, R. Purtschert, R. Schauer, and D. Witt (Eds.), *Nonprofit-Organisationen und Märkte*. Wiesbaden VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 59-77.
- Meyer, M., 2009. Wie viel Wirtschaft verträgt die Zivilgesellschaft? Über Möglichkeiten und Grenzen wirtschaftlicher Rationalität in NPOs. In I. Bode, A. Evers, and A. Klein (Eds.), *Bürgergesellschaft als Projekt*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 127-144.
- Moore, B. and Müller, H.G., 1969. *Social origins of dictatorship and democracy*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Neumayr, M., *et al.*, 2009. The role of civil society organisations in different nonprofit regimes: Evidence from Austria and the Czech Republic. *Comparative Social Research*, 26.
- Neumayr, M., *et al.* 2007. The Non-profit Sector in Austria–An economic, legal and political appraisal, *Institute for Social Policy, Vienna University of Economics*. Vienna: ePub.
- Nicholls, A., 2006. *Social entrepreneurship: new models of sustainable social change*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Nicholls, A. and Cho, A., 2006. Social entrepreneurship: The structuration of a field. In A. Nicholls (Ed.), *Social Entrepreneurship: New Models of Sustainable Social Change*. New York: Oxford University Press, 99-118.
- Nyssens, M., et al., 2006. *Social enterprise: at the crossroads of market, public policies and civil society*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Palier, B., 2010. *A Long Goodbye to Bismarck?: The Politics of Welfare Reform in Continental Europe*. Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.
- Pearce, J. and Kay, A., 2003. *Social enterprise in anytown*. London: Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation.
- Salamon, L. and Sokolowsky, S., 2004. *Global civil society: dimensions of the nonprofit sector*. Bloomfield: Kumarian Press.
- Salamon, L., et al. 2000. Social origins of civil society: An overview, *Working paper of the Johns Hopkins comparative nonprofit sector project no. 38*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies.
- Sarasvathy, S., 2008. *Effectuation: Elements of entrepreneurial expertise*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Statistics Austria. 2007. *Nonprofit Organisations in Austria. First extrapolations*. Vienna: Statistics Austria.
- Strauss, L., 1968. *Savage mind*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Zahra, S., et al., 2009. A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(5), 519-532.
- Zauner, A., et al., 2006. *Von der Subvention zum Leistungsvertrag. Neue Koordinations- und Steuerungsformen und ihre Konsequenzen für Non-profit Organisationen - eine systemtheoretische Analyse*. Bern: Haupt.

Anhang 1

Teilnehmer und Fallstudien aus den Interviews

Fall	Person	Organisation/ Aktivitäten
1	Marie R.	<i>Ashoka</i> ist eine internationale Organisation zur Unterstützung von Social Entrepreneurs durch Training, Beratung und Seed-Financing. Durch Publikationen wird auf Social Entrepreneurship aufmerksam gemacht. Österreich Direktorat seit 2010.
2	Georg K. Andreas I.	<i>Cropster</i> fördert fairen Handel mit Kaffeebauern in Süd-Amerika durch ein Web-basiertes tracking system für hochqualitative nachhaltige Ernten.
3	Gundula S.	<i>Waldzell</i> ist eine internationale Organisation mit Sitz in Österreich, die angehende Social Entrepreneurs unterstützt und einen teilweise spirituellen Hintergrund bietet. Unterstützer sind beispielsweise der Dalai Lama oder Desmond Tutu sowie das Stift Melk.
4	Evelina L. Gaythri R.	<i>The good tribe</i> veranstaltet Konferenzen und Events zum Thema fair-trade im Bereich Textilien.
5	Sonja M.	<i>4everyoung</i> arbeitet in mehreren Bereichen, gibt Langzeitarbeitslosen und sozial auffälligen Jugendlichen sinnstiftende Arbeit, sammelt alte Computer, renoviert diese und hält Kurse für sozial Schwächere.
6	Christian S. Stefan P.	<i>books4life</i> sammelt gebrauchte Bücher und verkauft diese günstig an Bedürftige. Erlöse werden sozialen Zwecken gespendet.
7	Rüdiger W.	<i>Compuritas</i> sammelt alte Computer, repariert diese und verkauft sie an NGOs in Entwicklungsländern. Weiters berät Compuritas zum Thema green-IT.
8	Egon S.	<i>WineAid</i> sammelt Wein Spenden und verkauft diese mit eigenem Logo in schöner Verpackung als Unternehmensgeschenke. Der Erlös wird sozialen Einrichtungen für Kinder gespendet.
