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Sustainability of social entrepreneurial business models

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« L'Université n'entend donner aucune approbation ni improbation aux opinions émises dans cette thèse; ces opinions doivent être considérées comme propres à leur auteur. »

La durabilité des *business models* des entreprises sociales

Résumé

L'objectif de cette thèse est de dégager les principaux facteurs contribuant à la durabilité des *business models* des entreprises sociales. L'approche vise à savoir si les entreprises sociales gèrent avec succès l'équilibre entre leur création de valeur sociale et leur création de valeur économique. La contribution cherche à combler des lacunes sur l'influence de l'imprégnation sociale, du réseau de partenaires et du bricolage social ainsi que l'importance du secteur public sur la durabilité des entreprises sociales.

Cette thèse sur article est constituée de trois papiers et a recours à une méthodologie mixte qui combine revue systématique de la littérature, études quantitative et qualitative.

Le premier chapitre décrit les spécificités de l'entrepreneuriat social (ES), en le comparant aux autres types d'entrepreneuriat et présente les principaux paradigmes avec lesquels il est étudié dans la littérature. Après l'analyse des typologies, des courants de pensée et du débat scientifique, ainsi que des différences juridiques et des spécificités nationales, une définition unificatrice de l'ES est proposée à partir du socle commun de toutes ces approches. Les différentes manières d'opérationnaliser le concept sont aussi avancées.

Dans le deuxième chapitre, un modèle conceptuel de la durabilité des entreprises sociales est présenté et testé empiriquement grâce aux données collectées par enquête auprès de 115 entreprises sociales d'intégration au marché du travail (en anglais *WISEs* pour *work-integration social enterprises*) suédoises. Des analyses de régressions multiples montrent que l'intégration précoce de l'orientation sociale au *business model* (imprégnation sociale ou *social imprinting*) ainsi que la force du réseau de partenaires sont positivement reliées à la performance sociale, alors que le bricolage dans la mobilisation des ressources a un effet positif à la fois sur la performance économique et la performance sociale. La performance économique et la performance sociale des entreprises sont aussi positivement corrélées entre elles suggérant que les *WISEs* peuvent réussir à concilier ces deux dimensions.

Finalement, le troisième chapitre propose une analyse qualitative par études de cas basée sur 29 entretiens réalisés avec des dirigeants de WISEs ou leurs parties prenantes dans la région de Scania en Suède. Les analyses font ressortir que les entreprises sociales se caractérisent par une variété de niveaux d'imprégnation sociale, de collaboration et de bricolage social. Le chapitre discute les défis auxquels les entreprises sociales sont confrontées dans la conciliation de leurs objectifs sociaux et économiques, ainsi que les aspects du *business model* qui contribuent le plus à leurs résultats sociaux et économiques. Enfin, le rôle déterminant du secteur public sur la durabilité des entreprises sociales est examiné.

Cette thèse contribue à la recherche sur l'ES en s'attachant à combler des lacunes de la littérature sur les liens entre création de valeur sociale et économique chez les entreprises sociales. Elle met ainsi en avant l'influence de l'imprégnation sociale, du réseau de partenaires, du bricolage social et du secteur public sur leur durabilité et leurs *business models*.

Mots-Clés : *entrepreneuriat social, entreprises sociales, entreprises sociales d'intégration au marché du travail, WISEs, durabilité, business models, création de valeur, performance sociale, performance économique, imprégnation sociale, réseau de partenaires, bricolage social, secteur public, Suède.*

Sustainability of Social Entrepreneurial Business Models

Abstract

The objective of the thesis is to find out the major factors contributing to the sustainability of social enterprise business models. It aims to study whether social enterprises manage to successfully balance social and economic value creation. The thesis addresses the research gaps on the impact of social imprinting, strength of the partner network, social bricolage and public sector on sustainability of social enterprises. The paper-based thesis consists of three papers and uses a mixed methodology combining systematic literature review, quantitative and qualitative studies.

The first chapter describes the nature of social entrepreneurship (SE), comparing it to other types of entrepreneurship and presents the main social entrepreneurial paradigms. Through an analysis of SE typologies, schools of thought and definitional debates, as well as legal differences and national specificities, a definition of social entrepreneurship is proposed from the common core of these approaches. The ways for the operationalization of the definition are also offered.

In the second chapter, a conceptual model of sustainability of social enterprises is introduced and tested on the data collected from 115 Swedish work integration social enterprises (WISEs). Multiple regression analysis of the data suggests that social imprinting and the strength of the partner network have a positive relationship with social performance, whereas social bricolage has a positive impact on both social and economic performance of SEs. The results also show that social and economic performance of social enterprises are positively associated with each other, suggesting that SEs can be successful in both dimensions.

Finally, the third chapter offers a case study analysis covering 29 interviews with Swedish work integration social enterprises and their stakeholders based in the region of Scania, Sweden. Data analysis shows that SEs are characterised with a variety of levels of social imprinting, collaborations and social bricolage. The chapter also discusses the challenges that SEs face in balancing social and economic goals, as well as business model patterns which contribute to their

social and economic outcomes. Lastly, the influential role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises is discussed.

The thesis contributes to the SE literature by studying the gaps in relationship between social and economic value creation among SEs, as well as impact of social imprinting, partner network, social bricolage, and public sector on sustainability of social enterprises and their business models.

Keywords: *social entrepreneurship, social enterprises, work integration social enterprises, WISEs, sustainability, business models, value creation, social performance, economic performance, social imprinting, partner network, social bricolage, public sector, Sweden.*

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List of Articles

N	Title	Author(s)	Journal / Book	Status	Presentation at the conferences
1	International research on social entrepreneurship - looking for an operational definition of the concept	Jamburia Giorgi, Courrent Jean-Marie	Diversity and Entrepreneurship (Eds. V. Ratten and L-P. Dana)	Published (2019)	RENT 2015
2	Understanding social enterprise performance - A business model approach	Jamburia Giorgi, Courrent Jean-Marie	International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business	Accepted (2021)	ICSB 2016
3	Exploring sustainability of social enterprises - A case study of Swedish work integration social enterprises	Jamburia Giorgi	International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management	To be submitted (2021)	-

Introduction

I. Context and Research Problems

The following section first reviews the research problems that exist in the academic literature and then presents the PhD thesis structure according to its chapters.

The scientific literature on entrepreneurship widely discusses value creation by firms (Amit and Han, 2017; Broccardo and Zicari, 2020; Chesbrough et al., 2018; Dyer et al., 2018; Kuckertz et al., 2019; Lieberman et al., 2017; Spieth et al., 2019; Ujwary-Gil, 2017). Although economic value creation may be under primary focus, social and environmental value are considered to be nonetheless important (Svensson et al., 2018; Tate and Bals, 2018). The role of business in society is critically examined, and studies stress the importance of greater responsibility from the enterprises (Hsieh, 2017; Miklian, 2019; Mio et al., 2020; van Zanten and van Tulder, 2018; Ortiz-Avram et al., 2018). The questions concern commercial firms and social enterprises as well as other hybrid forms of organisations (Baudot et al., 2020; Eldar, 2017; Hestad et al., 2021; Maseno and Wanyoike, 2020; Powell et al., 2019).

Social enterprises (SE) are usually described as non-profit private organisations with primary social goals that reinvest their surplus in order to support their main mission (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008; Department of Trade and Industry, 2002). Actually, social enterprises have multiple forms and a diversity of missions and organisational identities, ranging from more non-profit (Defourny et al., 2019) to the ‘profit for purpose’ forms (Agrawal and Gughani, 2014). SEs are seen as enablers of integration in the labour market, social and economic development (Sdrali et al., 2016), social and economic value creation through the innovative solution of social and environmental problems (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; European Commission, 2013, 2015). Social enterprises, and particularly work integration social enterprises, are considered examples of sustainable entrepreneurship and management, since they aim at sustainability of resources, labour and public administration (Baraibar-Diez et al., 2019). The research also focuses on the business models (BM) utilized by these enterprises, aiming to analyze the ways they create, deliver and capture value (Olofsson et al., 2018; Tykkyläinen and Ritala, 2020).

SE is a global phenomenon but the variety of definitions and approaches do not facilitate theory building. Defining social entrepreneurship has been a problematic issue for researchers and practitioners during the last two decades (Alegre et al., 2017; Aliaga-Isla and Huybrechts, 2018; Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016; Forouharfar et al., 2018; Halberstadt and Kraus, 2016; Hossain et al., 2017; Kay et al., 2016; Kee, 2017; Morris et al., 2020; Rey-Martí et al., 2016). Besides the problem of a definition of SE, there is a problem with small sample sizes and small-scale research (Cohen et al., 2019; Sassmannshausen and Volkmann, 2018) which limits the generalisability of the findings to larger groups of organisations and different country contexts (Haugh, 2012). It is argued that a lack of universally agreed definition makes it difficult to conduct quantitative research on social enterprises (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009), particularly based on cross-country surveys. Hence, according to the meta-study of Gupta et al. (2020), the majority of social enterprise studies are qualitative, and a very small number of authors employ quantitative methods, showing that this issue is still remaining.

Understanding whether social enterprises manage to achieve positive results on both social and economic performance is highly important. Several researchers (Demil et al., 2015) maintain that understanding business models, i.e., how SEs create, deliver and capture value (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010) has a large potential for understanding SE performance. Business models are increasingly being discussed in the scientific literature (Spieth et al., 2019; Wirtz et al., 2016a), since organisations try to find new ways of creating value in the modern competitive world. Business models are seen as manipulable instruments that can be used to study different cause-and-effect relationships (Baden-Fuller and Mangematin, 2013), though there is a level of vagueness that makes it difficult to understand the impact of a BM's configuration on firm performance (Klang et al., 2014).

The BM approach has also been largely discussed in the SE literature. SE researchers also outline that there is a lack of studies on BM in social entrepreneurship, especially on BM comparisons (Michelini and Fiorentino, 2012) and their evolution (Zeyen et al., 2013), and they suggest researching the underlying BMs instead of the organization as the central unit of analysis (Santos et al., 2015; Santos, 2012). In this perspective, studying the variables that play an

important role in ensuring a socially and economically sustainable social enterprise is a prospective direction for research.

The link between BMs and performance has not been widely addressed (Eckhardt, 2013; Wirtz et al., 2016a). The performance of BMs must be adequately studied (Wirtz et al., 2016b), as there is a lack of research that classifies the characteristics of BM associating them with specific results. There is also little understanding of the types of dimensions of BM and their configuration possibilities (Eckhardt, 2013). This gap is particularly evident for research on SE business models and their performance. Studying the performance outcomes of various BMs, understanding which BM social enterprises should use, and analyzing how entrepreneurs make social business models efficient are some of the key research questions (Demil et al., 2015). In addition, there is a lack of understanding whether social enterprises manage to achieve sustainability and success in both the social and economic dimensions (Bellostas et al., 2016; Ebrahim et al., 2014; Mongelli et al., 2019; Pirson, 2012; Spieth et al., 2019; Wilson and Post, 2013). Hence, within the framework of the following research sustainability is ‘operationalised’ from the double-bottom line perspective (Emerson and Twersky, 1996), consisting of social and economic sustainability, if not specified otherwise.

PhD Thesis Structure

The aim of the thesis is to find out the major factors influencing the sustainability of social enterprise business models, test the hypotheses on a dataset of social enterprises and understand the reasoning behind these relationships. By sustainability we mean viability, on the one hand and contribution to sustainable development, on the other hand.

The thesis consists of three papers. The first paper aims to find an operational definition of social entrepreneurship (SE) workable for international research. Since we have to conduct research on sustainability of social enterprises, we should first have a definition that could be applied in both qualitative and quantitative studies. The reason is there has been no consensus in the SE literature on the definition of social entrepreneurship, which makes it more difficult to conduct

more quantitative, as well as international studies, and subsequently does not help advance the field.

The objective of the second paper is to introduce a conceptual model of sustainability of social enterprises and test it through the survey of Swedish work integration social enterprises (WISEs). The chapter aims to use a business model approach for studying social enterprise performance. Namely, the effects of social imprinting, strength of the partner network and social bricolage would be studied on social and economic performance of SEs. Interrelationship between social performance and economic performance of SEs is going to be assessed to find out whether SEs manage to be successful in both dimensions. Legitimacy theory, stakeholder theory and resource-based view theory are combined to form a theoretical framework.

Finally, the third paper aims to analyze Swedish WISEs through a qualitative study in order to move beyond the quantitative study and understand the context, reasoning and nuances of sustainability of social enterprises. The study aims to find out how social enterprises are utilizing social imprinting, their partner network and social bricolage for collaborations. In addition, business model patterns contributing to SE sustainability will be researched. Finally, the paper has an objective to study the impact that the public sector has on sustainability of social enterprises.

As the field is characterized with a variety of definitions, we need to decide how we are going to define social entrepreneurship and operationalize the concept in the international context.

Chapter 1

International Research on Social Entrepreneurship - Looking for an Operational Definition of the Concept

Objective

Social entrepreneurship has been characterized with a variety of definitions (Morris et al., 2020) that have made it more difficult to arrive at its converged notion even after two decades of academic debates (Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016). As a result, most of the studies in this field have been of conceptual and qualitative nature (Gupta et al., 2020). Whereas, conducting more quantitative studies would legitimize the research field (Lehner and Kansikas, 2013), it has been problematic due to lack of universal definition (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009). Therefore, the objective of this paper is to find the proper approach to define social entrepreneurship and operationalize it, which would contribute to theory building and facilitate international comparative studies.

Research Questions

- Does the research have to focus on social entrepreneurial processes, social entrepreneurs or social enterprises?
- Can this definition overcome the differences in national representations of SE?
- How could this definition be operationalized through indicators, items, that would be workable both in quantitative and qualitative approaches?

Methodology

The systematic review of scientific literature of the social entrepreneurship field has been used as the primary methodology for the paper. The major articles in the social entrepreneurship area were analyzed to come up with the main directions in defining social entrepreneurship.

Chapter 2

Understanding Social Enterprise Performance - A Business Model Approach

Objective

There has been a wide debate on whether social enterprises manage to be successful both in social and commercial value creation (Bellostas et al., 2016; Mongelli et al., 2019; Spieth et al., 2019). It is argued that understanding business models would contribute to studying social

enterprise performance in more depth (Demil et al., 2015). Therefore, the aim of the paper is to understand the relationship between implementation of business models and performance among social enterprises. Specifically, the role of social imprinting, strength of the partner network and social bricolage in enhancing social and economic performance of SEs will be studied. The paper also aims to shed light on whether social enterprises can be successful in both social and commercial dimensions.

Research Questions

- What are some of the most important factors influencing the sustainability of social enterprises?
- Do the social imprinting, strength of partner network and social bricolage have positive effects on sustainability of social enterprises - their social and economic performance?
- Can social enterprises be successful both in terms of social performance and economic performance?

Methodology

On the one hand, the literature review of scientific literature of the social entrepreneurship field was conducted in order to locate some of the most important factors hypothesized to be influencing the sustainability of social enterprises in order to build a conceptual model. On the other hand, a quantitative study was conducted in the form of a survey addressing the Swedish work integration social enterprises for the purpose of testing the conceptual model. The survey has been sent to more than 350 WISEs located in the database of sofisam.se. 125 responses were received from the work integration social enterprises, out of which 115 is considered useful for model building (108 - fully complete and 7 - partially complete), giving 36% response rate, considered to be above the widely acknowledged 30% threshold. Besides, according to the sample size calculator of surveymokey.com (2018), 108 responses can be considered a minimum sample size for a population of 350. Therefore, the response rate and the number of responses can be evaluated as appropriate for its purpose.

Chapter 3

Exploring sustainability of social enterprises – A Case Study of Swedish Work Integration Social Enterprises

Objective

Following the calls from various researchers (Battilana et al., 2015; Spieth et al., 2019), the objectives of this paper are the following. First, the paper aims to investigate how social enterprises are characterised by social imprinting, collaborations and social bricolage and what role each of these aspects play in achieving social and commercial goals in SEs. It should also be studied which business model patterns help social enterprises achieve balanced social and economic value creation. Finally, because of the importance of the governments in the social enterprise arena, the role of the public sector in sustainability of SEs should be also addressed.

Research Questions

- Do social enterprises utilise social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals, and to what extent?
- Do social enterprises face tensions between social and economic value creation, and what kind of business models help them balance the missions?
- What is the role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises?

Methodology

A qualitative study was conducted in the form of case studies in Sweden on Swedish work integration social enterprises (WISEs) operating in the Scania (Skåne) region and focusing on such issues as work integration of long-term unemployed and migrant population among others, on the one hand and on stakeholders of work integration social enterprises such as government agencies, incubators, municipalities, etc, on the other hand. In total, 29 interviews have been conducted (16 with the founders/managers of WISEs and 13 with SE stakeholders). First, the aim of the paper is to provide possible explanations to the results of quantitative study, where possible. And second, the goal is to move beyond the conceptual model of paper 2 and reveal

some of the important factors that may have a high impact on social enterprises but may not have fallen within the scope of that article.

II. Theoretical Framework

The section presents the theoretical framework mobilized in this thesis and discusses each theory.

