

JYVÄSKYLÄ STUDIES IN BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS 111

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Social Entrepreneurship Perspectives

Triangulated Approaches to Hybridity



UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

JYVÄSKYLÄ 2012

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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

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Jyväskylä University Printing House, Jyväskylä 2012

ABSTRACT

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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

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	

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 denominates 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 (Bosch, 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-

tition 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.

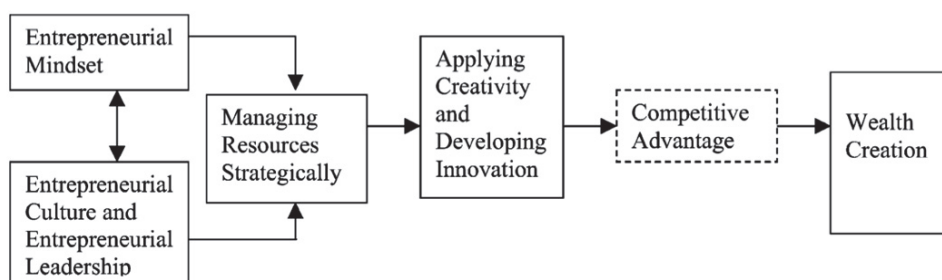


FIGURE 1 Model of strategic entrepreneurship (Ireland 2003, p.967)

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 Construction-ists	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 Hayeks 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 Engineers' 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

Zahras' 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.

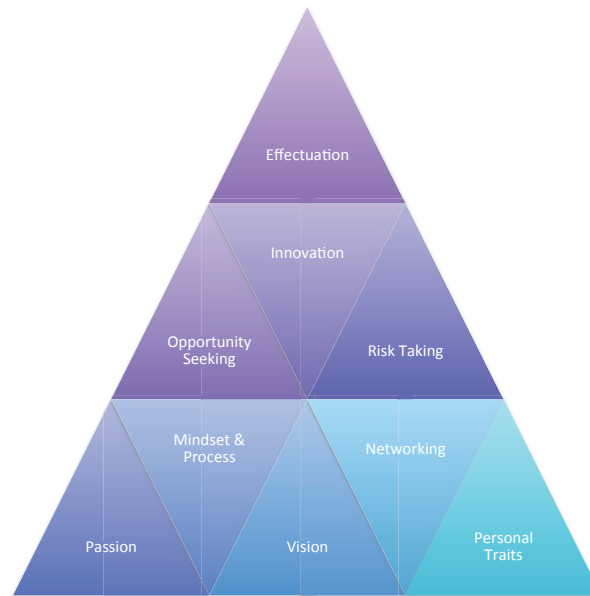


FIGURE 2 Subtopics in entrepreneurship

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 advice 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. Gjølborg (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 (Gjølborg, 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. Gjølborg 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.

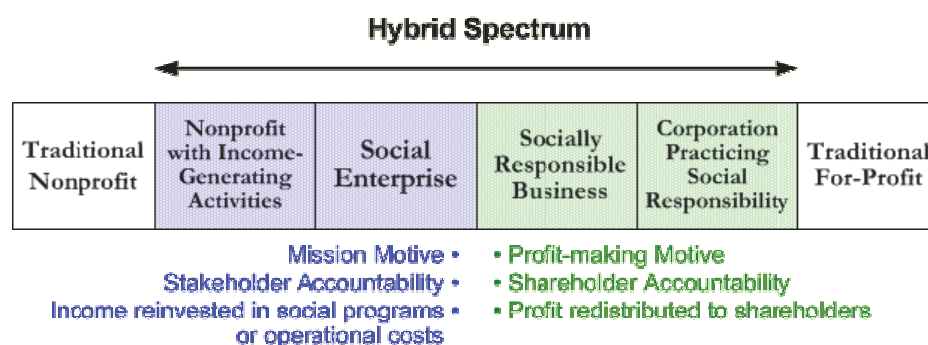


FIGURE 3 Hybrid spectrum adapted from Dees and Anderson (2006)

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)

	American Tradition		European Tradition	
Variable	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 preceeding 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:

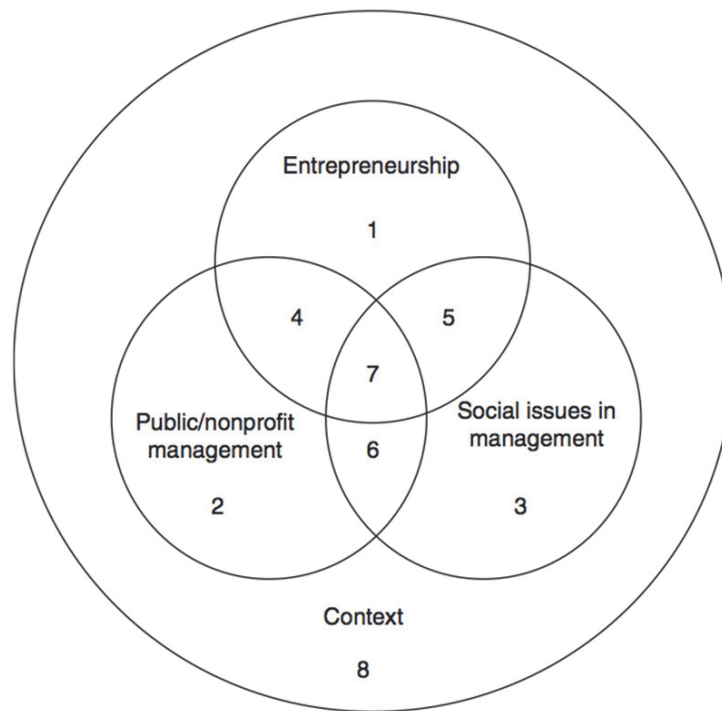


FIGURE 4 Conceptual domains in SE (Short 2009, p.170)

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-Andersons 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 believe 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.