9	Dorothea E.	<i>Zimd</i> arbeitet an geschlechtsspezifischer Entwicklung und führt mehrere Empowerment- und Selbsterfahrungsprogramme für Jugendliche durch.
10	Theresia B.	<i>Hermes</i> ist eine Social Bank (micro-finance), Menschen können ihr Geld darin für soziale Zwecke investieren. Sozial- und Umweltunternehmen können dann Kredite aufnehmen.
11	Gabriele B.	<i>Caritas</i> ist eine traditionelle kirchliche non-profit Organisation die in vielen sozialen Bereichen tätig ist.
12	Heidemarie P.	<i>Der glücklichste Augenblick</i> unterstützt Menschen, die zu rauchen aufhören wollen durch niederschwellige sympathische Beratungsstellen in belebten Strassen.
13	Franz E.	<i>GBL</i> ist eine privat geführte Organisation, die in einer bestimmten Region mit hoher Arbeitslosigkeit versucht, diese zu vermindern und die Folgen abzuschwächen.
14	Mathias R.	<i>The Hub Vienna</i> ist ein ko-working Space und bietet Hosting, Infrastruktur und Beratung zum Thema Social Entrepreneurship.

- 1 LAINE, JUHANI, Toimialareseptin ja yritysparadigman muutos sekä sen vaikutus strategiseen muutokseen. Laadullinen ja historiallinen case-tutkimus perheyriksen siirtymisestä monialayhtymän osaksi. - Change in industry recipe and company paradigm and its impact on strategic change. A qualitative and longitudinal case study on a one-family owned company which moved into the context of a multi-business company. 252 p. Summary 12 p. 2000.
- 2 WAHLGRÉN, ASTA, Mastery and slavery. Triangulatory views on owner-managers' managerial work. - Isäntä ja renki. Trianguloituja näkökulmia omistajajohtajien johtamistyöhön. 138 p. Yhteenveto 4 p. 2000.
- 3 SEPPÄ, MARKO, Strategy logic of the venture capitalist. Understanding venture capitalism - the businesses within - by exploring linkages between ownership and strategy of venture capital companies, over time, in America and Europe. 321 p. Yhteenveto 9 p. 2000.
- 4 PEKKALA, SARI, Regional convergence and migration in Finland, 1960-95. 121 p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2000.
- 5 KORHONEN, JOUNI, Industrial ecosystem. Using the material and energy flow model of an ecosystem in an industrial system. - Teollinen ekosysteemi - Ekosysteemin materiaali- ja energiavirtamallin soveltaminen teollisessa systeemissä. 131 p. Tiivistelmä 1 p. 2000.
- 6 KARVONEN, MINNA-MAARI, An industry in transition. Environmental significance of strategic reaction and proaction mechanisms of the Finnish pulp and paper industry. 146 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2000.
- 7 RITSILÄ, JARI, Studies on the spatial concentration of human capital. 140 p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2001.
- 8 LIITTUNEN, HANNU, The birth and success of new firms in a changing environment. 261 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2001.
- 9 MATTILA, MINNA, Essays on customers in the dawn of interactive banking. - Asiakkaat interaktiivisen pankkiliiketoiminnan aamunkoitossa. 154 p. Yhteenveto 3 p. 2001.
- 10 HYRSKY, KIMMO, Reflections on the advent of a more enterprising culture in Finland: an exploratory study. 244 p. Tiivistelmä 4 p. 2001.
- 11 KUJALA, JOHANNA, Liiketoiminnan moraalista etsimässä. Suomalaisen teollisuusjohtajien sidosryhmänäkemykset ja moraalinen päätöksenteko. - Searching for business morality. Finnish industrial managers' stakeholder perceptions and moral decision-making. 217 p. Summary 4 p. 2001.
- 12 LÄMSÄ, ANNA-MAIJA, Organizational downsizing and the Finnish manager from an ethical perspective. - Organisaation kutistaminen ja suomalainen liikkeenjohto eettisestä näkökulmasta tarkasteltuna 61 p. (115 p.) Summary 5 p. 2001.
- 13 GRONOW, TITO, Material flow models in environmental policy planning. Case: pulp and paper industry. - Materiaalivirtamallit ympäristöpolitiikan ja -toimintatapojen suunnittelussa. Case: Massa- ja paperiteollisuus. 103 p. (144 p.) Yhteenveto 1 p. 2001.
- 14 MOILANEN, RAILI, A learning organization: machine or human? - Oppiva organisaatio: kone vai oppivien ihmisten yhteisö? 55 p. (162 p.) Yhteenveto 7 p. 2001.