The thesis combines multiple theories in forming its theoretical framework, namely, resource-based view theory, stakeholder theory, legitimacy theory and imprinting theory. Resource-based view theory, stakeholder theory and legitimacy theory are used in Paper 2 and Paper 3, while imprinting theory is additionally used in Paper 3. As the Paper 1 is a conceptual paper based on the literature review, it did not particularly employ a specific theory for framing the research. The research questions posed in the second paper invite legitimacy theory, stakeholder theory and the resource-based view theory to respectively study such concepts as social imprinting, strength of the partner network and social bricolage, as well as relationship between social value creation and economic value creation. Paper 3, as mentioned above, additionally utilizes imprinting theory to study the same concepts (social imprinting, partner network, social bricolage), as well as sustainable business models and the impact of the public sector on SEs, as these research questions necessitated application of this theory, in addition.

Resource-based View Theory

Resource-based view (RBV) theory (Barney, 1991) is largely used to analyse social enterprises. Resources are defined by Barney (1991, p.101) as “all assets, capabilities, organizational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, etc. controlled by the firm that enable the firm to conceive and implement strategies that improve its efficiency and effectiveness”. Under the RBV, the firms are considered to be a combination of various types of resources (Chisholm and Nielsen, 2014). In addition, according to Bacq and Eddleston (2018), based on the RBV,

SEs' scale of social impact largely depends on their capabilities to engage stakeholders, attract support from public agencies, and generate earned income. Considering the importance of the social dimension for achieving sustainable value creation, a Social Resource-based view approach is also being proposed (Tate and Bals, 2018).

From this perspective, resource-based view (RBV) theory (Barney, 1991) can be considered to be an important prism for understanding social enterprises. Following the RBV theory that focuses on internal resources (Ndubisi et al., 2014), such concepts as resourcefulness, bricolage (Baker and Nelson, 2005) and social bricolage (Di Domenico et al., 2010) seem to be appropriate for analysing social enterprises (Akingbola, 2013; Lin and Nabergoj, 2014).

Stakeholder Theory

Freeman (1994) defines stakeholders as 'any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose' (p.148). Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994) provides an important perspective for shaping the appropriate theoretical framework for social enterprises. There are several researchers who advocate for using it for studying SEs (Burga and Rezania, 2016; Griffith, 2009; Huybrechts et al., 2014; Mason et al., 2007; Sarman et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2013). Stakeholder theory is, for example, used to understand the SE governance structures (Huybrechts et al., 2014; Mason et al., 2017) and accountability practices (Sarman et al., 2015); and it is also proposed to analyse the tensions in social enterprises (Smith et al., 2013).

The role of stakeholders is highlighted for social enterprises (Gras et al., 2011; Hill et al., 2010; Zeyen et al., 2013) since stakeholders are more important for SEs, as stakeholders rather than shareholders influence accountability practices in SEs (Sarman et al., 2015). Social enterprises interact with multiple stakeholders, and their success largely depends on successful collaboration with them, as well as on the combination of the knowledge with the expertise of stakeholders (London, 2008).

It is argued that stakeholders should manage to balance their time and resources that have to be allocated for their key stakeholders (Burga and Rezania, 2016). Although, some scholars provide a counter position that while taking into account double, triple or multiple- bottom lines, SEs have to prioritise interests of some stakeholders and pay less attention to the others (Griffith, 2009).

The importance of stakeholders leads to an argument that partners, which are one of the key possible stakeholders, and the strength of the partner network is an important direction for investigation of social enterprises.

Legitimacy Theory

The legitimacy theory is suitable for analysing social enterprises. Use of different types of legitimacy has its underlying reasons. For instance, acquisition of pragmatic legitimacy is important not to exclude organisation from the possible benefits; moral legitimacy is borrowed when it is perceived that non-conforming behavior would be considered wrong; while in case of cognitive legitimacy, not conforming is viewed as unthinkable (Huybrechts et al., 2014). Social enterprises employ different practices to attract the required support, relationships and investments (Sarpong and Davies, 2014). SEs gain moral and pragmatic legitimacy from their institutional context (Bolzani et al., 2020) which they use to justify collaborations (Huybrechts and Nicholls, 2013). Following Suchman's (1995) typology of legitimacy, Dart (2004) argues that moral legitimacy connects the emergence of SEs to more neoconservative, right-wing, and market-oriented political and ideological value systems. SEs are also observed to be using organizational legitimacy (Bolzani et al, 2020; Luke et al., 2013), which they gain from both the public and private sectors (Blessing, 2015). According to Kuosmanen (2014), WISEs borrow legitimacy-gaining practices from commercial ventures and utilize a variety of forms of legitimacy, such as pragmatic exchange and normative, cognitive and relational legitimacy, in different settings. In this perspective, studying legitimacy-seeking behavior of social enterprises seems to be a prospective area of research.

Imprinting Theory

An imprinting concept has been initially offered in the Organization theory (Stinchcombe, 1965). Organisation theory is rather an umbrella concept for multiple theories of organisation that try to explain and predict how organisations behave in different circumstances (Shafritz et al., 2016). Several authors suggest using Organisation theory for analysing social enterprises (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Battilana et al., 2015; Laville and Lemaître, 2007; Tandon, 2014). However, imprinting theory has been established as a separate theory as well (Moroz et al., 2018).

Social enterprise founders could be inheriting social or economic imprints from their previous workplaces and interactions with the external environment (Lee and Battilana, 2013). It is suggested that imprinting from for-profit experiences is usually stronger (Lee and Battilana, 2013).

From legitimacy and imprinting theory perspectives, social imprinting (Battilana et al., 2015), i.e., an initial focus on a predominant logic (Bauwens et al., 2020) of a social dimension can be considered an important concept for understanding social enterprises and addressing the factors that may have an effect on the sustainability of social enterprises.

III. Research Objectives

Overall, the main primary interest is finding an operational definition of social entrepreneurship, to allow conducting qualitative and quantitative studies in different national contexts. Another central theoretical interest is studying the importance of such variables as social imprinting (Battilana et al., 2015), strength of the partner network (Weber and Kratzer, 2013) and social bricolage (Di Domenico et al., 2010) for the SE sustainability. The academic debate on whether social enterprises manage to be successful in social and economic dimensions (Bellostas et al., 2016; Cho and Kim, 2017; Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019; Pirson, 2012) and what helps them in this regard. Lastly, addressing the call on studying the influence of the

government on SEs social and economic outcomes (Battilana et al., 2015) is one more theoretical interest.

When it comes to methodological interests, the thesis aims to approach the research questions using a mixed methodology, namely, using systematic literature review, quantitative study in the form of survey questionnaire and qualitative study in the form of a case study. Besides, the thesis aims to adapt some of the scales in order to arrive at the operationalized concepts of social imprinting (Lepoutre et al., 2013), strength of the partner network (Weber and Kratzer, 2013), social bricolage (Di Domenico et al., 2010; Kickul et al., 2018; Senyard et al., 2014), as well as social performance and economic performance of SEs (Choi, 2015; Liu et al., 2015).

Finally, the practical interests include studying how social orientation of SEs helps them acquire legitimacy and achieve better social and financial results. It is also a subject of interest whether partnerships are important for SE sustainability. In addition, it should be studied whether SEs can contribute to their social and economic goals by creative combination of discarded resources and generally, social bricolage processes. We should also know whether SEs should aim at achieving both social and financial goals, or develop single-value creation processes. In addition, studying patterns of sustainable business models is another practical interest. Finally, we need to know the extent of influence of governmental policies on SE operations in order to help avoid risks.

IV. Methodology

The methodology section first presents the epistemological positions, then reviews the data collection and methodology issues per each chapter and finally, presents methodological complementarity aspects.

4.1 Epistemological positions

Yin (2011, p.309) defines epistemology as “the philosophical underpinnings of researchers’ beliefs regarding the nature of knowledge and how it is derived or created. The particular belief represents a person’s epistemological position.”

The main epistemological positions are positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2009) Positivism mimics the natural methods studies and is characterized by the following principles: phenomenism, deductivism, inductivism, objectivism, science being conducted in an objective way and a distinction between scientific and normative statements (Bryman, 2012). Positivism is related to realism, with which it shares a belief that natural and social sciences should share data collection and interpretation basics, and a belief about the existence of an external reality. Empirical realism and critical realism are two forms of realism (Bryman, 2012). When it comes to interpretivism, it proposes an alternative approach to positivism. Interpretivism attempts to understand subjective meanings of social action. Its decentent approaches include: Weber’s (1947) notion of Verstehen, the hermeneutic-phenomenological tradition, and symbolic interactionism. Finally, pragmatism provides more of a mixed approach to the above-mentioned approaches and accepts to study both observable phenomena and subjective meanings, depending on the research questions (Saunders et al., 2009).

Additionally, ontological considerations are focusing on the nature of social entities, on understanding whether they should be considered objective entities which have an external reality or as social constructions built from the perceptions and actions of the actors (Bryman, 2012). Thus, objectivism and subjectivism, often referred to as social constructionism, are the major ontological views (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2009).

In a similar manner, Creswell (2009) presents four worldviews by combining epistemologies and ontologies: positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory and pragmatism.

Finally, Saunders et al. (2009, p.150) summarize positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism in the following table:

	Positivism	Realism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Ontology	External, objective and independent of social actors	Is objective. Exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence (realist), but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple	External, multiple, view chosen to best enable answering of research question
Epistemology	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements	Observable phenomena provide credible data, facts. Insufficient data means inaccuracies in sensations (direct realism). Alternatively, phenomena create sensations which are open to misinterpretation (critical realism). Focus on explaining within a context or	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different

		contexts		perspectives to help interpret the data
Data collection techniques most often used	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative	Methods chosen must fit the subject matter, quantitative or qualitative	Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative	Mixed or multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative

Table 1. The main epistemological approaches (Saunders et al., 2019, p.150)

In the thesis, considering the research questions, we follow the epistemological position of pragmatism, since it allows us to choose an appropriate view for studying different types of research questions. In our case, it enables us to select mixed/multiple method design, combining quantitative and qualitative studies. The concepts that have been mobilized as a part of this thesis are the following: social imprinting, strength of the partner network, social bricolage, social performance and economic performance among others. In order to study what are the roles of social imprinting, partner network strength and social bricolage on sustainability of SEs, that is mainly operationalized through social performance and economic performance, we need to conduct a mixed/multiple methods study, for the data collected through questionnaire survey to complemented with the data collected through the case study method and semi-structured interviews. Therefore, the epistemological position of pragmatism seems to be the most appropriate selection for this thesis.

4.2 Data Collection and Methodology

In this section, we present data collection and methodology approaches employed in each chapter of the thesis.

4.2.1 First Chapter - Systematic Literature Review

The first chapter employs the systematic literature review approach. Social entrepreneurship definitions in the meta-studies in several top journals have been studied in order to outline different dimensions, typologies, schools of thought and a variety of definitions.

As Greenhalgh (1997, p.672) states, “a systematic review is an overview of primary studies that used explicit and reproducible methods”. As the author argues, it is a suitable method since the conclusions are more accurate and reliable, and large data can be accessed quickly (Greenhalgh, 1997). Besides, systematic review is characterized by the development of clear aims for the literature review, search of all potentially relevant articles, use of assessment criteria for the selection of articles, etc. (Denyer and Neely, 2004; Saunders et al., 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003). However, it is similarly difficult to implement because of the comprehensiveness of the approach.

4.2.2 Second Chapter - Quantitative Study

Data Collection

A quantitative method was selected in order to address the hypotheses proposed in this chapter to respond to the gaps in the scientific literature and validate the hypotheses. A survey questionnaire was developed to test the conceptual model and the respective hypotheses; the survey was administered and responses were collected. The data were collected on work integration social enterprises in Sweden, as it is one of the countries where the social enterprise sector has become quite active (Alamaa, 2014). Approximately 350 work integration social enterprises that were recorded on the sofisam.se database were addressed via an online

questionnaire hosted on the SurveyMonkey platform. A total of 125 unique responses were received that represented a 36% response rate - a higher figure than the widely accepted 30% threshold (Sheikh and Mattingly, 1981; Sitzia and Wood, 1998). Out of these records, 115 responses were valid for a full model testing. Data was cleaned before being analyzed in IBM SPSS Statistics 25. Multiple regression analysis was used to generate and evaluate the models.

Descriptive Analysis

The sample can be considered to have a good quality as it is largely representative of the different legal forms that SEs employ and regions where they are located. The following tables describe the sample of the WISEs that have filled in the questionnaire.

SEs studied within the quantitative study mainly represent the economic association form (64%), followed by non-profit association (16%) and limited company (10%) forms.

Legal Form	Number	Percentage
Economic association	74	64%
Non-profit association	18	16%
Limited Company	12	10%
Limited company with limited profit distribution	5	4%
Other	4	3%
Foundation	2	2%
	115	

Table 2. Legal form of the social enterprise

As of 2013, the most widespread form of WISEs was economic association (62%), followed by non-profit association (29%) and limited company (8%) (sofisam, 2012). Considering the changes by 2018, the sample seems to be representative of the total population.

Half of the social enterprises surveyed have been running for 3-7 years.

Age	Number	Percentage
28+	3	3%
18-27	13	11%
8-17	24	21%
3-7	57	50%
0-2	18	16%
	115	

Table 3. Firm age

Age	Number	Percentage
28+	3	4%
18-27	12	15%
8-17	14	17%
3-7	36	44%
0-2	17	21%
	82	

Table 4. Years after receiving initial funding

Most of the social enterprises have been founded by 2-3 (38%) and 4-5 (29%) persons.

No. Founders	Number	Percentage
1	11	9%
2-3	46	38%
4-5	35	29%
6-10	21	17%
10+	6	5%
Other	2	2%
	121	

Table 5. Number of founders

When it comes to the number of employees, 28% of the SEs have 1-5 employees, 30% of SEs employ 6-10 people, while 23% have 11-20 employees.

No. Employees	Number	Percentage
0	4	3%
1-5	32	28%
6-10	35	30%
11-20	26	23%
21-30	10	9%
30+	8	7%
	115	

Table 6. Number of employees (not including those seeking work / integrated in the labor market)

Majority of WISEs have no volunteers (46%). 23% of SEs have 1-2 volunteers, while 3-5 people volunteer in 20% of the cases.

No.Volunteers	Number	Percentage
0	56	46%
1-2	28	23%
3-5	25	20%
6-10	7	6%
10+	7	6%
	123	

Table 7. Number of volunteers

No.part-time	Number	Percentage
0	20	16%
1-2	27	22%
3-5	41	33%

6-10	20	16%
11-20	8	7%
20+	7	6%
	123	

Table 8. Number of part-time employees

When it comes to work trainees, 40% of the SEs have 1-5 work trainees, while 6-10 people train in 18% of the enterprises.

No.trainees	Number	Percentage
0	19	15%
1-5	49	40%
6-10	22	18%
11-20	15	12%
21-50	10	8%
50+	8	7%
	123	

Table 9. Number of work trainees

In 33% of the cases, 1-5 people have continued work at the SE after the work training, while in 32% of the cases 6-10 people advanced to the work from the traineeship at the WISE.

No.former trainees	Number	Percentage
0	5	4%
1-5	39	33%
6-10	38	32%
11-20	20	17%
21-50	14	12%

50+	3	3%
	119	

Table 10. Number of former work trainees working in the enterprise

Skåne (18%), Västra Götaland (13%), Stockholm (10%) and Västerbotten (10%) are the most highly represented counties of Sweden.

Region	Number	Percentage
Blekinge	5	4%
Dalarna	4	3%
Gotland	3	3%
Gävleborg	7	6%
Halland	4	3%
Jämtland	3	3%
Jönköping	6	5%
Kalmar	5	4%
Kronoberg	5	4%
Norrbottn	4	3%
Skåne	21	18%
Stockholm	12	10%
Södermanland	2	2%
Uppsala	4	3%
Värmland	5	4%
Västerbotten	11	10%
Västernorrland	3	3%
Västmanland	3	3%
Västra Götaland	15	13%
Örebro	6	5%
Östergötland	2	2%

Table 11. Geographical distribution

To note, Table 12 presents the geographical distribution of the whole population of social enterprises located on sofisam.se.

Region	Number	Percentage
Blekinge	12	3%
Dalarna	16	5%
Gävleborg	23	7%
Gotland	7	2%
Halland	9	3%
Jämtland	6	2%
Jönköping	8	2%
Kalmar	6	2%
Kronoberg	13	4%
Norrbotten	14	4%
Örebro	10	3%
Östergötlands	14	4%
Skåne	27	8%
Södermanland	6	2%
Stockholm	49	14%
Uppsala	15	4%
Värmland	10	3%
Västerbotten	10	3%
Västernorrland	19	5%
Västmanland	6	2%
Västra Götaland	72	20%

Total	352	100%
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Table 12. Geographical distribution of original population

Tables 10 and 11 show that the sample is a good representation of the population, as it represents most of the regions proportionally.

Some of the most active economic areas are the following: store (47%); cafe, restaurant, hotel, conference (43%); recycling (31%); property management, construction (30%); cultivation, gardening (30%), Crafts, art (29%) and Household services (29%).