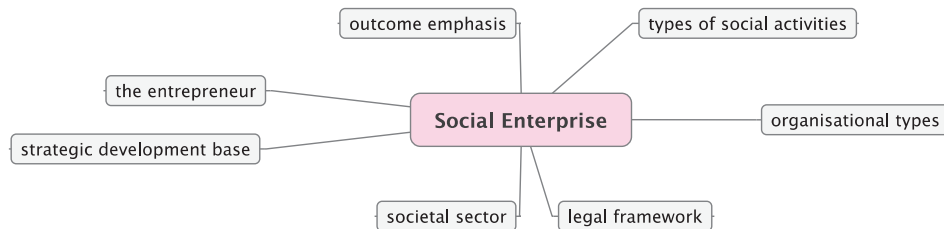


FIGURE 5 Framework based upon Kerlin (2010)

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 divers 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).

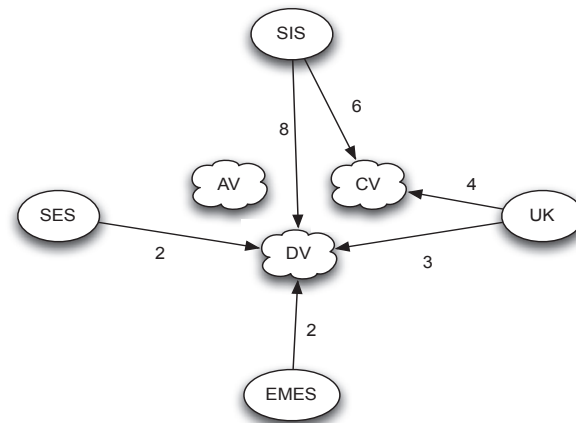


FIGURE 6 Network representation of OR views / SE schools

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		
Positivist	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? 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		
Determinism	Are humans determined by their environment, or do humans create their environment?	Objective
Voluntarism	Plan or a "Free will"	Subjective
Methodology		
Nomothetic	How can we find out about what we believe exists? 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.

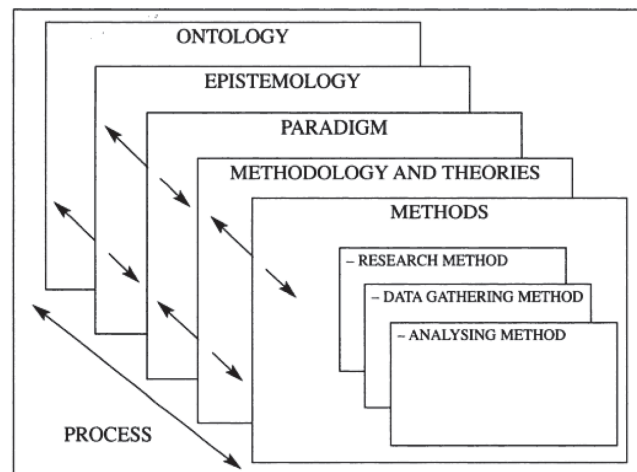


FIGURE 7 Paradigm/ Method interplay (Kyro and Kansikas, 2005, p. 137)

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.

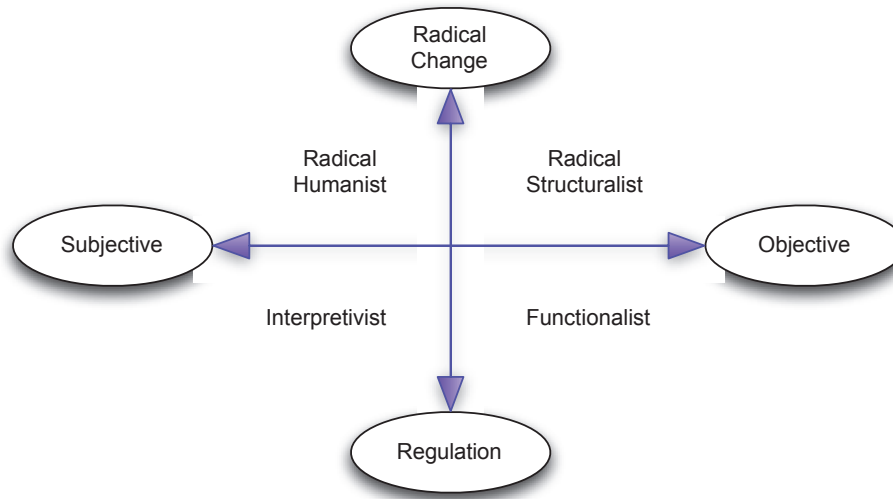


FIGURE 8 Paradigmatic framework, Lehner and Kansikas (2011)

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 paradigmatic 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 back-ground	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 tangibleness 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 extend 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' paradigmatic 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 righteously 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 konstruktionaalisemmista näkökulmista käsin sen synnynäisen monnitulkinnallisuuden huomioimiseksi. Väitöskirjassa todetaan, että tämän hetkisessä sosiaalisen yrittäjyyden tutkimuksessa tulee tunnistaa kulttuurillisten, yhteiskunnallisten ja tilanteeseen liittyvien kontekstien vaikutus tutkimukseen; Käsitteet tuotetaan sosiaalisessa vuorovaikutuksessa ja niiden tulisi saada riittävää 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 innewohnende 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.

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