- 15 HOKKANEN, SIMO, Innovatiivisen oppimisyhteisön profiili. Ammattikorkeakoulujen tekniikan ja liikenteen koulutusalan näkökulmasta tarkasteltuna. - The factors contributing to the profile of an innovative learning community. 242 p. Summary 10 p. 2001.
- 16 PAAJANEN, PEKKA, Yrittäjyyskasvattaja. Ammattikorkeakoulun hallinnon ja kaupan alan opettajien näkemykset itsestään ja työstään yrittäjyyskasvattajana. - An entrepreneurship educator. Teachers' views of themselves and their work as an entrepreneurship educator at the polytechnic level, in the field of business and administration. 276 p. Summary 9 p. 2001.
- 17 MANGELOJA, ESA, Nordic stock market integration. - Pohjoismaisten osakemarkkinoiden integraatio. 164 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2001.
- 18 KARJALUOTO, HEIKKI, Electronic banking in Finland. Consumer beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. - Elektroninen pankkitoiminta Suomessa. Kuluttajien uskomukset, asenteet, aikomukset ja käyttäytyminen. 195 p. Yhteenveto 3 p. 2002.
- 19 VIRTANEN, AILA, Laskentatoimi ja moraalit. Laskenta-ammattilaisten käsityksiä hyvästä kirjanpitoavasta, hyväksyttävästä verosuunnittelusta ja hyvästä tilintarkastavasta. 184 p. Summary 4 p. 2002.
- 20 TENHUNEN, MARJA-LIISA, The professional growth of an accounting agency entrepreneur. - Tilitoimistoyrittäjän ammatillinen kasvu. 121 p. (359) Yhteenveto 7 p. 2002.
- 21 ALANKO, JUHA, Siipien alla ilmaa. Liikenneilmailun lentotoiminnan johtaminen liikennelentäjien miehistönkäytön tehokkuudella ja kustannuksilla mitattu. Empiirisenä kohteena Finnair Oy 1980- ja 1990-luvuilla. - Air under wings. 240 p. Summary 2 p. 2002.
- 22 NIEMELÄ, TARJA, Inter-Firm Co-operation Capability. - A Processual Empirical Study on Networking Family Firms. 204 p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2003.
- 23 SAJASALO, PASI, Strategies in transition - the internationalization of Finnish forest industry companies. 223 p. Yhteenveto 8 p. 2003.
- 24 NEVANPERÄ, ERKKI, Yrittäjyys Suupohjan opiskelijanuorten ajattelussa. Tutkimus Suupohjan seudun nuorisosaasteen opiskelijoiden yrittäjyysnäkemysistä sekä yrittäjyysopetuksen opetussuunnitelman kehittämissuunnitelmista. - How the young residents in Suupohja region see entrepreneurship: study of students' opinions

- about entrepreneurship in juvenile degree schools and the efforts in developing the curriculum of entrepreneurship education. 210 p. Summary 2 p. 2003.
- 25 JOUTSEN-ONNELA, MERJA, Turvallisuuutta ja sopusointua vaijännitystä ja valtaa. Tutkimus sairaanhoitaja- ja terveydenhoitajaopiskelijoiden yrittäjyys- ja muista arvoista. - Security and harmony or thrills power. 229 p. Summary 3 p. 2003.
- 26 RAJOTTE, ALAIN, Knowledge and decisions in environmental contexts. A case study of the pulp and paper industry. 190 p. 2003.
- 27 HAAPANEN, MIKA, Studies on the Determinants of Migration and the Spatial Concentration of Labour. 127 p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2003.
- 28 SUORANTA, MARI, Adoption of mobile banking in Finland. - Mobiilipankkipalveluiden adoptio Suomessa. 79 p. (167 p.) Yhteenveto 3 p. 2003.
- 29 MATTILA, ANSSI, Understanding seamless mobile service interface between customer and technology: An empirical study 62 p. (170 p.) Yhteenveto 3 p. 2003.
- 30 HALTUNEN, JUSSI, Teollisten perheyriysten kasvudynamiikan systeemiteoreettinen tarkastelu. - The growth dynamics of industrial family-owned firms - a systems theory approach. 302 p. Summary 8 p. 2004.
- 31 MADUREIRA, RICARDO, The role of personal contacts of foreign subsidiary managers in the coordination of industrial multinationals: the case of Finnish subsidiaries in Portugal. 186 p. - Ulkomaisten tytäryhtiöiden johtajien henkilökohtaisten kontaktien rooli koordinoinnissa monikansallisissa teollisuusyrityksissä. Case: Suomalaiset tytäryhtiöt Portugalissa. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2004.