Sector	Number	Percentage
Car and bicycle repair	18	16%
Store	54	47%
Cafe, restaurant, hotel, conference	49	43%
Property management, construction	35	30%
Crafts, art	33	29%
Animal care	12	10%
Household services	30	26%
Information, communication, education	21	18%
Office service	14	12%
Culture, entertainment, leisure	19	17%
Contract work	22	19%
Cultivation, gardening	35	30%
Staffing	13	11%
Transport	14	12%
Tourism	7	6%
Recycling	36	31%
Other service	29	25%

Table 13. Sectoral distribution

4.2.3 Third Chapter - Qualitative Study

Case study approach has been selected to address the research questions posed in the paper. Following Yin (2003, 2014), work integration social enterprises were selected as a case of SEs within the framework of the research, to study different phenomena through in-depth interviews.

Data Collection

In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted in a period from May to November 2018. The founders and/or managers of WISEs in Scania, Sweden which represented SEs of different legal forms and areas of work were interviewed. Additionally, SE stakeholders in Scania which represented different entities such as public agencies, municipalities, universities, social incubators and network organizations among others, have been interviewed. 16 WISE founders and/or managers and 13 SE stakeholders have been interviewed. 27 interviews were conducted face-by-face, while the remaining two interviews were conducted through the video and phone calls with the stakeholders based outside the Scania region (in Gothenburg and Stockholm, respectively). Finally, the recordings were transcribed using Trint, an audio transcription software and additionally, by manual transcription. The questions which were in line to the research questions presented in the introduction section were discussed during the interviews.

Data Analysis

Within-case and cross-case analysis were conducted. Within-case analysis ensured to study the processes and connections among different phenomena for particular cases. Through cross-cases analysis, it was made possible to see the common patterns, as well as varieties across the cases. Coding was done to quantify and categorize the data. Both pre-determined and emergent coding was done. NVivo 12 Software was used for coding the themes and the respective sub-themes.

4.3 Methodological Complementarity

Once we had an operational definition of social entrepreneurship valid in an international context both for quantitative and qualitative studies, as a result of Chapter 1, we were able to look for some of the key factors influencing social enterprise sustainability. The mixed methodology was utilized for the empirical part of the thesis. As the social entrepreneurship research field is in the intermediate stage of development, it is advised to conduct mixed studies in order to leverage the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Edmondson and McManus, 2007). The studies were conducted in parallel. The importance of both studies can be considered equal, from the point of view of the research questions. Thus, in a mixed methods research of an equal weight priority and concurrent sequence (Bryman, 2012), the role of a quantitative study was to test the conceptual model introduced in the beginning of Chapter 2, while the role of the qualitative study was to go beyond the quantitative relationships and understand the reasoning and context for sustainability of social enterprises in the Chapter 3.

V. Organization of the PhD Research

The doctoral research findings have been presented at such conferences and doctoral seminars as the RENT XXIX Conference and its Doctoral Workshop held on November 18-20, 2015 in Zagreb, Croatia; as well as ICSB 61st World Conference and its Doctoral Consortium held on June 15-18, 2016, in New Jersey/New York, USA. Besides, I have participated in EMES 5th International PhD Summer School held on June 22-25, 2016 in Glasgow, Scotland, UK, organized for PhD students working on social enterprises, social entrepreneurship, and social and solidarity economy. Lastly, I have presented my research at the Scientific Workshop of the Social Innovation Summit held on November 13-14, 2018 in Malmö, Sweden.

The following publications have been presented at the above-mentioned conferences:

- Jamburia, G. & Courrent, J-M. (2016). Measuring Social Enterprise Performance - A Business Model Approach. Developmental Papers. ICSB 61 st World Conference, June 15-18, 2016, New Jersey / New York, USA

- Jamburia, G. & Courrent, J-M. (2015). International Research on Social Entrepreneurship: Looking for an Operational Definition of the Concept. RENT XXIX Conference, November 18-20, 2015, Zagreb, Croatia

The empirical studies have been conducted in Sweden. The qualitative study was conducted from May to November 2018, while the quantitative study, in the form of a survey, was run in October-December 2018.

VI. Thesis Structure

Following the Introduction section, the thesis is organized in 4 parts: the first chapter of the thesis consists of the first article of the dissertation; the second chapter corresponds to the second paper of the thesis; while the third chapter contains the final article. Finally, the fourth part of the thesis is the General Discussion and Conclusion part.

Chapitre 1

La recherche internationale sur l'Entrepreneuriat social : A la recherche d'une définition opérationnelle du concept

Résumé

L'objectif principal du papier est de trouver les moyens de faciliter les études comparatives internationales dans le domaine de l'entrepreneuriat social (ES). Comme les définitions de l'ES diffèrent selon les pays, il est assez difficile de mener des études statistiques valides sur ce secteur.

En conséquence de quoi, ces études sont généralement réalisées sur des échantillons de petites tailles, ce qui limite la généralisabilité des résultats obtenus.

A partir d'une analyse systématique de la littérature, ce papier tente ainsi de résoudre ces obstacles théoriques et méthodologiques.

Dans un premier temps, la nature de l'ES est décrite et comparée aux autres types d'entrepreneuriat. Puis, les grands paradigmes existants dans le champ de l'ES sont présentés.

Ces sections sont ensuite suivies par une analyse de l'hétérogénéité des conceptions de l'ES en distinguant les différences juridiques liées aux politiques publiques, et les différences conceptuelles issues du débat académique.

Finalement, une définition unificatrice est proposée à partir du socle commun de ces approches.

Mots-Clés : *entrepreneuriat social ; entreprises sociales ; entrepreneur social ; recherche internationale ; définition opérationnelle.*

Chapter 1

International research on social entrepreneurship: Looking for an operational definition of the concept

Giorgi JAMBURIA¹ & Jean-Marie COURRENT²

Abstract

The main objective of the paper is to find out the ways that facilitate international comparative studies in the field of social entrepreneurship (SE). As the definition of SE differs according to the country, it is quite difficult to conduct a valid statistical research in this area. Furthermore, as a corollary, that research is usually carried out on small sample sizes, which limits the generalisability of the findings. Thus, the aim of this paper is to address both these theoretical and methodological issues, from a systematic analysis of academic literature.

The paper first describes the nature of SE in comparison to other types of entrepreneurship. Next, existing social entrepreneurial paradigms are presented. The sections are followed by the analysis of heterogeneity of the conceptions by distinguishing the legal differences relating to public policies, and the conceptual differences relating to academic debates. Finally, a common definition is proposed from the common core of these approaches.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship; social enterprises; social entrepreneur; international research; operational definition.

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1. Introduction

Social entrepreneurship (SE) has been quite often regarded as a field in a pre-paradigmatic state (Nicholls, 2010). Certain leitmotif of skepticism has also been noticed about the legitimacy of SE as a separate and distinctive area of research (Trexler, 2008). Though, some researchers argue that SE is emerging from this pre-paradigmatic condition of the field development (Kay et al., 2016). Social enterprises are important in several terms. First, they usually employee underserved segments of society. Second, they innovate to create new goods and services to tackle pressing social and environmental problems. Third, they create social capital. Finally, they contribute to the equality around the world (Nagler, 2007). According to Bacq and Janssen (2011), SE has a unique objective of creation of a double - social and economic – value through the innovative solution of social problems.

SE is a worldwide phenomenon but the variety in definition and approach does not facilitate theory building and international comparative studies in the field. Defining SE and social enterprises has been a problematic issue for researchers and practitioners for the last two decades and still the problem remains actual (Choi and Majumdar, 2014; Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016; Halberstadt and Kraus, 2016; Hossain et al., 2016; Kay et al., 2016; Kee, 2017; Rey-Martí et al., 2016; Scheuerle et al., 2015; Young and Lecy, 2014). The paper of Kraus et al. (2014), based on the bibliometric citation analysis, outlines that definitions and conceptual approaches represent one of the five major topic clusters in SE literature. Peattie and Morley (2008) note that there is a problem of a definition of SE, as well as small sample sizes and small-scale research. It is argued that a lack of universally agreed definition makes it difficult to conduct quantitative research on social enterprises (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009), particularly based on cross-country surveys. Furthermore, as a corollary, that research is usually carried out on small sample sizes, which limits the generalisability of the findings.

Furthermore, SE research is mostly ‘phenomenon-driven’ and built up on specific case studies (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Mair and Marti, 2006). In addition, the focus of the research has been on personality traits of the social entrepreneurs. However, the researchers claim that studying a set of activities that form SE as a process can be a more productive approach (Mair and Marti, 2006). Several authors also see location of SE in only economic or business fields as one of the

possible limitations in the SE research and assert that such approaches may affect the broader understanding of the phenomenon (Nicholls and Cho, 2006). It is also notable that most of the researchers of SE are entrepreneurship scholars and therefore, use respective theories of their field, while applying a more multidisciplinary perspective could be more useful for SE research (Lehner and Kansikas, 2013).

Lehner and Kansikas (2013) conducted a systematic literature review to determine the current status and tendencies that characterise the research field. The authors have found out that research methodology and paradigms in SE literature are different from commercial entrepreneurship ones. As the percentage of conceptual publications is quite high and the majority of the authors use qualitative methods instead of quantitative and mixed ones, the authors who had performed systematic bibliometric analyses conclude that the SE research is still in its initial stages and more quantitative studies have to be conducted in order to contribute to the legitimacy of the research field (Granados et al., 2011; Lehner and Kansikas, 2013; Short et al., 2009).

Similarly, Haugh (2012) suggests that generalisability of findings to a larger number of organisations and different country contexts will be a valuable contribution to the field. Thus, the aim of this paper is to address both these theoretical and methodological issues, from a systematic analysis of academic literature. We can suggest that the major underlying problem behind most of the difficulties in SE research is a lack of operating definition of the field. Therefore, in order to achieve an inclusive definition of SE relevant for theory building and international research projects, this paper has three objectives, related to three main questions:

- Does the research have to focus on social entrepreneurial processes, social entrepreneurs or social enterprises?
- Can this definition overcome the differences in national representations of SE?
- How this definition could be operationalised through indicators, items, that would be workable both in quantitative and qualitative approaches?

The paper will first cover the nature of SE as opposed to other types of entrepreneurship. Next, several SE paradigms will be presented. The section will be followed by the analysis of

heterogeneity of the conceptions by distinguishing the legal differences relating to public policies, and the conceptual differences relating to academic debates. Finally, a common definition will be proposed from the common core of these approaches.

2. The Nature of Social Entrepreneurship

In order to define SE, first of all, we have to see the commonalities and differences with entrepreneurship, a field that “seeks to understand how opportunities to bring into existence “future” goods and services are discovered, created, and exploited, by whom, and with what consequences” [Venkataraman, (1997), p.120]. Furthermore, an entrepreneur is characterised as an innovator implementing an entrepreneurial change (Schumpeter, 1934). Meanwhile, Hill et al. (2010, p.21) define SE as “a disciplined, innovative, risk tolerant entrepreneurial process of opportunity recognition and resource assembly directed toward creating social value by changing underlying social and economic structures”. Thus, as we see, SE shares some of the major characteristics of entrepreneurship such as innovativeness, risk taking, opportunity recognition and resource endowment. Halberstadt and Kraus (2016) also find out that social and commercial entrepreneurship are highly interrelated concepts and cannot be considered distinct fields.

Sustainable, Environmental and Institutional Entrepreneurship. To formulate a clear operating definition of social entrepreneurship, it may be argued that we also must consider the related sustainability focused fields such as sustainable entrepreneurship, environmental entrepreneurship and institutional entrepreneurship, since there are certain common aspects among the areas. For instance, sustainable entrepreneurship has a description similar to the social entrepreneurship one, being defined as a field “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” [Shepherd and Patzelt, (2011), p.142]. However, there are still observable differences. To illustrate, social entrepreneurship is focused on achieving social goals and securing its funding; environmental entrepreneurs are focused on creating economic and ecological values; sustainable entrepreneurs

are oriented towards a triple bottom line, thus creating social, environmental and economic values and finally, institutional entrepreneurship aims to change existing institutions or create new ones (Schaltegger and Wagner, 2011; Thompson et al., 2011).

Schaltegger and Wagner (2011) suggest that despite the differences, all these fields can be considered under the same umbrella. Furthermore, social, environmental and institutional types of entrepreneurship can be included in the sub-domain of sustainable entrepreneurship. Although, the historical development paths of these fields are different from one another, underlying motivations are similar and therefore, authors call for converging the rather independent literatures. Dean and McMullen (2007) suggest that sustainable entrepreneurship can be considered a subset of social entrepreneurship. However, Thompson et al. (2011, p.211) disagree since social entrepreneurship focuses on resolving social issues while sustainable entrepreneurship is aimed towards “balancing social, economic, and environmental benefits in their venture”. Several sustainable enterprises may intend to solve social issues, though it is not regarded as their only concentration. There are several characteristics that make social entrepreneurship different from sustainable entrepreneurship. First, social entrepreneurs are trying to find alternative ways to accomplish positive social goals, namely, “social intrapreneurship, community-based enterprises, and non-profit organizations” [Thompson et al., (2011), p.205]. Next, altruistic motivation is common in this sub-field of entrepreneurship. And finally, social ventures prioritise social agenda over financial goals (Thompson et al., 2011).

Likewise, social entrepreneurship should not be considered a part of the sustainable entrepreneurship field since not all social missions are sustainable. For example, some social enterprises may struggle financially with the will to achieve their primary social mission. Furthermore, social ventures may be driven by altruistic motivations. And finally, they may focus more on social benefits than on other competing dimensions. All in all, in such cases, social enterprises may not belong to the sustainable entrepreneurship domain. Moreover, a ‘whole enterprise design’ that is the foundation of sustainable entrepreneurship suggests that the focus must be placed on long-term goals rather than short-term ones. However, it may not always be the case for social entrepreneurs (Thompson et al., 2011). Furthermore, economic gains are stated to be the main motivation for opportunity recognition in sustainable

entrepreneurship, as motivations coming from altruistic views for society and environment will not be effective since institutional changes require proper financing. Thus, we can see the difference from social entrepreneurship where economic motivations are not primary (Pacheco et al., 2010).

Consequently, in this section we will focus on the aspects that make SE different or like the general entrepreneurship domain. In order to demonstrate the nature of social entrepreneurship, we are going to structure our discussion around the four main paradigms of entrepreneurship: value creation, business opportunity, innovation and organisation building.

Value Creation

Entrepreneurial process involves value creation, value delivery and value capture (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010). In commercial context it may be more appropriate to use the concepts of value creation and value capture; however, in SE the focus is mostly on value creation as the market exchange of the value would not be an accurate measure of the social value (Ormiston and Seymour, 2011). It is also noteworthy that social entrepreneurs find it more difficult to capture the value created since they may be targeting the very basic needs of underprivileged groups who have tremendously limited purchasing power (Mair and Marti, 2006). The main distinctive factor between SE and entrepreneurship is that the concept of wealth is broadened and includes social value (Hill et al., 2010) that is the defining characteristic of SE (Di Domenico et al., 2010) and can be described as what “benefits people whose urgent and reasonable needs are not being met by other means” [Young, (2006), p.56].

Nevertheless, commercial entrepreneurship also has an indirect social impact such as economic growth, employment and reduction of poverty, though created social value can be considered a ‘by-product’ of economic value creation (Ormiston and Seymour, 2011). Some researchers also argue that social nature of opportunities influences the entrepreneurial process and creates social value in different forms such as self-realisation, community development and broader social impact (Korsgaard and Anderson, 2011). In this regard, several authors suggest that there should not be made distinctions between economic and social values (Lautermann, 2013; Santos, 2012).

As Santos (2012) notes, economic value creation improves the welfare of society. Furthermore, regarding social value creation as non-measurable makes the theory development more difficult. Finally, defining certain types of value creation as ‘social’ is subjective and relative to the researcher. The author argues that the main distinction from commercial entrepreneurship is between value creation and value capture and therefore, it is the trade-off between the two that matters. According to the researcher, social entrepreneurs mainly operate in the areas characterised with high levels of value creation and low levels of value capture.

Although, social entrepreneurship involves both social and economic aspects, the focus is still on social value creation, whereas economic value creation is regarded as a necessity for achieving financial self-sufficiency while commercial entrepreneurship posits economic value creation as its main goal (Mair and Marti, 2006; Ormiston and Seymour, 2011). Prioritising social value creation is embedded in the organisational mission of social enterprises. Neck et al. (2009) propose the venture typology by the combination of mission and primary market impact and argue that although, primary impact of the venture may involve positive social consequences, still a primary social mission is what qualifies a venture as a social enterprise, even though, hybrid forms do also exist. However, Mueller et al. (2011) underline that the social enterprises should not be considered superior to commercial enterprises in terms of social value creation. In certain situations, social venture initiatives may be unintentionally harmful while commercial enterprises can be contributing to social development. The authors suggest that social entrepreneurship research may benefit from the case studies that focus on how traditional commercial enterprises succeed or fail in creation of a social value.