- 32 KOIVUNEN, MAURI, Osaamisperustaisen kilpailukyvyn ja yrittäjyyden edistäminen. Tutkimustapauksena Raahen tietotekniikan muun- tokoulutusohjelma insinööreille. - Enhancing competence-based competitiveness and entrepreneurship. Research case: Professional degree upgrading in information technology for engineers in Raah. 216 p. Summary 3 p. 2004.
- 33 KANSIKAS, JUHA, Myyjiä, tuotekehittäjiä ja tuotejohtajia. Tuotepäälliköiden tehtävä- rakenteen heijastuminen tuotekehitys- projektissa sisäiseen yrittäjyyteen ja intuitiiviseen päätöksentekotyylin kuuluviin tekijöihin. - Sales people, product developers and product champions - product managers' responsibilities and job roles in a product development project and their reflection to intrapreneurship and intuitive decision making style. 258 p. Summary 6 p. 2004.
- 34 MUNNUKKA, JUHA, Perception-based pricing strategies for mobile services in customer marketing context. 65 p. (151 p.) Yhteenveto 1 p. 2004.
- 35 PALOVIITA, ARI, Matrix Sustainability: Applying input-output analysis to environmental and economic sustainability indicators. Case: Finnish forest sector. - Matriisikestävyys: Panos-tuotosanalyysin soveltaminen ekologisen ja taloudellisen kestävyuden indikaattoreihin. Case: Suomen metsäsektori. 216 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2004.
- 36 HANZELKOVA, ALENA, Re-establishing traditional Czech family businesses. A multiple case study on the present challenges. 306 p. Tiivistelmä 1 p. 2004.
- 37 TUUNANEN, MIKA, Essays on franchising in Finland - Empirical findings on franchisors and franchisees, and their relationships. 143 p. (252 p.) 2005.
- 38 AHLFORS, ULLA, Successful interactive business: Integration of strategy and IT. - Menestyksellinen vuorovaikutteinen e-liiketoiminta: Strategian ja informaatioteknologian integrointia. 353 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2005.
- 39 NIEMI, LIISA, The father, the son and the refreshed spirit. Strategic renewal after family business succession in the context of the textile, clothing, leather and footwear industry. - Isä, poika ja yritys yhä hengissä. Perheyriyksen strateginen uudistuminen sukupolvenvaihdoksen jälkeen - tapaus- tutkimus tekstiili-, vaatetus, nahka- ja kenkä- teollisuudessa. 219 p. Summary 2 p. 2005.
- 40 LASSILA, HILKKA, Matkailutilan sukupolven- vaihdos talonpoikaisten arvojen ohjaamana prosessina. - Traditional values affecting succession in farm tourism businesses. 206 p. Summary 12 p. 2005.
- 41 TURJANMAA, PIRKKO, Laadun oppiminen pienissä yrityksissä. Mallin konstruointi ja kehittäminen. - Learning of quality in small companies. Construction and Development of a model. 204 p. Summary 6 p. 2005.
- 42 YLÄOUTINEN, SAMI, Development and functioning of fiscal frameworks in the Central and Eastern European countries. - Finassipolitiikan kehikkojen kehittyminen ja toiminta Keski- ja Itä-Euroopan maissa. 220 p. Yhteenveto 4 p. 2005.
- 43 TÖRMÄKANGAS, RAILI, Perheyriittäjyyden arjen kulttuuri. Kolmen sukupolven sahatoimintaa. - The everyday culture of entrepreneurship over three generations in a saw mill. 203 p. Summary 3 p. 2005.
- 44 TUNKKARI-ESKELINEN, MINNA, Mentored to feel free. Exploring family business next generation members' experiences of non-family mentoring. - Mentoroinnilla vapauden- tunteeseen: Kartoittava tutkimus perheyriy- ten seuraajasukupolven mentoroinnista saamistaan kokemuksista. 233 p. Yhteenveto 3 p. 2005.

- 45 LINTULA, PAAVO, Maakuntalehden toimittajan toimintatila teknis-rationaalisessa ajassa. - The action scope of a journalist in a regional newspaper under pressure of a technical-rational discourse. 321 p. Summary 3 p. 2005.
- 46 HEIKKILÄ, MAURI, Minäkäsitys, itsetunto ja elämänhallinnan tunne sisäisen yrittäjyyden determinantteina. - The self-concept, the self-esteem and the sense of life control as the determinants of the intrapreneurship. 209 p. Summary 5p. 2006.
- 47 SYRJÄLÄ, JARI, Valoon piirrettyjä kuvia. Tarinoita ja tulkintoja sähköalan murroksesta hyvinvoinnin ja henkilöstöstrategian näkökulmasta. - Pictures in Light. Narratives and interpretations of changes in the energy sector from the point of view of welfare and personnel strategy. 333 p. 2006.
- 48 NIEMELÄ, MARGIT, Pitkäikäisten perheyritysten arvoprofiili. Pitkäikäisten perheyritysten arvojen ja jatkuvuuden kuvaus Bronfenbrennerin ekologisen teorian avulla. - The value profile of long-lived family firms. The description of the values and the continuity of long-lived family firms as seen through Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory. 187 p. Summary 2 p. 2006.
- 49 KAKKONEN, MARJA-LIISA, Intuition and entrepreneurs. A Phenomenological Study of managerial intuition of Finnish family entrepreneurs. 176 p. Tiivistelmä 2 p. 2006.
- 50 LAHTONEN, JUUKA, Matching heterogeneous job seekers and vacancies. Empirical studies using Finnish data. 110 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2006.
- 51 OLLIKAINEN, VIRVE, Gender Differences in Unemployment in Finland. 157. p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2006.
- 52 PURONAHO, KARI, Liikuntaseurojen lasten ja nuorten liikunnan markkinointi - Tutkimus lasten ja nuorten liikunnan tuotantoprosessista, resursseista ja kustannuksista. - Sport marketing by sport clubs for children and youngsters - Exploring the production process, resources and costs of children's and youngsters' sport activities. 236 p. Summary 3 p. 2006.
- 53 POIKKIMÄKI, SANNA, Look closer to see further. Exploring definitions, goals and activities of environmental life cycle management 153. p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2006.
- 54 SILJANEN, TUULA, Narratives of expatriates in the Middle East. Adaptation, identity and learning in non-profit organizations. 250 p. Tiivistelmä 2p. 2007.
- 55 WESTERHOLM, HELY, Tutkimusmatka pienyrityksen työvalmiuksien ytimeen. Kirjallisuuteen ja DACUM-analyysiin perustuva kartoitus. - A journey into the core of the occupational competence and attitudes of small business entrepreneurs. 221 p. Summary 5 p. 2007.
- 56 HYNINEN, SANNA-MARI, Matching in local labour markets: Empirical studies from Finland. 100 p. Summary 2 p. 2007.
- 57 TOHMO, TIMO, Regional economic structures in Finland: Analyses of location and regional economic impact. 53 p. (273 p.) Tiivistelmä 2 p. 2007.
- 58 HIIRONEN, MARJA-LIISA, Hoivayritykset kotona asuvien ikääntyvien toimintakyvyn tukena. Ikääntyvien, kuntapäätäjien ja hoivayrittäjien näkökulma. - Care enterprises and the functionality of elderly people living at home. The perspectives of aging people, municipal decision-makers and care entrepreneurs. 153 p. Summary 2 p. 2007.
- 59 ARHIO, KAIJA, Luova laatu ja arvoinnovaatiot oppivan verkoston tuottamina. Tapaus-tutkimus rakennuspuutuoteollisuuden verkostosta. - Creative quality and value innovations created by a learning network. Case-study within a building components manufacturing network. 191 p. Summary 10p. 2007.
- 60 HEIKKINEN, EILA, Yrittäjän persoonallisuus ja sen yhteys yrityksen kasvuun BigFive-teorian mukaan tarkasteltuna. - An entrepreneur's personality and its impact on the firm's growth: An analysis through the Big Five Theory. 139 p. Summary 5 p. 2007.
- 61 ELO-PÄRSSINEN, KRISTA, Arvot ja yhteiskunta-vastuullinen toiminta suurissa suomalaisissa perheyrityksissä. Omistajan näkökulma. - Values and corporate social performance in large Finnish family firms. Owners view. 188 p. Summary 2 p. 2007.
- 62 NYSSÖLÄ, HANNU, Omistajaohjaus, sisäinen yrittäjyys ja tuloksellisuus ammattikorkeakouluissa. - Corporate governance, intrapreneurship and effectiveness in the Universities of Applied Sciences. 361 p. Summary 9 p. 2008.
- 63 KAUKO-VALLI, SOFIA, Subjective well-being as an individually constructed phenomenon. 179 p. Summary 1 p. 2008.