Dees (1998) claims that a profit motive is not a necessary precondition for social entrepreneurial pursuits. Therefore, it is another original characteristic of social entrepreneurs. Thompson et al. (2011) suggest that most economic models that are designed to study entrepreneurship do not take into consideration such kind of motives and intentions. Therefore, researchers have problems in comparing SE to commercial entrepreneurship. However, when it comes to the distinction of SE from a larger entrepreneurship domain, Mair and Marti (2006) argue that it is not about profit motive versus altruism. On the one hand, social entrepreneurship may be based on non-altruistic drivers such as personal fulfilment. On the other hand, commercial

entrepreneurship can also have significant social aspects. The researchers agree that what distinguishes social entrepreneurship is its creative combination of resources that are used to address social problems and change existing social structures.

Furthermore, simultaneous aim of social and economic value creation can be a source of tensions for social enterprises (Austin et al., 2006). Although, social entrepreneurs do not always have to face a trade-off between social and economic goals, as financial returns may be necessary for further social value creation, still there is an existing dilemma of balancing these two missions (Bosma et al., 2016; Santos, 2012). Some researchers state that social enterprises can successfully balance both missions and be successful in social and economic value creation (Bellostas et al., 2016; Teasdale, 2012; Wilson and Post, 2013), while other authors cast doubt on this opinion and approach SE from a single value creation perspective (Pirson, 2012, Stevens et al., 2015, Thompson and Doherty, 2006). Therefore, performance measurement becomes a clear challenge for social enterprises. While commercial ventures have clear measurable indicators such as financial ratios, market share, etc., it is not the case for social enterprises since the field involves the element of social value creation that is not always easily quantifiable (Austin et al., 2006; Certo and Miller, 2008).

In conclusion, it is the consideration of social value creation as a central goal in social entrepreneurship that distinguishes SE from commercial entrepreneurship.

Business Opportunity

Opportunity is a central concept in entrepreneurship. There is a critical mass of literature on opportunities in the scientific field of entrepreneurship (Short et al., 2010). Schumpeter (1934) proposes a process of ‘creative destruction’ where new opportunities replace existing ones. Meanwhile, Kirzner (1973) views entrepreneurs as agents with special alertness to opportunities that can address inefficiencies on the market. Short et al. (2010, p.55) define an opportunity as “an idea or dream that is discovered or created by an entrepreneurial entity and that is revealed through analysis over time to be potentially lucrative.”

Austin et al. (2006) note that the main distinctive factor between commercial and social entrepreneurship is the type of opportunities: while market failures can be a danger to commercial enterprises, social entrepreneurs may view market failures as opportunities. Although, traditional entrepreneurs may also consider certain market failures opportunities, social entrepreneurs usually address neglected problems with positive externalities, frequently dealing with local issues and powerless segments of society through building sustainable solutions based on empowerment logic rather than seeking for sustainable advantages based on logic of control (Santos, 2012). However, it does not mean that all kind of social problems can be solved by social entrepreneurs (Mueller et al., 2011). Neck et al. (2009, p.15) also agree that what distinguish social entrepreneurship from traditional entrepreneurship are “sources of opportunity and the founding mission”. As the researchers argue, such social issues as health, education, poverty alleviation, water, energy and environment represent a natural domain for SE. Furthermore, the embedded social mission makes SE unique in this regard.

Korsgaard (2011) notes that, in contrast to commercial entrepreneurship, SE is characterised more with opportunity creation rather than with opportunity discovery. Moreover, there is no evidence in SE that opportunity discovery precedes resource mobilisation. On the contrary, resource mobilisation in certain cases is a predecessor to the opportunity discovery process. Similar viewpoint is shared by Corner and Ho (2010) who argue that the opportunity recognition process in social entrepreneurship is not like the one in commercial entrepreneurship that follows the traditional process of ‘opportunity identification and exploitation’ and is more recursive. However, there is a contrasting view that opportunity recognition in social entrepreneurship cannot be regarded as a part of only discovery or creative views as both approaches characterise the process in SE (Lehner and Kansikas, 2012; Short et al., 2010).

Furthermore, Zahra et al. (2008) distinguish the following attributes of social entrepreneurship opportunity recognition: pervasiveness, relevance, social urgency, accessibility to others and radicalness of solution sought. As the authors conclude, while relevance of opportunities is also integral to commercial entrepreneurship, pervasiveness and social urgency may or may not be a characteristic of opportunities in more business-oriented entrepreneurship and accessibility to others and radicalness of solution sought are more common in social entrepreneurship.

However, it is notable that the specificity of SE relies more on the nature of the opportunity, rather than the opportunity recognition process. As Lehner and Kansikas (2012) argue, opportunity recognition in SE is different from the main entrepreneurship domain because of the different context and the final objective of SE itself. Furthermore, studying opportunity recognition only among heroic social entrepreneurs may cause biases. Though, the comparison of findings regarding the opportunity recognition seems to be problematic as one must consider the context of social entrepreneur and the approach of the author towards social entrepreneurship. Besides, differing legal structures in different countries can have an impact on the way social enterprises operate and consequently, limit opportunity recognition and exploitation in certain way.

Gawell (2013) states that social entrepreneurial actions are grounded in perceived necessities and facilitated by favourable events or opportunities. Namely, social entrepreneurs are alert to respond to opportunities. Furthermore, social entrepreneurs are successful in creation of opportunities by convincing the resource owners to provide resources. However, it is also argued that opportunities facilitate SE, though they may not be the main reasons of engagement. Instead, the author proposes a concept of perceived necessities since most social entrepreneurs engage in SE activities, as far as they believe that it is meaningful and necessary. As Grassl (2012) also underlines, social entrepreneurs are personally committed to a cause and opportunity recognition is an obvious process for them, unlike their commercial counterparts. It is even argued that inefficiencies that social entrepreneurs address are also recognised by many other individuals, compared to commercial entrepreneurial opportunities (Lumpkin et al., 2013). Nevertheless, it should be noted that even though detecting problems may be easier for social entrepreneurs, it does not automatically mean that it is equally easy to create feasible solutions to those social problems.

The recent research by Yitshaki and Kropp (2016) shows that pull factors such as present or past life events and ethical/moral orientation, as well as push factors such as job dissatisfaction motivate social entrepreneurs. The researchers propose a conceptual framework where pull and push factors serve as motivation to become aware of unmet social needs that lead to opportunity recognition and consequently, social venture creation through purposeful actions. This model

differs from the commercial entrepreneurship process models, as different antecedents precede opportunity recognition in SE. The opportunity recognition in social entrepreneurship is associated with solving a social problem rather than a gap between needs and demands. The model of opportunity recognition is also provided by Guclu et al. (2002) who argue that social needs and social assets serve as antecedents to promising ideas and a successful realisation of a business model is needed to transform promising ideas into attractive opportunities.

To conclude, social entrepreneurship shares many characteristics with the commercial entrepreneurship in terms of opportunity search, recognition and exploitation. However, there are notable differences such as the sources and nature of opportunities that distinguish SE from conventional entrepreneurship.

Innovation

Innovation is more than just ‘invention’ since it is a tool for social change that can be viewed as an “ultimate value created by innovation” [Mair and Ganly, (2008), p.80]. Schumpeter (1934) considers innovation to be an integral part of entrepreneurship involving ‘creative destruction’ of existing structures and systems and their replacement. However, for Kirzner (1973), innovation is not a main distinctive element of entrepreneurship; rather it must fill inefficiencies on the market.

Similarly, several authors have different views on the importance of innovation for social enterprises. There exist *Social Innovation* and *Social Enterprise* schools of thought that have different approaches to the presence of innovation in social entrepreneurial processes (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). The Social Innovation School views innovativeness as a key criterion; whereas Social Enterprise School, as well as the EMES Network and the UK approaches do not emphasise the centrality of innovation (Hoogendoorn et al., 2011). Continuous innovation is considered an integral part of SE by some researchers (Austin et al., 2006; Chell et al., 2010; Dees, 2001; Haugh, 2005). Innovativeness along with proactiveness and risk taking, similarly to the entrepreneurship field, has been named a key characteristic of social entrepreneurs (Sullivan Mort et al., 2003, Peredo and McLean, 2006; Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, 2006). Even

more, innovativeness has been traced in all stages of value creation among social enterprises (Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, 2006).

However, it must be noted that innovation in commercial entrepreneurship is driven by the motivation of increasing profits and gaining a competitive advantage, while social innovations are motivated by the well-being of society, though it may have complementary commercial, technological or other aims (Dawson and Daniel, 2010). As El Ebrashi (2013) notes, business entrepreneurs try to defend their innovations through economic barriers (Porter, 1980), while social entrepreneurs seek to replicate their ideas even outside of their organisations.

Furthermore, there is a disagreement on the type of changes that are facilitated by social entrepreneurs. While some researchers state that social entrepreneurs cause fundamental social changes, others suggest that SE is all about incremental innovations (Hill et al., 2010). Some SE researchers characterise the field as a playground for revolutionary social innovations (Di Zhang and Swanson, 2014) and argue that what makes social ventures entrepreneurial is Schumpeterian ‘creative destruction’ (Kee, 2017; Ormiston and Seymour, 2011) through involvement in processes that completely change the existing social equilibria in non-standard ways (Hill et al., 2010). However, Gawell (2013) maintains that the innovative role of SE should not be overrated as the roles of both innovative challengers and adjustable followers have been observed in social enterprises. Therefore, some social enterprises fall in the category of alert individuals within established systems and some can be regarded as radical innovators challenging existing equilibria (Gawell, 2013; Short et al., 2009).

It is also important to understand the conceptual differences between SE and social innovation. Mulgan (2006, p.146) defines social innovation as a set of “innovative activities and services by the goal of meeting a social need and that are predominantly developed and diffused through organisations whose primary purposes are social”. Social innovation is distinguished from SE as social innovation may occur in social enterprises, government and commercial sector, or as a result of intersection and collaboration among these parties (Salim Saji and Ellingstad, 2016). ‘Shared value creation’ between corporate and social stakeholders (Porter and Kramer, 2011) is a notable example. However, innovation may not be an integral part of social entrepreneurship, even though SE may lead to social innovation (Salim Saji and Ellingstad, 2016). Though, some authors consider social innovation one of the major characteristics of SE (Choi and Majumdar,

2014) and others even argue that social entrepreneurs are more radical innovators (Huysentruyt, 2014).

Nevertheless, it is notable that international studies on SE have become more inclusive through the years. For instance, in 2015-2016 study Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) has dropped the compulsory requirement of innovation in social enterprises for inclusion that was present in the GEM 2009 study, thus, becoming more inclusive through the years. Though, Lepoutre et al. (2013), based on prior research on SE, considered innovativeness in delivery of products and services a key criterion in GEM 2009 study and innovation was expected in terms of product, production process, delivery, promotion or unattended customer niche. The GEM 2015-2016 study on social entrepreneurship proposed two questions in order to map innovative activities in social enterprises – first regarding the provision of new products or services and second about offering a new approach to producing a product/service. Those social entrepreneurs who self-reported as being value creators prioritising social value creation over value capture (Santos, 2012) tended to classify themselves as more innovative (Bosma et al., 2016).

In short, innovation is an important component of social entrepreneurship, as in commercial entrepreneurship, though, sources of innovation as well as more openness of innovation in case of SE is a distinctive characteristic.

Organisation Building

Parrish (2010) distinguishes five major requirements for organisation design – purpose for justifying existence, efficiency (for achieving synergies), trade-offs in balancing competing objectives, criteria for prioritising decision choices and inducements (allocating benefits). In response to organisation design requirements two types of reasoning are outlined, namely, ‘perpetual’ and ‘exploitative’ reasoning. On the one hand, ‘exploitative’ reasoning calls for resource exploitation to generate highest possible financial profits in the short term. It also reduces inputs without a simultaneous reduction in outputs. In addition, this approach focuses on maximisation of a single objective while using quantity as a major decision criterion. In the end, allocations of benefits are dictated by the claims of power. On the other hand, ‘perpetual’ reasoning considers resource perpetuation by producing benefits through “enhancing and

maintaining quality of human and natural resources” in the long-term [Parrish, (2010), p.517]. Besides, this approach supports achievement of synergies and balance of conflicting goals while the focus is on assessing quality of outcomes for decision-making. Finally, allocation of benefits involves directing benefits towards worthy recipients by offering possibilities to contribute to the enterprise. Thus, resource perpetuation, benefit stacking, strategic satisficing, qualitative management and worthy contribution are the subsequent major principles of perpetual reasoning. Sustainability-driven enterprises are keen to employ the ‘perpetual’ reasoning in order to build an organisation that will be in line with their subsequent missions – achieving economic, social and environmental goals (Parrish, 2010). It is argued that the motivation to create social value drives social entrepreneurs to build organisations differently compared to commercial entrepreneurs (Dorado, 2006).

The integration of social and business goals and perpetual reasoning make SE a hybrid phenomenon. According to Grassl (2012), hybridity in business can bridge different poles in several criteria, mainly ultimate ends, societal sector, type of integration, goods produced, product status, agents of value creation and ownership. In case of social entrepreneurship, mixes of ultimate ends (for-profit and non-profit), societal sector (market, civil society and state) and type of integration (external, integrated and embedded) are more common (Grassl, 2012). Battilana and Lee (2014, p.397) propose that social enterprise can be considered an ideal type of hybrid organisation, where the authors define hybrid organising as “the activities, structures, processes and meanings by which organizations make sense of and combine multiple organizational forms”. Hybridity may occur through the combinations of multiple organisational identities, organisational forms or institutional logics (Battilana and Lee, 2014). For instance, the findings of Moss et al. (2011) show that social enterprises are characterised by dual identities - a utilitarian organisational identity that is more entrepreneurial and product oriented and a normative organisational identity that is social/people oriented. Using Thompson’s (1967) notions of organisational core and periphery, Battilana and Lee (2014) suggest that social enterprises have both business and charity missions at its core. The researchers note that hybridity is a source of tensions between different dimensions, though the success depends on the advancement of both missions. Tensions may occur both at the external level such as

organisational environment, as well as at the internal level, for example, in balancing organisational identity, resource distribution and decision making. The authors distinguish five dimensions of hybrid organising, namely, inter-organisational relationships, culture, organisational design, workforce composition and organisational activities.

Resource Mobilisation. Austin et al. (2006) note that resource mobilisation is a considerable challenge for social entrepreneurs as they do not have access to the same capital markets as commercial entrepreneurs. Same is true for human resources since social enterprises are not able to pay compensations comparable to the ones of commercial enterprises. Similarly, the study of Bacq et al. (2013) conducted in Belgium and the Netherlands shows that social enterprises are inferior to commercial ones in terms of employment growth and advancements in entrepreneurial processes. Though, there are contrasting views on social enterprises and their use of resources. According to Hoogendoorn et al. (2011), it is easier for commercial enterprises to complete the foundation stage, while after establishment social ventures are less likely to fail. One of the reasons is that social ventures are more resource dependent. Though, this factor may seem to be a threat for social enterprise survival, SEs can benefit from the relationships created through the much-needed social networks (Burt, 2000).

The concepts of creative combination of resources that is considered central to entrepreneurial value creation (Moran and Goshal, 1999) and resourcefulness link to the notion of bricolage resource mobilisation. Bricolage is defined as making do with resources at hand and recombination of resources for new products and services (Baker and Nelson, 2005; Lévi-Strauss, 1967). Several authors find bricolage to be a useful concept for studying social enterprises (Desa, 2012; Desa and Basu, 2013; Di Domenico et al., 2010; Owusu and Janssen, 2011). According to Desa (2012), bricolage in social entrepreneurship covers material bricolage, labour bricolage and skills bricolage. Furthermore, Di Domenico et al. (2010) propose that besides the main constructs of *making do*, *a refusal to be constrained limitations* and *improvisation*, such SE related constructs as *social value creation*, *stakeholder participation* and *persuasion* are the components of social bricolage.

To sum up, social entrepreneurship is built on perpetual reasoning and hybrid organising principles, while creative resource mobilisation is a challenging, though critical aspect of SE.

As we have seen, social entrepreneurship shares some of the key characteristics of entrepreneurship in all dimensions; however, SE is distinguished in terms of the primacy of social value creation, source of opportunities, social nature of innovation and hybrid organising among others. Whereas, it is notable that it is the embeddedness of central social mission that results in all these differences.

3. Social Entrepreneurship Paradigms

As noted, defining the field is one of the distinctive ‘research paths’ (Desa, 2010; Kraus et al., 2014) in SE literature. Grassl (2012) suggests that terminological disagreement about SE can be mainly explained by the fact that social enterprises are structural hybrids in various terms. The author argues that social ventures must be categorised according to the real distinguishing factors rather than just conceptual abstractions. In the following section we will approach SE through individual, process and organisational dimensions, analyse different typologies, distinguish respective schools of thought and review subsequent definitional debates.

Individual, Process and Organisational Dimensions

When characterising SE, the researchers usually focus on individual, process and organisational aspects of the field (Alegre et al., 2017; Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016).

The authors and organisations that apply an individual-centred approach on SE research describe a social entrepreneur as a change agent who ‘acts boldly’ (Dees, 2001) and ‘revolutionises industries’ (Ashoka, 2015). Though, the small-scale research conducted by Spear (2006) illustrates that unlike the general ‘heroic’ view of an entrepreneur, collective nature of SE is more common in cooperatives, one of the forms of social enterprises. The author notes that it might seem natural that a cooperative form of an organisation is selected for collective

initiatives, however, the key managers of socially minded cooperatives can be also described as ‘individualistically entrepreneurial’. Furthermore, social entrepreneurs are mostly dependent on collective experience rather than personal competences and they put higher emphasis on long-term goals rather than short-term financial profit (Thalhuber, 1998 in Bacq and Janssen, 2011). However, as Haugh (2012) underlines, actor-centred papers rarely suggest new approaches to explain the emergence and activities of social entrepreneurs.

Other researchers describe social entrepreneurship as a process of combination of necessary resources for achieving social goals (Mair and Marti, 2006). Those authors who focus on entrepreneurial processes discuss such topics as social commitment, social capital, human capital, social networks, social construction of SE roles, social relations, social exclusion/inclusion, etc. In addition, social ownership, social, economic and institutional processes, and the impact of social/economic policy are some more themes (Hill et al., 2010).

Organisational aspects are another area of discussion and debates. Some researchers limit the definition of SE only to not-for-profit organisations that also engage in business operations to increase self-sustainability by revenue generation streams (Hill et al., 2010). However, Grassl (2012) does not agree to this viewpoint, as it is the use of profits that distinguishes social enterprises not the generation itself. However, it is a highly debatable topic in the scientific literature (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). Though, Lynch and Walls (2009) assert that if the organisations have both social and business goals embedded in their missions, they can be considered social enterprises despite their legal status. Di Zhang and Swanson (2014) note that the definition of SE has become more ‘inclusive’ in recent years. According to the authors, the reason is that more and more organisations have included both social and business goals in their missions. Porter and Kramer (2011) also argue that shared value creation blurs the borders between for-profit and non-profit establishments. Similarly, Austin et al. (2006, p.2) state that SE “can occur within or across the non-profit, business, or government sectors”, stretching the field to three different sectors including “non-profits, social-purpose for-profits, cooperatives, community-led organizations and intrapreneurial efforts within public organizations” [Hill et al., (2010), p.22]. Furthermore, it is notable that social entrepreneurship is not limited to founding new organisations, as SE processes can occur both in new and established organisations where it

may be called ‘social intrapreneurship’ (Mair and Marti, 2006), facilitated by ‘corporate social entrepreneurs’ who act entrepreneurially to integrate social agenda into corporate strategy (Hemingway, 2005). All in all, social entrepreneurship has a dual goal - to work on projects that address certain social needs at the micro-economic level and promote a civil economy at the macro-economic level where the market is seen more as a cooperative area rather than a competitive one (Grassl, 2012).

Organisational aspects represent one of the key differentiators in social entrepreneurship and in most cases the basis of different typologies and categorisations of social entrepreneurial organisations.

Focus on Typologies

As social entrepreneurship is a hybrid phenomenon (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Grassl, 2012), SE researchers tend to propose typologies that illustrate the characteristics of the different types of social enterprises. For instance, Alter (2006) considers social enterprises part of the hybrid spectrum that ranges from non-profits with income-generating activities and social enterprises to socially responsible businesses and corporations practicing social responsibility. Similarly, Swanson and Di Zhang (2010) propose the concept of a social entrepreneurship zone where the researchers map the domain of social entrepreneurship according to the planned approach to implementing social change and level of business practices applied to support social change, placing social entrepreneurship in the social improvement and social transformation regions. Several categorisations and typologies of social enterprises developed by different researchers that illustrate the hybridity in SE are summarised in Table 1.

Year	Author	Typology
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2006	Alter	<p>External social enterprise – the relationship is one-sided and resembles the interaction between a charity and a recipient. External social enterprises are created in order to finance the social programmes. The not-for-profit client indirectly benefits from the revenues of the external social enterprise.</p> <p>Integrated social enterprise - there are certain commonalities between the social programmes and an enterprise. Social programmes and business activities often share costs, assets and resources. Social services are usually commercialised for new markets or existing customers. The not-for-profit client may or may not be part of the enterprise's operations.</p> <p>Embedded social enterprise - social programmes and enterprise activities are united at the strategy and execution layers. Social programmes are self-financed by the enterprise revenues. An enterprise strives to achieve both financial and social benefits at the same time. The not-for-profit target population is directly served by the enterprise either as the target market, beneficiary, owner or employee.</p>
2006	Dorado	<p>Non-profit social entrepreneurial ventures - Non-profit organisations adopting business models.</p> <p>For-profit social entrepreneurial ventures - For-profit initiatives for whom social goals are central to their business model.</p> <p>Cross-sector social entrepreneurial ventures - Inter-organisational arrangements created to solve complex social problems.</p>
2006	Mair and Marti	<p>Non-profit organisations that complement business principles to undertake social campaigns.</p> <p>For-profit commercial businesses that use socially responsible practices via partnering across sectors.</p> <p>Ventures that are involved in innovative activities to find solutions to social and environmental problems.</p>
2006	Peredo and McLean	<p>Enterprises with exclusively social goals</p> <p>Enterprises with mainly social goals, but not exclusively</p> <p>Enterprises with social goals that are important among other goals</p> <p>Enterprises with social goals subordinate to other goals</p>

2008	Elkington and Hartigan	<p>Leveraged non-profit – the economic sustainability is achieved by fundraising activities.</p> <p>Hybrid non-profit – the enterprise covers a part of its costs through the commercial activities. However, fundraising is still needed to ensure economic sustainability.</p> <p>Social business venture – the enterprise that functions as a for-profit business with the mission to achieve social and environmental changes. It includes social business and inclusive business models.</p>
2009	Zahra et al.	<p>Social bricoleur – the theoretical inspiration coming from Hayek. This type of social entrepreneurs addresses small scale local needs.</p> <p>Social constructivists – the theoretical inspiration coming from Kirzner. This breed of social entrepreneurs addresses social problems in the existing social structures at small to large and local to international scales.</p> <p>Social engineer – the theoretical inspiration coming from Schumpeter. Social Engineers create new systems to replace existing ineffective structures at a very large scale and national to international in scope.</p>
2013	Lepoutre et al.	<p>Social entrepreneurship spectrum (GEM Study 2009)</p> <p>Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) – only those not-for-profit organisations that have an explicit social mission, innovative approach to addressing social problems and less than 5% of market revenues. Such entities were given the name of not-for-profit social enterprises. The NGOs that are dependent on more traditional practices were not taken into consideration.</p> <p>Hybrid social enterprises – this subset of the social entrepreneurship spectrum includes the organisations that have both social and economic goals. They had to have at least 5% of earned income. Two sub-categories were distinguished – ‘economically-oriented hybrids’ and ‘socially-oriented hybrids’ depending on whether they were paying primary attention to either their economic or social goals.</p> <p>Socially-committed regular enterprises – this component of the spectrum includes ‘socially-committed regular enterprises’ and ‘for-profit social enterprises’. The latter are regular enterprises for which social/environmental</p>

		objectives are more important than the economic ones. Whereas, those organisations that rated social/environmental objectives twice as important as the economic ones are ‘for-profit social enterprises’.
2014	Jäger and Schröer	<p>“Enterprising non-profits with activities supporting solidarity by selling in markets</p> <p>Social innovation (social entrepreneurship) with planned social value and income-generating activities</p> <p>Hybrid organisations (social businesses/social enterprises) with activities supporting functional solidarity</p> <p>Socially responsible enterprises (corporate social responsibility) with market activities and additional social-value generating activities” (p.1294)</p>
2015	Dohrmann et al.	<p>Social enterprises differentiated based on social mission</p> <p>One-sided social mission – Social investors subsidise the social target group on the consumption side.</p> <p>Two-sided social mission - two social target groups – one on production and one on consumption side.</p> <p>Market-oriented social mission – a social target group on the production side and a focus on a market target group on the consumption side.</p> <p>Commercially utilised social mission – a social target group attracted by a social mission and later used as a resource input to meet specific consumption needs of a different market target group.</p>
2015	Santos et al.	<p>Market hybrid – Clients and beneficiaries are the same and value spillovers are automatic</p> <p>Blending hybrid - Clients and beneficiaries are the same but value spillovers are contingent</p> <p>Bridging hybrid - Clients and beneficiaries are not the same but value spillovers are automatic</p> <p>Coupling hybrid - Clients and beneficiaries are not the same and value spillovers are contingent</p>

2017	Defourny and Nyssens	<p>Entrepreneurial non-profit – non-profit organisations with income-generating activities focused on supporting their social mission.</p> <p>Public-sector SE – public sector spin-offs.</p> <p>Social cooperative – resulting from a move of mutual interest organisations towards more general interest seeking behaviours.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Single-stakeholder – all members sharing a mutual interest ● Multiple stakeholder – different stakeholders becoming members of social cooperatives <p>Social business – involves the move of for-profits towards general interest</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SME – hybrid economic model involving shared value creation ● Yunus type – non-dividend social business, profits are fully reinvested to achieve the social mission
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Table 1. Different categorisations/typologies of social enterprises

Many researchers categorise social enterprises based on an organisational form (non-profit, hybrid and for-profit) (Dorado, 2006; Mair and Marti, 2006; Lepoutre et al., 2013), while others focus on the place of social goals within an enterprise (Peredo and McLean, 2006), type of integration of a social programme (Alter, 2006), nature of problems addressed by SE (Zahra et al., 2009) and combinations of automatic/contingent value spillovers with overlap/difference between clients and beneficiaries (Santos et al., 2015) among others. As we see from the above-mentioned typologies, there are some of the subsets of social enterprises the ‘legitimacy’ of which are often debatable. For example, social enterprises with a non-profit status that solely depend on fundraising income usually fall out from some of the typologies. Same can be also true for the commercial end of the hybrid spectrum. It is usually a debatable topic what level of social orientation classifies an organisation as a social enterprise.

To add an additional discourse to the above-mentioned discussion, in Appendix 1 we summarise the SE typologies outlined by the social entrepreneurship researchers, according to the International Comparative Social Enterprise Models (ICSEM) Project Working papers (available at <https://www.iap-socent.be/icsem-working-papers>) and the summary shows a vast array of

social enterprise types in more than 30 countries, each characterised with a different set of aspects.

It is noteworthy that different schools of thought ‘recognise’ the legitimacy of different types of social enterprises and focus on specific aspects characterising SE.

Schools of Thought

Through a meta-analysis of the SE literature, Hill et al. (2010) determined influential words and word pairs in the field and consequently, detected four schools of thought, namely, entrepreneurship, social, governance and for-profit/non-profit ones. The entrepreneurship school is focused on how entrepreneurs create social ventures based on management/entrepreneurship theories. The authors in this school frequently employ a quantitative approach studying such variables as individual values, size of the enterprise, social capital and relations. The social school is directed towards building of an organisation that meets social needs. The governance school is interested in community-influenced governance of social enterprises. The for-profit non-profit school is concentrated on commercial/non-profit hybrids and business-like non-profit organisations. The authors conclude that the social school is characterised by the social roots of entrepreneurial opportunities; the entrepreneurship school is concerned with how entrepreneurs manage resources to create social ventures and the governance school deals with the management of stakeholder involvement (Hill et al., 2010).

Similarly, Bacq and Janssen (2011) have identified three schools of thought in social entrepreneurship research. The Social Innovation School focuses on the individual characteristics of a social entrepreneur. The followers of Social Enterprise School argue that SEs must conduct profit-generating activities to fund the social mission. Finally, European approaches are characterised by the creation of specific legal frameworks for SEs. The Social Innovation School and European approaches require a direct link between the social mission and profit-generating activities; while, the Social Enterprise School does not require such kind of link. According to the Social Innovation School, the organisational form of a social enterprise can be either non-profit or for-profit. This approach has led to the emergence of hybrid organisations. In contrast,

the Social Enterprise School first considered only non-profits that used earned income strategies. However, it later included any business that trades for achieving a social mission. Finally, Europe has been characterised by the creation of new types of legal forms for SEs, though most social enterprises still adopt common legal forms. Profit distribution has often been connected to the legal form of a social enterprise. The Social Innovation School does not impose strict limits on profit distribution. In contrast, the Social Enterprise School forbids any profit distribution, as all profit must be reinvested for achieving the social mission, though the recent trend accepts some profit distribution to owners or workers. Whereas, the European approach recommends a limited profit distribution (Bacq and Janssen, 2011).

Furthermore, in Europe, social enterprises are seen more as a part of the third sector (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). According to the EMES network, social enterprises must bear a significant level of economic risk which depends both on market performance and its ability to mobilise public and voluntary resources (Defourny and Nyssens, 2006). The United States is characterised more with the domination of the ‘earned income’ school that defines a social enterprise as an organisation that trades for achieving social mission. According to the representatives of this school of thought, the more productive activity the social purpose organisation has, more it deserves to be called a social enterprise. Several European countries such as the UK and Finland share this approach. However, even in the US there is the Social Innovation School that focuses more on innovative capabilities of social enterprises (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). Whereas, the EMES approach accepts that social enterprises may depend on a combination of business, public and voluntary resources (Defourny and Nyssens, 2006). Furthermore, several researchers focus on differentiating *social entrepreneurs* from *social enterprise managers*. The Social Innovation School stresses on several key characteristics of a social entrepreneur such as visionary and innovative approach, strong ethical fibre, special ability to detect opportunities, a role of a change agent and resourcefulness. For the Social Enterprise School, the initiative must come from an NGO or a state – hence, social entrepreneur plays a secondary role here. Similarly, although European school does not exclude leadership in the field, the focus is still more on ‘collective governance mechanisms’ (Bacq and Janssen, 2011).

Nevertheless, Alegre et al. (2017) argue that despite general perceptions that there is a disagreement among different schools of thought, detected clusters of *Social & Financial, Innovation, Community, Sustainability and Change* reveal that there is a certain overlap among them, however, it is the relative priority of certain conceptions that differentiates the clusters.

These different approaches to characterising SE, including individual, process and organisational dimensions, focus on typologies and promotion of different schools of thought are reflected in subsequent definitional debates.

Definitional Debates

In order to illustrate the variety of SE definitions, we provide a table of some of the selected definitions from the various papers and systematic reviews among others (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016; Dacin et al., 2010; Zahra et al., 2009) (Table 2). Key characteristics of SE are italicised.

Year	Author	Definition	Page(s)
1997	Leadbeater	“Social entrepreneurs identify <i>under-utilised resources</i> – people, buildings, equipment – and find ways of putting them to use to satisfy <i>unmet social needs</i> .”	p.2
2000	Fowler	“Social Entrepreneurship is the creation of viable (socio-)economic structures, relations, institutions, organizations and practices that yield and sustain <i>social benefits</i> .”	p.649
2001	Dees	“Social entrepreneurs play the role of <i>change agents</i> in the social sector, by: Adopting a mission to <i>create and sustain social value</i> (not just private one); Recognizing and relentlessly <i>pursuing new opportunities</i> to serve that mission; Engaging in a process of <i>continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning</i> ; Acting boldly <i>without being limited by resources currently at hand</i> , and exhibiting <i>heightened accountability</i> to the constituencies served and the outcomes created.”	p.4
2002	Drayton	“Social entrepreneurs focus their entrepreneurial talent on solving	pp.123-

		social problems. ... [W]hat defines a leading social entrepreneur? First, there is no entrepreneur without a powerful, new, <i>system change idea</i> ... There are four other necessary ingredients: <i>creativity, widespread impact, entrepreneurial quality, and strong ethical fibre</i> .”	124
2002	Department of Trade and Industry (DTI)	“[A social enterprise] is defined as a business with <i>primarily social objectives</i> , whose <i>surpluses are principally reinvested</i> for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximize profits for shareholders and owners.”	p.13
2004	Alvord et al.	“Social entrepreneurship ... creates <i>innovative solutions</i> to immediate social problems and mobilizes the ideas, capacities, <i>resources</i> , and social arrangements required for <i>sustainable social transformations</i> .”	p.262
2004	Harding	“Entrepreneurs motivated by <i>social objectives</i> to instigate some form of new activity or venture.”	p.41
2005	Roberts and Woods	“Social entrepreneurship is the construction, evaluation and pursuit of <i>opportunities for transformative social change</i> carried out by visionary, passionately dedicated individuals.”	p.49
2005	Seelos and Mair	“Social entrepreneurship creates <i>new models for the provision of products and services</i> that cater directly to <i>basic human needs that remain unsatisfied by current economic or social institutions</i> .”	pp.243-244
2006	Austin et al.	“ <i>Innovative, social value creating activity</i> that can occur within or across the nonprofit, business, or government sectors.”	p.2
2006	Mair and Marti	“First, we view social entrepreneurship as a process of <i>creating value by combining resources in new ways</i> . Second, these resource combinations are intended primarily to explore and exploit opportunities to create <i>social value</i> by stimulating <i>social change</i> or meeting <i>social needs</i> . And third, when viewed as a process, social entrepreneurship involves the offering of services and products but can also refer to the creation of new organizations.”	p.37
2006	Peredo and McLean	“Social entrepreneurship is exercised where some person or persons (1) <i>aim either exclusively or in some prominent way to create social value</i> of some kind, and pursue that goal through some combination of (2)	p.56

		recognizing and exploiting <i>opportunities</i> to create this value, (3) employing <i>innovation</i> , (4) <i>tolerating risk</i> and (5) <i>declining to accept limitations in available resources</i> .”	
2007	Martin and Osberg	“We define social entrepreneurship as having the following three components: (1) identifying a stable but inherently <i>unjust equilibrium</i> that causes the exclusion, marginalization, or suffering of a segment of humanity that lacks the financial means or political clout to achieve any transformative benefit on its own; (2) <i>identifying an opportunity</i> in this unjust equilibrium, developing a <i>social value proposition</i> , and bringing to bear inspiration, creativity, direct action, courage, and fortitude, thereby <i>challenging the stable state’s hegemony</i> ; and (3) <i>forging a new, stable equilibrium</i> that releases trapped potential or alleviates the suffering of the targeted group, and through imitation and the creation of a stable ecosystem around the new equilibrium ensuring a better future for the targeted group and even society at large.”	p.35
2008	Defourny and Nyssens	“Social enterprises are not-for-profit private organizations providing goods or services directly related to their explicit aim to benefit the community. They generally rely on a collective dynamics involving various types of stakeholders in their governing bodies, they place a high value on their autonomy and they bear economic risks related to their activity”	p.204
2008	Nicholls	“Social entrepreneurship is a set of <i>innovative</i> and <i>effective</i> activities that focus strategically on <i>resolving social market failures</i> and <i>creating new opportunities</i> to add social value systemically by using a range of <i>resources</i> and organizational formats to maximize social impact and bring about change. Simply put, social entrepreneurship is defined by its two constituent elements: a prime strategic focus on <i>social impact</i> and an <i>innovative approach</i> to achieving its mission.”	p.23
2009	Zahra et al.	“Social entrepreneurship encompasses the activities and processes undertaken to discover, define, and exploit <i>opportunities</i> in order to enhance <i>social wealth</i> by creating new ventures or managing existing organizations in an <i>innovative manner</i> .”	p.522