- 64 SINTONEN, TEPPO, Diversiteetti ja narratiivisuus. Tutkielmia diskursiivisesta organisaatiotodellisuudesta. - Diversity and Narrative. Discursive approaches to organizational reality. 59 p (123 p.) Summary 2 p. 2008.
- 65 KOOSKORA, MARI, Understanding corporate moral development in the context of rapid and radical changes. The case of Estonia. 105 p. (198 p.) Tiivistelmä 9 p. 2008.
- 66 TAKANEN-KÖRPERICH, PIIRJO, Sama koulutus - eri urat. Tutkimus Mainzin yliopistossa soveltaa kielitiedettä vuosina 1965-2001 opiskelleiden suomalaisten urakehityksestä palkkatyöhön, freelancereiksi ja yrittäjiksi. - Same Education - Different Careers. The study of the Finnish nationals who have studied applied linguistics in the University of Mainz, Germany, during the years 1965-

- 2001, and their working development as employees, freelancers and entrepreneurs. 203 p. Summary 2 p. Zusammenfassung 3 p. 2008.
- 67 RANKINEN, ARJA, Kulttuurinen osaaminen Etelä- ja Itä-Kiinassa toimittaessa. Illustraationa eräs tulkinta suomalaisjohtajien Kiina-kokemuksista. - Cultural competence when operating in Southern and Eastern China. An interpretation of some Finnish business managers' experiences in China as an illustration. 294 p. Summary 4 p. 2008.
- 68 KOTAJA, SARI MAARIT SUSANNA, Keskipohjalaisyrietykset toimintaympäristönsä ja sen hyvinvoinnin rakentajina. Diskurssianalyttinen näkökulma. - Central Ostrobothnian SMEs as constructors of their operating environment and regional welfare. Discourse analytic research. 209 p. Summary 3 p. 2008.
- 69 TEITTINEN, HENRI, Näkymätön ERP. Taloudellisen toiminnanohjauksen rakentuminen. - Invisible ERP. Construction of enterprise resource planning. 206 p. Summary 2 p. 2008.
- 70 LUOTO, JANI, Bayesian applications in dynamic econometric models. - Bayesilaisia sovelluksia dynaamisissa ekonometrisissa malleissa. 148 p. Tiivistelmä 3 p. 2009.
- 71 TOURUNEN, KALEVI, Perheyrietykset kansantalouden resurssina. Keskisuurten ja suurten yritysten omistajuus, toiminnan laajuus ja kannattavuus Suomessa 2000–2005. - Family businesses as an economic resource. Ownership, scale and profitability of middle-sized and large-sized businesses in Finland in 2000–2005. 174 p. Summary 3 p. 2009.
- 72 NIEMELÄ-NYRHINEN, JENNI, Factors affecting acceptance of mobile content services among mature consumers. - Mobiilien sisältöpalveluiden omaksumiseen vaikuttavat tekijät ikääntyvien kuluttajien keskuudessa. 148 p. Yhteenveto 3 p. 2009.
- 73 LAURONEN, MIRJA, Yrittäjämäinen elinkeinopolitiikka. Kolmevaiheinen, diskurssianalyttinen tarkastelu kunnan elinkeinopolitiikan roolista ja tehtävistä. - Entrepreneurial economic policy. A three-phase discourse-analytical study of the roles and functions of municipal economic policy. 193 p. Summary 4 p. 2009.
- 74 KOSKINEN, MARKETTA, Omistajuus erilaisten yrittäjien käsityksinä ja tulkintoina. Fenomenografinen tutkimus. - Ownership as understood and interpreted by various entrepreneur types. A phenomenographic study. 227 p. Summary 2 p. 2009.
- 75 FRANTSI, TAPANI, Ikääntyvä johtaja tienhaaras. Ikääntyvien johtajien kertomukset johtajuuden ja identiteetin rakentajana. - Stories as identity construction of ageing leaders at the career crossroads. 247 p. 2009.
- 76 ONKILA, TIINA, Environmental rhetoric in Finnish business. Environmental values and stakeholder relations in the corporate argumentation of acceptable environmental management. 200 p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2009.
- 77 HARTIKAINEN, PERTTI, "Tätä peliä ei hävitä" Abduktiivinen tutkimus Halton-konsernin oppimishistoriasta 1968–2006. - "We won't lose this game." Abductive research on learning history of Halton Group 1968–2006. 190 p. Summary 4 p. 2009.
- 78 KERTTULA, KARI, Valta ja muutos. Ylimmän johdon tulkinta vallan ilmenemisestä organisaation strategisessa muutosprosessissa. - Power and change. Interpretation of the top management about the power arising from a strategic change process: qualitative case study within a forest industry organization. 206 p. Summary 3 p. 2009.