2010	Hill et al.	“A <i>disciplined, innovative, risk tolerant</i> entrepreneurial process of <i>opportunity recognition and resource assembly</i> directed toward creating <i>social value</i> by <i>changing</i> underlying social and economic <i>structures</i> .”	p.21
2011	Bacq and Janssen	“The process of identifying, evaluating and exploiting <i>opportunities</i> aiming at <i>social value creation</i> by means of <i>commercial, market-based activities</i> and of the use of a <i>wide range of resources</i> .”	p.376
2013	Lepoutre et al.	“[T]here seem to be a number of characteristics that distinguish social entrepreneurs from “regular” entrepreneurs and/or traditional charities. In particular, three selection criteria seem to stand out from extant literature: the predominance of a <i>social mission</i> , the importance of <i>innovation</i> , and the role of <i>earned income</i> .”	p.694
2016	Bosma et al.	“Any kind of activity, organisation or initiative that has a particularly <i>social, environmental or community objective</i> .”	p.5

Table 2. Definitions of Social Entrepreneurship, Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneur

Majority of the researchers agree that a dominant social value creation is a defining characteristic of social entrepreneurship (Austin et al., 2006; Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Conway Dato-On and Kalakay, 2016; Dees, 2001; Di Domenico et al., 2010; Hill et al., 2010; Mair and Marti, 2006; Nicholls, 2008; Peredo and McLean, 2006; Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, 2006). Market orientation is another key aspect of social entrepreneurship (Boschee and McClurg, 2003; Bosma et al., 2016; Dart, 2004; Guclu et al., 2002; Lepoutre et al., 2013; Mair and Schoen, 2007; Robinson, 2006; Thompson, 2002; Thompson and Doherty, 2006; Tracey and Phillips, 2007). Though, not all schools of thought, especially, the Social Innovation School, have the similar approach.

Innovativeness is an integral component for the other group of researchers who view social transformation and radical innovation as crucial components of SE. As mentioned, different researchers and schools of thought have different views on the required presence of innovation in social entrepreneurial activities. Many authors consider innovation a key characteristic of social entrepreneurship (Alvord et al., 2004; Austin et al., 2006; Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016; Dees, 2001; Lepoutre et al., 2013; Mair and Marti, 2006; Mair and Noboa, 2006; Nicholls, 2008;

Peredo and McLean, 2006; Zahra et al., 2009). However, there exist definitions that do not stress on the aspect of innovativeness, especially among the group of researchers not belonging to the Social Innovation School of thought. Though, as mentioned, the boundaries between the schools of thought are blurring (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Lehner and Kansikas, 2012).

Opportunity discovery or creation is also central to social entrepreneurship and many definitions focus on this aspect (Hill et al., 2010; Roberts and Woods, 2005; Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, 2006; Zahra et al., 2009). However, most of these definitions do not cover the opportunity creation aspect of social entrepreneurship. Similarly, creative resource mobilisation is a characteristic encountered in most of the reviewed definitions (Austin et al., 2006; Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Dees, 2001; Defourny and Nyssens, 2006; Hill et al., 2010; Leadbeater, 1997; Mair and Marti, 2006; Mair and Noboa, 2006).

However, it can be suggested that the definitions do not show the signs of convergence through the years (Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016). Choi and Majumdar (2014) even argue that social entrepreneurship is an essentially contested concept and reaching a universally agreed definition seems almost impossible. Even though there exists a problem of SE definition, some authors note that research on different types of social enterprises would contribute to the field more rather than the new definitions (Conway Dato-on and Kalakay, 2016; Defourny and Nyssens, 2017). Defourny and Nyssens (2017) also argue of impossibility of a unified definition. Instead, the authors suggest that the list of EMES criteria across economic/entrepreneurial, social and governance dimensions may serve as a guide to locate social enterprises. The researchers distinguish general, capital and mutual interest and dominant non-market, hybrid and dominant market resources and by the combinations of interest principles and resource mix, arrive at a typology consisting of the entrepreneurial non-profit model, the social cooperative model (single stakeholder and multiple stakeholder ones), the social business model (Yunus type and SME type) and the public-sector social enterprise model.

Finally, we argue that the proposed definition must be inclusive and represent the ‘common denominator’ of the existing definitional debates. Thus, as suggested by several researchers

(Defourny and Nyssens, 2017), the focus can be forwarded towards studying different sub-types of social enterprises and testing the generalisability of findings.

To conclude, different approaches, typologies and schools of thought exist in the social entrepreneurship literature. In most of the cases, they conflict each other. It is important to characterise all these different perspectives for developing a definition of the field.

4. The Heterogeneity of Social Enterprise Conceptions

Mapping of social enterprises

In order to detect a sample of social enterprises, a special mapping strategy must be developed. There are many different aspects that must be taken into consideration before setting the mapping criteria.

Lyon and Sepulveda (2009) review the previous approaches to mapping social enterprises in the UK. According to the authors, none of the surveys are totally perfect. For instance, the IFF (2005) survey excludes several forms of social enterprises including charities with trading income and companies limited by share. Though, several highly inclusive definitions may wrongly categorise types of organisations that are not generally considered social enterprises. In addition, some regional studies have asked organisations if they classified themselves as social enterprises while others did not. Similarly, some approaches focused on social aspects of enterprises, while others emphasised on the trading orientation of organisations. Therefore, the authors explain that researchers should have more detailed information about potential social ventures under study (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009).

DTI (2004) has outlined the following categories of social ownership: “community interest companies, companies limited by guarantee, industrial and provident societies, housing associations, and registered charities with trading income” [Lyon and Sepulveda, (2009), p.87]. The Annual Small Business Survey sets 50% as the threshold amount that must be used for social aims by an organisation in order to be considered a social enterprise (DTI, 2006). Yunus (2011), however, has a radical stance on this issue and advocates for social business model where no dividend must be paid to the investors and all profits must be reinvested towards

achieving social goals. Though, the requirement of full profit distribution would drop the share of social entrepreneurs (Bosma et al., 2016). Lyon and Sepulveda (2009) also find it important to make a distinction between independent social enterprises and branches of larger organisations as many companies register their branches as separate entities.

There is also no general agreement on the minimum percentage of the trading income that a socially focused organisation must have to be classified as a social venture. Some studies use a 25 percent barrier, while others tend to a 50 percent threshold. However, such kind of cut-offs may leave out those organisations that considerably contribute to the social sector, but their trading income falls short of the established barrier (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009). Community Interest Company (CIC) guidance also states that social benefits should extend beyond a limited membership group to a broader population if the group does not include socially disadvantaged people, for example. The difference also must be understood between the organisations that contribute to social goals using the trading profit and the organisations that achieve social aims via trading (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009).

Teasdale et al. (2013) relate the issue of mapping of social enterprises with the social enterprise growth myth. As the authors note, though the definition of social enterprises has remained the same in the UK, underlying criteria for mapping SEs have changed several times. Thus, it resulted in an unrealistically high growth statistics of social ventures in the United Kingdom. The researchers demonstrate that the political agenda has influenced the changes in mapping criteria. The changes applied through the years included the following modifications: decrease in the minimum level of earned income from 50% to 25%; allowance of self-reporting on being a social enterprise and good fit with the DTI definition instead of reporting to have a primary social mission instead of a financial one; changing the element of reinvestment of at least 51% of surplus for the social mission with just limitation of stakeholder profit sharing up to 50%; modifying sampling of organisations that have a clear social ownership with all registered businesses. Consequently, the number of social enterprises has ‘increased’ from 5300 in 2003 to 62000 in 2007. Furthermore, Ipsos MORI’s narrow definition was based on reinvesting surplus. Therefore, 35% of the respondents were not mistakenly considered social enterprises simply

because of making loss. This example shows how important it is to have a unified definition that will reflect the reality.

Dart et al. (2010) also point out some of the serious problems in mapping of social enterprises. According to the authors, all operational definitions considered by them turned out to be unworkable. Creating both social and economic value was thought to be an initial approach for selection. Though, as most of the businesses and nongovernmental organisations create both values, the researchers had to limit the definition to the “organisations which deliberately cultivate both social and economic value” [Dart et al., (2010), p.188]. However, many NGOs that are concerned with economic development and many businesses with corporate social responsibility policies fell into the sample. Therefore, the researchers decided to limit the definition to those organisations that have embedded social and economic value creation as a central component of their organisational strategy. Although, finding out the level of earned income or social focus that a non-profit or a business should have to be considered a social enterprise turned out to be a remarkable difficulty. In addition, contrasting social entrepreneurship from green businesses, triple bottom line and quadruple bottom line organisations seemed to be a serious obstacle. Later, the authors suggested researching those organisations that identify themselves as social enterprises. However, the major intention was to map the organisations that “behaved differently and innovatively” [Dart et al., (2010), p.189] and not the ones that simply label themselves in one way or another. Finally, the researchers decided to limit their study to work integration social enterprises. Though, most of such organisations turned out to be part of non-profit parent organisations – either as a programme, department or a project. And there were few social purpose businesses employing excluded people.

Defourny and Nyssens (2010, 2012) propose the criteria for the EMES ideal type of social enterprise across economic/entrepreneurial, social and governance dimensions. The economic and entrepreneurial dimension consists of a continuous activity of producing goods and/or selling services, a significant level of economic risk and at least a minimum level of paid work. The social dimensions cover an explicit aim to benefit the society, an initiative launched by a group of citizens or non-governmental organisations and a limited profit distribution. Finally, participatory governance of social enterprises can be achieved through a high degree of

autonomy, a decision-making power not proportional to capital and a participatory nature through involving various actors affected by the activity. As argued by Defourny and Nyssens (2017), these criteria can be utilised for locating different forms of social enterprises and checking their conformity in relation to the ‘ideal’ criteria.

Lepoutre et al. (2013) discuss the issue of developing a global standardised methodology for mapping and measuring social entrepreneurship activity. The research was conducted in collaboration with Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM). According to the authors, current SE research lacks studies on generalisability of theoretical propositions, preconditions and results of SE activities and statistical differences among social enterprises based on large scale quantitative dataset. The questionnaire developed by the researchers was included in the GEM survey, the largest initiative that measures entrepreneurship activity around the globe. Lepoutre et al. (2013) distinguish three major criteria that differentiate social entrepreneurship from regular entrepreneurship or traditional charities: “the predominance of a social mission, the importance of innovation and the role of earned income” [Lepoutre et al., (2013), p.694]. Although, there are controversial understandings of social entrepreneurship, for a part of researchers, to be considered a social enterprise, an organisation must use innovative approaches in achieving a social mission, while following the market logic is enough for the others.

Lepoutre et al. (2013) have considered several factors during the design process of the research study. First, researchers avoided using the word ‘social entrepreneur’, as it may have different interpretations in different countries. Instead, series of indirect questions were asked to identify social entrepreneurs. On the one hand, the respondents had to state whether their organisation had a particular social, environmental or community objective. On the other hand, those individuals who identified themselves as founders, owners or managers of companies, had to allocate 100 points among three organisational goals: economic, social and environmental. In addition, to be considered social enterprises, organisations had to have at least 5% of an earned income. Finally, interviewees had to state whether their organisation was innovative in at least one of the following six aspects: product, production, process, delivery, promotion and unattended customer niche (Lepoutre et al., 2013).

Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) has produced another special topic report on Social Entrepreneurship in 2015-2016. For the purposes of the research and a broad measure, the authors have defined social entrepreneurial activity (SEA) as “any kind of activity, organisation or initiative that has a particularly social, environmental or community objective. This might include providing services or training to socially deprived or disabled persons, activities aimed at reducing pollution or food-waste, organising self-help groups for community action, etc.” [Bosma et al., (2016), p.2]. The researchers have looked at the following parameters: “(i) an explicit social mission, (ii) offering products or services in the market, (iii) offering an innovative solution, (iv) reinvesting profits and (v) making an effort to measure the social impact of their activities” [Bosma et al., (2016), p.2]. In order to make the social entrepreneurship definition more compatible with the scientific literature, the researchers have introduced two compulsory criteria for the narrow definition: first that the organisation prioritises value creation over value capture and the second that the organisation is more market-based than non-market based (Bosma et al., 2016). As mentioned above, more inclusiveness by dropping the innovation requirement for classifying as a social enterprise is evident.

The given examples illustrate that mapping of social enterprises is a clear challenge with several complex issues that must be carefully addressed in order to have accurate research results.

International and legal specificities

Understanding international and legal specificities is also indispensable when it comes to conducting valid national and international research. According to Desa (2012), social entrepreneurship can exist everywhere and not only in under-developed or emerging economies and there are six variables that characterise social enterprises internationally: outcome emphasis, programme area focus, common organisational type, legal framework, societal sector and strategic development base (Kerlin, 2009).

International Specificities. Although, terminological confusions may be common in every emerging field of social science, Grassl (2012) points out two major reasons that complicate the situation in SE research even more - first, the ones who determine the development of the field

are not the researchers but managers and entrepreneurs and second, there are vast differences in the world in terms of 'socio-economical values and systems'. The researcher mentions that definitions of social entrepreneurship vary from country to country. For example, SE definition in the US stresses on solving social problems by private initiatives. However, in European definitions, profit, funding and governance statuses are not usually strictly specified. Looking for a common working definition becomes even more difficult when developing countries are taken into consideration (Grassl, 2012). It is noteworthy that the same type of activities may or may not be considered social entrepreneurial in different countries. For example, in Western Europe social cooperatives are considered under the social enterprise domain that is not the case in the United States (Kerlin, 2010). Some researchers even categorise small businesses that operate in rural areas as social ventures since they contribute to the well-being of local inhabitants (Poon et al., 2009). This is especially true of the rural areas in the developing or transitional economies where existence of small businesses may have a particularly significant importance for the social welfare of local communities. Furthermore, according to Bacq and Janssen (2011), governmental actions may influence the nature of social entrepreneurial activities. For example, European states are better against mobilising their resources to deal exclusion and poverty among others. While in the US, poverty is more of a charity than a governmental issue. That is why, in the US, social entrepreneurship can be considered as a substitute to social security (Bacq and Janssen, 2011).

Bacq and Janssen (2011) have analysed North American and European literatures using Gartner's (1985) four differentiating aspects: the individual, the process, the organisation and the environment. At first sight, there seems to be a difference between the American and European conceptions of social entrepreneurship. Although, the analysis shows that there is no distinctive difference between the continents and the reality is that different definitions coexist. It is notable that several European governments have created new organisational frameworks to support social entrepreneurship. Besides, several organisations facilitating social entrepreneurial initiatives have emerged both in Europe and North America (Bacq and Janssen, 2011).

Kerlin (2010) compares the context of social enterprises across 7 regions and countries of the world: Western Europe, East-Central Europe, Japan, the United States, Zimbabwe and Zambia,

Argentina, and Southeast Asia. The author uses social origins theory, recent comparative research on social enterprises and socioeconomic contexts to distinguish the factors that influenced the emergence of social enterprise in these regions. Uses of social enterprise, its organisational forms, legal structures and supportive environment are the factors that may be varying across different regions. According to Kerlin (2009), social enterprise is most commonly associated with the following elements: civil society, state capacity, market functioning and international aid. The general unifying theme about the emergence of social enterprise in almost all regions has been linked to weak state social programmes and/or funding. In the US, non-profits started generating market income after losing access to government funds. In Western Europe, the social enterprise movement was a response to the unemployment problem. As a result, work integration of unemployed through social cooperatives and provision of human services became some of the most common activities of SEs. In East-Central Europe, social enterprise initiatives had to tackle the problems created by the withdrawal of the state as a result of the fall of communism. In addition, transition to market economy led to high levels of unemployment. In Argentina, various cooperatives and mutual benefit societies were created to solve problems of unemployment and social exclusion. In Zimbabwe and Zambia, because of poor state support and economies, international aid has mainly focused on micro-credit schemes for small enterprises. In Southeast Asia, social enterprises are addressing poverty, unemployment and environmental issues. Finally, social ventures in Japan are focused on social integration (Kerlin, 2009).