- 79 ANTTONEN, RITVA, »Manne takaraivossa». Ennakkoluulot ja syrjintä suomalaisten romaniyrittäjien kokemana. Fenomenografinen tutkimus. - Experiences of prejudice and discrimination of Roma entrepreneurs in Finland. A phenomenographic study. 199 p. Summary 3 p. 2009.
- 80 SALVADOR, PABLO F., Labour market dynamics in the Nordic countries according to the chain reaction theory. 148 p. 2009.
- 81 PELLINEN, ANTTI, Sijoitusrahastoasiakkaiden taloudellinen kyvykkyys ja tulevat lisäsijoituspäätökset. - Financial capability of mutual fund clients and additional investment decisions. 196 p. 2009.
- 82 KALLIOMAA, SAMI, Sisäinen markkinointi johtamisena. Tapaustutkimus konepajateollisuuden projektiorganisaatiosta. - Internal marketing as management –case study: project organisation within the engineering industry. 232 p. Summary 8 p. 2009.
- 83 VON BONSDORFF, MONIKA E., Intentions of early retirement and continuing to work among middle-aged and older employees. - Keskiikäisten ja ikääntyneiden työntekijöiden eläke- ja työssä jatkamisaikheet. 86 p. (194 p.) Yhteenveto 3 p. 2009.
- 84 LAAKKONEN, HELINÄ, Essays on the asymmetric news effects on exchange rate volatility. - Esseitä makrotalouden uutisten vaikutuksista valuuttakurssien volatilitettiin. 124 p. Yhteenveto 4 p. 2009.
- 85 LAPPALAINEN, MINNA, Entrepreneurial orientation at the level of dyad relationships in supply chains and networks. 138 p. Yhteenveto 3 p. 2009.
- 86 SILTAOJA, MARJO, Discarding the mirror - The importance of intangible social resources to responsibility in business in a Finnish context. - Peiliä hylkäämässä. Aineettomien sosiaalisten resurssien merkitys liiketoiminnan vastuulle. 204 p. Yhteenveto 3 p. 2010.

- 87 OVASKAINEN, MARKO, Qualification requirements of SMEs in Internet-based electronic commerce. - Findings from Finland. - Pk-yritysten kvalifikaatiovaatimukset Internet-pohjaisessa elektronisessa kaupankäynnissä - löydöksiä Suomesta. 273 p. Yhteenveto 6 p. 2010.
- 88 KUIVANIEMI, LENI, Evaluation and reasoning in the entrepreneurial opportunity process: Narratives from sex industry entrepreneurs. - Arviointi ja päättely liiketoimintamahdollisuuksien tunnistamisprosessissa. Yrittäjien tarinoita seksiteollisuudesta. 216 p. 2010.
- 89 STORHAMMAR, ESA, Toimintaympäristö ja PK-yritykset. Havaintoja yritysten toimintaan vaikuttavista tekijöistä. - Local environment and the small and medium sized enterprises. Observations of the factors which affect the operations of firms. 188 p. Summary 3 p. 2010.
- 90 KOSKINEN, HANNU, Studies on money and labour market dynamics and goods market imperfections. - Tutkimuksia raha- ja työmarkkinadynamiikasta ja hyödyke-markkinoiden epätäydellisyyksistä. 106 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2010.
- 91 HÄMÄLÄINEN, ILKKA, Suunnittelijat innovaatio-toiminnan ja kasvun ytimessä. - Architects and consulting engineers in the core of innovation and growth. 270 p. Summary 2 p. 2010.
- 92 KETOLA, HANNU U., Tulokkaasta tuottavaksi asiantuntijaksi. Perehdyttäminen kehittämisen välineenä eräissä suomalaisissa tietualan yrityksissä. - Transformation from a recruit (newcomer) into a productive expert. The job orientation process as a tool for personnel development in Finnish ICT companies. 212 p. 2010.
- 93 RAUTIAINEN, ANTTI, Conflicting legitimations and pressures in performance measurement adoption, use and change in Finnish municipalities. - Ristiriitaiset legitimaatiot ja paineet suoritustietämyksen käyttöönotossa, käytössä ja muutoksessa Suomen kunnissa. 52 p. (109 p.) Summary 4p. 2010.
- 94 JAUHIAINEN, SIGNE, Studies on human capital flows and spatial labour markets. - Tutkimuksia inhimillisen pääoman virroista ja alueellisista työmarkkinoista Suomessa. 98 p. Summary 1p. 2010.