The research study of Lepoutre et al. (2013) showed that there was higher social entrepreneurial activity in innovation-driven countries, followed by efficiency-driven and factor-driven economies. Although, it might be predicted that developing countries that have severe social problems and state failures would have more social enterprises, the reverse turned out to be true. One of the reasons can be that there are other objectives that must be achieved in developing countries. In addition, the USA and Western Europe were characterised with higher number of NGOs while Latin America and Caribbean countries were dominated by hybrid organisations. A high level of pure regular entrepreneurship was also a good predictor for high rates of social entrepreneurship activity.

The recent GEM Special Report on Social Entrepreneurship of 2015-2016 has found out that, according to the broad definition, the average rate of social entrepreneurial activity at the start-up phase across covered 58 economies is 3.2% ranging from 0.3% in South Korea to 10.1% in Peru. In contrast, the average prevalence rate of the start-up commercial entrepreneurship is 7.6% around the globe. When it comes to the operating social entrepreneurial activity, the average rate is 3.7%, ranging from 0.4% in Iran to 14% in Senegal. In case of applying the narrow definition of social entrepreneurial activity, the rates go down considerably by almost 2/3 and total 1.1% for the nascent entrepreneurs and 1.2% for currently operating social entrepreneurs (Bosma et al., 2016). According to the GEM 2015-2016 study, almost half of the individuals currently involved in operating social entrepreneurial activity reinvest their profits for the achievement of social goals. In addition, the gender gap in social entrepreneurial activity was considerably smaller with 55% male and 45% female compared to commercial entrepreneurial activity where the ratio was around 2:1. When it comes to the finance, most of the social entrepreneurs use personal funds, however, the share of own investment varies around the globe – from 30% in sub-Saharan Africa to 60% in South-East Asia and Middle East and North Africa (MENA). More than 1/3 of the social entrepreneurs use government funds and family and banks remain key sources of funding for them (Bosma et al., 2016). It is also important to note that Western Europe, Australia and the US had the highest conversion rates of social entrepreneurial activity from start-up phase to operational phase. This can be explained by highest levels of institutional support mechanisms among others. On the other side, Sub-Saharan Africa had a highest rate of overlap between commercial and social entrepreneurship. As it can be assumed, lower levels of economic development facilitate intertwine between social and business activities, also since this region is characterised with leading rates in necessity entrepreneurship. The studies have also shown that younger generation is more involved in social entrepreneurship (Bosma et al., 2016).

Similarly, Defourny and Nyssens (2010) divide the European countries according to their socio-economic contexts in four parts: corporatist, socio-democratic, liberal and the southern European countries. For example, the corporatist countries (Belgium, France, Germany, and Ireland) play a key role in provision of social services. High rates of unemployment in the corporatist countries in the 80s were addressed by the different associations integrating unemployed people though a

productive activity. In order to solve problems both in unemployment and social needs, job creation was encouraged in those areas that needed to satisfy social needs. The socio-democratic countries (the Nordic countries such as Sweden, Norway and Denmark) are characterised by strong cooperative movement. The UK that is viewed as an example of the liberal model is characterised with a lower level of public social spending. Though, the government creates a competitive environment for the public sector, third sector and for-profit organisations to win the contracts for the social service provision. As a result, the entrepreneurial dimension of the associations has been increased noticeably. The southern European countries such as Spain, Italy and Portugal have a solid tradition of cooperatives. In Italy such kind of cooperatives became especially active in terms of work integration of the excluded people. In contrast, in the US, the share of the public support decreased significantly while the commercial income has increased (Kerlin, 2006).

Legal Specificities. Haugh (2005) notes that as different legal formats are being adopted by social enterprises in different countries, nowadays it makes national and international comparisons unreliable. In the UK only, there are many different formats in which social enterprises operate. Though, valid statistical data has not yet been produced for each type of organisation. Galera and Borzaga (2009, p.210) propose that “the legal recognition of social enterprise contributes to conceptual clarification”. Laratta et al. (2011) also note that without a specific legal structure it is difficult to realise underlying concept of social enterprise. However, there is a contrasting view that the organisational form and the legal structure do not suggest much about the enterprise activities and its impact (Elson and Hall, 2012).

There are several organisational types or legal frameworks in which social enterprises function. These types usually differ according to countries or regions. For example, in Japan, the most common legal forms for social enterprise are non-profit and company. In contrast, in Argentina, cooperative and mutual benefit societies are most widespread forms. Several countries have also created separate legal frameworks for social enterprises even though it might not be the organisational form most often used by SEs. Western Europe is an evident leader in this regard (Kerlin, 2010). Furthermore, according to Micheline and Fiorentino (2012), the joint social venture is the form of social enterprise that makes it possible to create more shared value. In this

case, for-profit and non-profit organisations form a joint business. The legal entity is then called a social business enterprise. The profits generated by the venture first cover the capital investments and are later reinvested into the enterprise. This kind of cooperation is mutually beneficial – the for-profit company provides economic, managerial and technological resources, while the non-profit organisation contributes by its knowledge of local needs and established networks.

Defourny and Nyssens (2010) make an overview of the development of new legal forms for social enterprises in Europe. As the authors note, Italy was the first country to adopt a law focusing on two types of social cooperatives: the ones delivering social, health and education services and those ones offering work integration to disadvantaged people. While France, Spain, Portugal and Greece created new legal forms for the cooperative type, Belgium, the UK and Italy decided to pass the bills on more open models of the social enterprise. Though, despite the creation of the new legal forms, many social enterprises still adopt already existing forms such as association, cooperative, company limited by guarantee or by share, etc. For instance, social enterprises are usually set up as associations if the legal form of an association allows a considerable freedom to sell goods/services. Otherwise, social enterprises adopt cooperative or traditional business forms. It is noteworthy that the work integration social enterprise is a dominant form of SEs in Europe. Several European countries such as France, Finland, Poland and Spain have special public schemes targeting such types of social enterprises. Though, these schemes serve as official registers for social enterprises and they do not introduce any different legal forms. Having a preference or non-preference attitude towards social enterprises during the selection process for public contracts is another controversial topic. For instance, Italy has a quota of social enterprises for certain public contracts. In certain other countries the legal frameworks regulating the public contracts are neutral or less favourable for social enterprises (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

Different legal forms can be appropriate in different cases and ‘copying’ also needs a careful consideration. For instance, Lan (2014) notes that UK’s Community Interest Company (CIC) model that involves asset lock and dividend cap to ensure the service for community (Liao, 2014) could be more beneficial for China than the US benefit corporation model since the UK

model also operates at the intersection of government and associations, though, it would require similar ‘light touch’ from the side of the government as it is the case in the UK. Furthermore, Reinsch et al. (2017) argue that traditional US legal forms can be as effective in preventing mission drift as socially oriented legal forms, given the fact that social goals are integrated into the legal form of the enterprise.

As we have seen, different historical perspectives have shaped contrasting realities internationally that in turn influenced the adoption of differing legal forms by social enterprises and creation of special frameworks by the governments.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

There are many different perspectives on social entrepreneurship and its definition. As we have seen from the literature review, finding a common operating definition is of an utmost importance for conducting valid national and international statistical research studies. Though, there is no consensus on what can be regarded a social enterprise and what not. Furthermore, there seems to be no end to the scientific debate on this issue.

Several researchers (Alter, 2006; Dees, 1998; Lepoutre et al., 2013) view social enterprises as a part of the hybrid spectrum that seems to be a legitimate approach. Our perspective on this topic is to endorse this view and place a social enterprise on the continuum of social value creation. Besides, social entrepreneurship is a field resting on the multidimensional continuum with the major dimensions of focus on social value creation, market orientation and innovativeness. Several additional dimensions and criteria can be also mentioned, though we suggest that these three factors define the field, as similarly viewed by Lepoutre et al. (2013). Though, our aim is to propose an inclusive definition on the common core of the proposed definitions.

Consequently, the definition of the field can be formulated in the following way: *Social entrepreneurship is a process of opportunity discovery or creation and creative resource mobilisation towards predominant social value creation with either certain level of market orientation or innovativeness or a combination of both.*

Therefore, the social enterprise continuum would consist of innovative social enterprises, market-oriented social enterprises and innovative market-oriented social enterprises at the intersection of two types. In this way, our definition will be bridging definitions that focus more on earned income generation and the definitions that articulate on the aspect of innovativeness.

We can go back to the questions posed in the beginning of the paper:

Does the research have to focus on social entrepreneurial processes, social entrepreneurs or social enterprises?

The research must be conducted on all dimensions. Though, the focus on process and organisational dimensions rather than on individual characteristics would further advance the field making the findings more generalisable and escaping from the illustrations of heroic social entrepreneurs and best practice cases only. The focus on processes will help us see all the elements that combine for a successful social value creation. While focus on organisational dimension is important as outcomes are in the end that matter.

Can this definition overcome the differences in national representations of SE?

The definition can overcome the differences in national representations of SE. The social entrepreneurship can have different forms in different countries though our definition is built on the common core of existing definitions.

How this definition could be operationalised through indicators, items, that would be workable both in quantitative and qualitative approaches?

In order to operationalise this definition, we need a set of tangible and measurable parameters that will make it possible to conduct valid national and international research employing both qualitative and quantitative approaches. For this purpose, first, we must look at the share that is spent on social issues that can be one of the aspects to assess the level of organisational focus on social mission. Besides, distribution of priorities between social and financial goals may also provide a valuable insight (Lepoutre et al., 2013). Next, in order to assess the relative market orientation of social enterprises, we can find it out from the percentage of earned income. Finally, innovativeness can be measured on a specific scale through series of questions, for

example, through the types of questions used in GEM 2009 and 2015-2016 studies on social enterprises. For instance, providing new products or services, offering a new approach to producing a product/service, or new way of delivery and promotion and unattended customer niche can characterise innovations among social enterprises (Bosma et al., 2016; Lepoutre et al., 2013). At the end, the researchers can select the sample that will conform to their preferences. As a result, the research will be valid at least in those specific sample boundaries.

Finally, certainly, there are several more dimensions other than focus on social mission, business activities and level of innovativeness that characterise social entrepreneurship. They can be used as complementary criteria. For instance, differentiation of social enterprise business models according to embedded, integrated or external social missions (Alter, 2006) can be beneficial for the process of analysis among others. Furthermore, researchers can test their hypotheses on different types of social enterprises and later check the generalisability of findings on other forms of social entrepreneurial ventures.

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APPENDIX 1 – ICSEM SE Models Typology according to different countries

#	Country	SE Models according to ICSEM Working Papers	Source
1	Australia	Meeting unmet consumer needs of excluded groups or locales; Advancing charitable or community purpose; Creating opportunities for community participation; Providing work integration opportunities for disadvantaged groups; Promoting ethical consumption through ethical production and supply; Strengthening the social economy; Social and environmental innovation	Barraket et al. (2016)
2	Austria	Foundations, Cooperatives, Social Enterprises (SEs) and Social Entrepreneurs	Anastasiadis and Lang (2016)
3	Belgium	Entrepreneurial non-profits, Social cooperatives and Social ventures	Huybrechts et al. (2016)
4	Brazil	Service provision and community development; Support for productive activities of members; Work and primary income generation for members; Work and income complement for members; Work EESs (solidarity economy enterprises) with insufficient payment of members	Gaiger et al. (2015)
5	Cambodia	Trading non-profit organisations, Work-integration social enterprises (WISEs), Non-profit cooperatives, Non-profit-for-profit partnerships, Community development enterprises	Lyne et al. (2015)
6	Canada (national)	Co-operative, Non-profit organisation, Community development / interest organisation, First Nation businesses, Business with a social mission	McMurtry et al. (2015)
7	Canada (Quebec)	Institutionalised social economy, Social economy periphery or inclusive social economy movement, Social purpose enterprises	Bouchard et al. (2015)
8	Chile	Traditional cooperatives, Non-profits (corporations, foundations, some NGOs), B Corps, Community enterprises	Giovannini and Nachar (2017)
9	Croatia	Social enterprises driven by employment (“people-driven” SEs), Social enterprises driven by financial sustainability (“income-driven” SEs), Social enterprises driven by innovative solutions	Vidović and Baturina (2016)

		(“innovation-driven” SEs)	
10	Czech Republic	Model of social enterprise from the civic sector: Association, Public benefit organisation, Institute, Foundation, Church legal person; Model of social enterprise from the cooperative sector: the cooperative; Model of social enterprise from the business sector: the limited liability company, the public company, the self-employed individual from disadvantaged social groups; Work integration social enterprise	Dohnalová et al. (2015)
11	Equador	Cooperatives, Community-based organisations, Organisations embedded in social movements, New popular economy ventures	Ruiz Rivera and Lemaître (2017)
12	Finland	Identification of social enterprise models: Institutionalised social enterprises - Work integration social enterprises; Non-institutionalised social enterprises: New cooperatives, Other organisations providing work integration, Social and welfare service organisations (owned by associations and foundations), Soci(et)al impact-oriented small businesses (“smart-ups”). New typology of Finnish social enterprises: Social enterprises providing public (welfare) services, Emerging alternative economic initiatives, Impact businesses and “smart-ups”, Social impact redistributors.	Kostilainen et al. (2016)
13	France	General interest and multiple-stakeholder organisations, Entrepreneurial associations, Commercial businesses with a social purpose and social entrepreneurs	Fraisse et al. (2016)
14	Germany	Older social economy movements: the co-operative model, the welfare model, the model of foundations, the model of traditional associations. Younger social economy movements: integration enterprises, volunteer agencies, self-managed enterprises of alternative-, women- and eco-movements, self-help initiatives, socio-cultural centres, German work integration enterprises, local exchange and trading systems, neighbourhood and community enterprises, social entrepreneurship, mutual insurance systems	Birkhölzer (2015)

15	Hungary	Public service provision social enterprises, Enterprising civil society organisations (CSOs), Work integration CSOs, Local development community enterprises, Social start-up enterprises, Solidarity economy initiatives	Fekete et al. (2017)
16	Indonesia	Entrepreneurial non-profit organisation (NPO), Social cooperative (SC) model, Community development enterprise (CDE) model, Social business (SB) model	Pratono et al. (2016)
17	Ireland	WISE operational model	O'Hara and O'Shaughnessy (2017)
18	Israel	Social businesses, NPOs, Cooperatives	Gidron et al. (2015)
19	Italy	Social cooperatives, Social enterprises under the form of associations, Social enterprises under the form of foundations and religious institutions, Limited company social enterprises	Borzaga et al. (2017)
20	Japan	Health co-op model, Koseiren model	Kurimoto (2015)
		Earned-income non-profits approach, Non-profit-cooperative approach, Social business approach	Nakagawa and Laratta (2015)
21	Mexico	Rural organisms, Organisations of workers, Cooperatives, Exclusive or majority companies of workers, Workers' savings associations, Credit unions, Community financial societies (SOFINCOs), Unregulated multiple-object financial societies (SOFOMs), Social groups	Conde (2015)
22	New Zealand	Trading Not-for-Profits and Community Economic Development, Social innovation – through youth and technology, Māori Social Enterprises	Grant (2015)
23	Poland	Co-operatives, Entrepreneurial non-profit organisations, Work and social integration social enterprises	Ciepielewska-Kowalik et al. (2015)
24	Rwanda	Non-governmental organisations (NGO), Cooperatives, Informal associations, Social entrepreneurs, Public/private partnerships,	Rwamigabo (2017)

		Companies carrying out social activities	
25	South Africa	Not-for-profit models: Voluntary associations, Trusts, Non-profit companies (NPC). For-profit models: Private companies ([Pty] Ltd), personal liability companies (Inc.) and public companies (Ltd), Close corporations (CC), Cooperatives, Sole proprietorship. Hybrid structures	Claeyé (2016)
26	South Korea	The “self-sufficiency” meta-model, The “SEPA” (Social Enterprise Promotion Act) meta-model, The “social economy” meta-model	Bidet and Eum (2015);
		Work Integration Social Enterprises, Social Services Provision Social Enterprises, Regional Regeneration Social Enterprises, Alter-economy Social Enterprises	Hwang et al. (2016)
27	Spain	The traditional model mainly corresponding to work integration social enterprises (WISEs), The intermediate model, The emerging model in specific areas such as culture, fair trade and sustainable development	Díaz-Foncea et al. (2017)
28	Sweden	Work integration social enterprises (WISE), Non-profit social enterprises, Social purpose businesses, Societal entrepreneurship	Gawell (2015)
29	Switzerland	Actors originally described as social enterprises: Work Integration Social Enterprise (WISE), Hybrid, economic social service actor. Actors referring to a specific conception of the economy: Social enterprises as SSE organisations, Social enterprises and the economy for the common good, The social entrepreneurship actors. Cooperatives: Consumer cooperatives, Worker cooperatives, Agricultural and producers’ cooperatives. Actors at the periphery: Third sector actors with no business activity, Third sector actors with separate business activity, Small and medium enterprises with strong (family) values and local anchorage	Gonin and Gachet (2015)
30	Taiwan	Work integration or affirmative enterprises, Local community-based social enterprises, Social Enterprises Trading /Providing Social Services and Products, Venture capital business created for the benefits of NPO, Social cooperatives	Kuan and Wang (2015)
31	The	Social cooperatives (social coops), Social-mission-driven	Dacanay (2017)

	Philippines	microfinance institutions (SMD-MFIs), Fair trade organisations (FTOs), Trading development organisations (TRADOs), New generation social enterprises (New-Gen SEs)	
32	United Arab Emirates	Publicly-owned social enterprises, Privately-owned social enterprises: Self-contained social enterprises, Social enterprises incubated by a company's Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) department, Social enterprises which are part of an international non-profit organisation, but are independently licenced in the UAE	Johnsen (2016)
34	UK	Co-operatives, Charity social enterprises, For-profit social enterprises, Community interest companies (CICs)	Spear et al. (2017)
35	Ukraine	The entrepreneur support model, The employment (work integration) model, The service subsidisation model, The fee-for-service model, The organisational support model	Bibikova (2015)
36	USA	Work integration social enterprises (WISEs), Low-profit limited liability company (L3C), Benefit corporations	Cooney (2015)
37	Vietnam	Cooperatives, Social enterprises established and driven by social entrepreneurs, Social enterprises incubated by professional intermediaries, Social enterprises transformed from local NGOs	Pham et al. (2016)

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Transition

The main objective of the first chapter was to define social entrepreneurship and operationalize it. Despite long academic debates on the definition of SE, there has been no convergence on this topic which makes it difficult to conduct more quantitative and international studies to legitimize the field. Based on the systematic review of the literature and a common core of SE definitional landscape, social entrepreneurship has been defined as *a process of opportunity discovery or creation and creative resource mobilisation towards predominant social value creation with either a certain level of market orientation or innovativeness or a combination of both*.