- 95 KORSUNOVA, ANGELINA, Encouraging energy conservation with 'no hard feelings': a two-part analysis of communication between energy companies and Finnish households. 213 p. 2010.
- 96 NOKSO-KOIVISTO, PEKKA, Verkostoaktivaattorien roolit yritysten verkostoituessa. - Roles of Network Activators in Business Networking Process. 262 p. Summary 6 p. 2010.
- 97 AALTONEN, HELI, Co-creation of value in advertising. An interpretive study from the consumers' perspective. - Yhteinen arvonluonti mainonnassa. Kuluttajakeskainen tulkitseva tutkimus. 186 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2010.
- 98 YLINEN, AULIS, Opettajien yrittäjyyskasvatusvalmiudet Etelä-Pohjanmaan lukioissa. - Teachers' readiness for entrepreneurship education at Southern Ostrobothnia upper secondary schools. 221 p. Summary 8 p. 2011.
- 99 MUKKALA, KIRSI, Essays on regional development and labor mobility in a knowledge-based economy. - Alueellinen kehitys ja työvoiman liikkuvuus maantieteellisen keskittymisen ja osaamisintensiivisten alojen näkökulmasta. 127 p. Yhteenveto 2 p. 2011.
- 100 KONTINEN, TANJA, Internationalization pathways of family SMEs. - PK-perheyriyten kansainvälistymispolkuja. 98 p. (243 p.) Yhteenveto 1 p. 2011.
- 101 ESKOLA, ANNE, Good learning in accounting. Phenomenographic study on experiences of Finnish higher education students. - Hyvä oppiminen laskentatoimessa. Fenomenografinen tutkimus suomalaisten korkeakouluopiskelijoiden kokemuksista 191 p. Yhteenveto 5 p. 2011.
- 102 TURUNEN, TERO, Yrittäjyys - mitä se merkitsee? Yrittäjyyden ja sen sukulaiskäsitteiden käyttö koulutuksessa, tutkimuksessa ja politiikassa 1900-luvun loppupuolelta 2000-luvun alkuun. - Entrepreneurship - What does it mean? The applications of entrepreneurship and its kindred concepts in education, research and policy from the end of the 20th century until the beginning of the 21st century. 238 p. 2011.
- 103 PATJA, PÄIVI, Perheiden omistamisen muuttuvat merkitykset. Diskurssianalyttinen tutkimus perheiden omistamisen merkityksellistymisestä Suomessa vuosina 1976-2005. - The Changing Meanings of Family Ownership. 122 p. Summary 2 p. 2011.
- 104 TOKILA, ANU, Econometric studies of public support to entrepreneurship. - Ekonometrisia tutkimuksia yrittäjyyden julkisesta tukemisesta. 157 p. Yhteenveto 3 p. 2011.
- 105 HALME, PINJA, Iästä johtamiseen - Ikäjohtaminen ja eri-ikäisyys johtajuuden tutkimuskohteena. - Moving from Concepts of Age to Management - Age Management and Age Diversity in Management Research. 61 p. (130 p.) Summary 1 p. 2011.
- 106 OMAIR, KATLIN, Women's managerial careers in the context of the United Arab Emirates. 57 p. (120 p.) 2011.

- 107 PEKKALA, AULI, Mestaruus pääomana. Huippu-urheilun tuottama pääoma yrittäjäksi ryhtymisen kannalta. - Mastery as capital – How growth into the elite athlete and mastery capital advances the growth into entrepreneurship. 184 p. Summary 7 p. 2011.
- 108 LAAKKONEN, ANNE, Construction of the entrepreneurial identity in the family business context. A cross-cultural study. - Yrittäjämäisen identiteetin rakentuminen perheyrittäjäkontekstissa, kulttuurienvälinen tutkimus. 297 p. Yhteenveto 1 p. 2012.
- 109 MÄKI, KIMMO, Opetustyön ammattilaiset ja mosaiikin mestarit. Työkulttuurit ammattikorkeakoulu-opettajan toiminnan kontekstina. - Teaching professionals and masters of mosaic – Work cultures as the context of action of the teachers in universities of applied sciences. 150 p. 2012.
- 110 PIESKÄ, SAKARI, Enhancing innovation capability and business opportunities. Cases of SME-oriented applied research. 162 p. (244 p.) Tiivistelmä 2 p. 2012.
- 111 LEHNER, OTHMAR MANFRED, Social entrepreneurship perspectives. Triangulated approaches to hybridity. 94 p. (177 p.) Yhteenveto 1 p. 2012.