Relating to the research questions, the study suggested that it is recommended to focus more on the process and organizational aspects, rather than on individual dimension in order to further advance the field. It is also argued that the proposed definition can overcome the differences in national representations of SE. Finally, the study suggests that the definition can be operationalized through the items and indicators and be workable for both quantitative and qualitative studies. Specifically, focus on social value creation can be assessed through the share spent on the social mission or a distribution of priorities among different dimensions, whereas market orientation can be assessed through the share of the earned income, and innovativeness can be measured via scales used in the GEM studies (Bosma et al., 2016; Lepoutre et al., 2013), for example, evaluating innovativeness in the following aspects: providing new products or services, offering a new approach to producing a product/service, or new way of delivery and promotion and unattended customer niche.

As long as we have an operational definition of social entrepreneurship, we can develop a conceptual model of sustainability of social enterprises and test it on social enterprises. Applying a business model approach has been suggested for understanding social enterprise performance more thoroughly (Demil et al., 2015). The academic debate on the interrelationship between social value creation and economic value creation has been quite active (Mongelli et al., 2019; Spieth et al., 2019), though there is no overall consensus on this issue. Correspondingly, the aim of chapter 2 is to study the relationship between business model implementation and

performance of social enterprises. Specifically, the effects of social imprinting, strength of the partner network and social bricolage on social and economic performance of SEs will be assessed. The paper will also study the relationship between social and economic performance of social enterprises.

The following research questions are going to be addressed:

- What are some of the most important factors influencing the sustainability of social enterprises?
- Do the social imprinting, strength of partner network and social bricolage have positive effects on sustainability of social enterprises - their social and economic performance?
- Can social enterprises be successful both in terms of social performance and economic performance?

The chapter 2 mobilizes legitimacy theory, stakeholder theory and resource-based view theory to frame the theoretical framework to study the relationship between social imprinting, strength of the partner network and social bricolage, on the one hand and social and commercial performance, on the other hand. The quantitative study in the form of a questionnaire survey will be conducted on Swedish work integration social enterprises.

Chapitre 2

Comprendre la performance de l'entreprise sociale – Une approche fondée sur le *business model*

Résumé : Ce papier a pour objectif de mieux comprendre la performance des entreprises sociales dans une optique de développement durable. Le modèle conceptuel propose que la performance durable de l'entreprise sociale repose sur la mise en œuvre d'un *business model* qui assure un équilibre entre création de valeur économique et création de valeur sociale. Ces hypothèses ont été testées par une enquête conduite en Suède auprès d'un échantillon de 115 entreprises sociales d'intégration au marché du travail (en anglais *WISEs* pour *work-integration social enterprises*). Les résultats des analyses de données montrent que l'intégration précoce de l'orientation sociale au *business model* (*social imprinting*) ainsi que la force du réseau de partenaires sont positivement reliées à la performance sociale, alors que le bricolage social a un effet positif à la fois sur la performance économique et la performance sociale. La performance économique et la performance sociale des entreprises sont aussi positivement corrélées entre elles suggérant que les *WISEs* peuvent réussir à concilier ces deux dimensions.

Mots-Clés : *entrepreneuriat social ; entreprises sociales ; performance de l'entreprise sociale ; performance sociale ; performance économique ; business model ; réseau de partenaires ; imprégnation sociale ; bricolage social ; entreprises sociales d'intégration au marché du travail ; WISE ; Suède.*

Chapter 2

Understanding Social Enterprise Performance – A Business Model Approach

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Abstract: This paper aims to provide a better understanding of the performance of social enterprises within a sustainability approach. The conceptual model proposes that the major aspect of sustainability lies in the implementation of business models that create a balance between social and economic value creation. The hypotheses were tested on a sample of 115 Swedish work integration social enterprises (WISEs), and an analysis of the results suggests that social imprinting and partner network strength are positively related to social performance, whereas social bricolage has a positive effect on both social and economic performance. The social and economic performance of social enterprises are also positively associated with each other, suggesting the possibility that WISEs can be simultaneously successful in both dimensions.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship; social enterprises; social enterprise performance; social performance; economic performance; business models; partner network; social imprinting; social bricolage; work integration social enterprises; Sweden.

1 Introduction

The academic literature on entrepreneurship largely discusses value creation by firms (Acs et al., 2013; Korsgaard and Anderson, 2011; Spieth et al., 2019). Although economic value creation may be the primary focus, social and environmental value are nonetheless considered to be inseparable (Svensson et al., 2018; Tate and Bals, 2018). The role of business in society is critically assessed, and studies stress the importance of greater responsibility from the enterprise sector (Fernando and Sim, 2011; Lenssen et al., 2006; Miller, 2005; Sastry, 2011). The questions raised concern commercial firms and social enterprises as well as other hybrid types of organisations (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Doherty et al., 2014; Powell et al., 2019). Social enterprises are usually described as non-for-profit private organisations with primarily social objectives that reinvest their surplus to support their mission (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008; Department of Trade and Industry, 2002). SEs are placed at the intersection of governments, banks, charity, welfare and venture philanthropy (Gillin, 2006). They are seen as enablers of integration in the labour market and of social and economic development (Sdrali et al., 2016). The research also focuses its interest on the business models employed by these enterprises, aiming to understand the ways they create, deliver and capture value (Florin and Schmidt, 2011; Olofsson et al., 2018; Sodhi and Tang, 2011; Tykkyläinen and Ritala, 2020). These questions could be particularly important in times of crisis when enterprises with primarily social objectives tend to attract more attention (Doherty et al., 2014).

Understanding whether social enterprises manage to achieve high levels of both social and economic performance is highly important. Several researchers (Demil et al., 2015) assert that understanding business models, i.e., how social enterprises create, deliver and capture value (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010) has significant potential for understanding social enterprise performance. Business models are increasingly being addressed in the scientific literature (Spieth et al., 2019; Wirtz et al., 2016a), where business model innovation has been of particular interest (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010; Spieth et al., 2014; Wirtz et al., 2016a), including its positive effect on the SE performance and legitimacy (Wang and Zhou, 2020), since organisations need to find new ways of creating value in today's ever competitive world. Business models are viewed as manipulable instruments that can be utilised to study different cause-and-effect relationships (Baden-Fuller and Mangematin, 2013), though there is a level of ambiguity that

makes it difficult to understand the effects of a business model's configuration on firm performance (Klang et al., 2014).

The business model approach has also been increasingly discussed in the social entrepreneurship literature. Social entrepreneurship researchers also stress the lack of studies on business models in social entrepreneurship, especially comparisons of business models (Michelini and Fiorentino, 2012) and studies of the evolution of business models (Zeyen et al., 2013), and they more generally suggest studying the underlying business models instead of the organisation as the central unit of analysis (Santos et al., 2015; Santos, 2012). In this regard, investigating the factors that play an important role in having a socially and economically successful social venture is another interesting direction for research.

The relationship between business models and performance has not been widely investigated (Eckhardt, 2013; Wirtz et al., 2016a). The performance of business models must be adequately addressed (Wirtz et al., 2016b), as there is a lack of studies classifying the characteristics of business models and associating them with specific outcomes; there is also little understanding of the various dimensions of business models and the modes in which they can be configured (Eckhardt, 2013). This gap is particularly wide for research on social enterprise business models and their performance. Studying the performance outcomes of different business models, understanding which business models social ventures should use, and uncovering how entrepreneurs manage to make social business models efficient are some of the research questions that need to be addressed (Demil et al., 2015). In addition, there is a gap in understanding whether social enterprises manage to be successful in both the social and economic dimensions (Bellostas et al., 2016; Ebrahim et al., 2014). Determining whether the relationship between social and commercial missions should be viewed as a continuum or orthogonal is considered a future research problem (Stevens et al., 2015).

In this study, we study the connection between the implementation of business models and the performance of social enterprises. Specifically, this paper investigates the influence of social imprinting, partner network strength and social bricolage on the social and economic performance of social enterprises. We also address the interrelationship of social performance with economic performance among social enterprises.

Our contribution to the literature is two-fold. First, we study the relationship between the implementation of business models and performance, following a call from several researchers (Demil et al., 2015; Eckhardt, 2013; Wang and Zhou, 2020; Wirtz et al., 2016b). Specifically, the effect of social imprinting (Battilana et al., 2015), partner network strength (Choi, 2015; Weber and Kratzer, 2013) and social bricolage (Di Domenico et al., 2010) on the social and economic performance of social enterprises is investigated. Second, we investigate whether social enterprises manage to establish socially and economically successful enterprises or whether they incline more towards the economic or social side to address the debate on this issue in the scientific literature (Bellostas et al., 2016; Ebrahim et al., 2014; Mongelli et al., 2019; Pirson, 2012; Spieth et al., 2019; Wilson and Post, 2013).

2 Literature review

2.1 Theoretical framework

The study of resources is one of the key directions in social entrepreneurship (Gras et al., 2011; Hill et al., 2010). Mobilising critical resources is an important precondition for social enterprise success (Friedrichs and Wahlberg, 2016). Social enterprises depend on a combination of resources from commercial, state and voluntary sources (Defourny and Nyssens, 2006), and social entrepreneurs are considered to be developers of practical solutions that recognise resource constraints (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014; Santos, 2012). From this perspective, resource-based view (RBV) theory (Barney, 1991) can be considered to be important for understanding social enterprises. Based on the RBV, Bacq and Eddleston (2018) argue that the scale of social enterprises' impact largely depends on their ability to engage their stakeholders, attract support from the government and generate earned income. Some researchers even propose a social resource-based view of firms to stress the social dimension within the framework of this theory (Tate and Bals, 2018). Examining the RBV theory that focuses on internal resources (Ndubisi et al., 2014), resourcefulness and bricolage appear to be useful concepts for analysing social enterprises (Akingbola, 2013; Lin and Nabergoj, 2014).

Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994) is important for shaping the appropriate theoretical framework for social enterprises. For instance, Smith et al. (2013) propose a stakeholder

approach to analyse the tensions in social enterprises. The role of stakeholders is highlighted in regard to social entrepreneurship (Gras et al., 2011; Hill et al., 2010; Zeyen et al., 2013) because stakeholders are more important for social enterprises, as stakeholders rather than shareholders determine accountability practices in social enterprises (Sarman et al., 2015). Social enterprises deal with multiple stakeholders, and their success is highly dependent on successful collaboration with key actors. Correspondingly, common goals are achieved by combining the knowledge with the expertise of stakeholders (London, 2008). The importance of stakeholders suggests that partners, as one of the key stakeholders, and the strength of the partner network are particularly important for social enterprises.

The legitimacy theory perspective is appropriate for analysing social enterprises. Social enterprises employ different practices to attract the required support, relationships and investments (Sarpong and Davies, 2014), and they gain organisational legitimacy from both the public and private sector (Blessing, 2015). Bolzani et al. (2019) maintain that social enterprises gain moral and pragmatic legitimacy from their institutional context. However, according to Kuosmanen (2014), work integration social enterprises borrow legitimacy-gaining practices from commercial enterprises and use different forms of legitimacy, such as pragmatic exchange and normative, cognitive and relational legitimacy, in different settings. From this perspective, social imprinting, i.e., an initial focus on a predominant logic (Bauwens et al., 2020) of a social dimension could be an important concept for understanding social enterprises, as having a social orientation may form legitimacy for social enterprises.

2.2 Business models in social entrepreneurship

Several definitions for business models exist in the scientific literature. Hamel (2000, p.66) defines a business model as “a business concept that has been put into practice”. Demil and Lecocq (2010) note that a business model is the way a company functions to ensure its sustainability. Most authors stress that the business model describes how the organisation creates value (Amit and Zott, 2001; Casadesus-Masanell and Ricart, 2010; Chesbrough, 2010; Gurău et al., 2015; Mahadevan, 2000; Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010; Spieth et al., 2019; Teece, 2010). The business model concept, that can be used in established firms and not only in the startup context (Verstraete et al., 2017), will help us better understand social enterprise performance.

There is a stream of scientific literature that focuses on the components of business models. For instance, Wirtz et al., (2016b) summarised the components of business models that are used to define several business model classifications. The business model components are grouped under the following 9 themes: strategy, resources, network, customers, market offering (value proposition), revenues, service provision, procurement and finances. Based on the existence of different business model components, Andersén et al. (2015) even argue that a construct such as entrepreneurial orientation at the overall firm level cannot explain firm performance, as an organisation can be entrepreneurial from one perspective but conservative from another. Therefore, the authors advocate for “deconstruction” of the concept. We follow Wirtz et al.’s (2016b) perspective, since it outlines the major components for the implementation of business models that can aid us in the analysis of social enterprises.

The business model approach has been used by several authors to analyse social ventures. Several business model approaches exist that can be used for analysing social enterprises (Alter, 2006; Dohrmann et al., 2015; Mair et al., 2012; Santos, 2012). The typology developed by Alter (2006) is based on the nature of the work carried out by social enterprises. The social business model classification of Dohrmann et al. (2015) is mostly based on differences in the utilisation of resources. In contrast, the study of Mair et al. (2012) analyses social entrepreneurship models from the perspective of the need for different types of capital, namely, political, social, human and economic. As we can see, there could be a different understanding and ‘operationalisation’ of business models.

Santos (2012) maintains that the business model must be the central unit of analysis, instead of the organisation, when studying social entrepreneurship. The author notes that there is still much to be understood about the types of business models that are employed when the main driver is value creation rather than value capture. Thus, Santos (2012) distinguishes “value creating” and “value capturing” business models and states that social entrepreneurship is inclined towards the former. Similarly, Bellostas et al. (2016) state that social enterprises must prioritise social optimisation and that this strategy will result in economic value.

As value creation lies at the heart of the business model concept, there is a stream of literature that focuses more on the interaction between social and economic value creation and the tensions

subsequently arising in the process. Hence, a business model can be viewed as a balancing mechanism for such tensions (Andel, 2020).

2.3 Tensions between social and economic value creation

Business models for any type of firm should aim at creating both social and financial benefits, but social entrepreneurs are considered paragons of shared value creation (Pirson, 2012; Porter and Kramer, 2011). It is noteworthy that financial value creation cannot be sustained without other values, and social value creation among others (Klein, 2007). Especially, social entrepreneurs are expected to create social value besides achieving economic performance (Kee, 2017). Hence, social value is defined as a concept that refers to the “non-financial impacts of programs, organisations and interventions, including the wellbeing of individuals and communities, social capital and the environment” (Wood and Leighton, 2010).

Achieving economic sustainability and social mission is a complex objective (Leung et al., 2019) that may affect the long-term sustainability of a social enterprise. Accordingly, social ventures must maintain legitimacy with both types of stakeholders, those concerned with the creation of economic value and those focused on social value (Moizer and Tracey, 2010). However, hybrid organisations such as social enterprises may have conflicting demands, and the factors contributing positively to social value creation could have a negative impact on economic performance, and vice versa (Cheah et al., 2019). Correspondingly, value differences and business models can be the key barriers to growth (Davies et al., 2019). There is a debate in the scientific literature regarding whether it is possible for social enterprises to simultaneously achieve high levels of both social and economic performance or whether an inclination towards one of these directions must occur (Ebrahim et al., 2014).

A limited number of research studies support the claim that SEs are successful in meeting social goals and being financially viable (Powell et al., 2019). Some researchers maintain that social enterprises mostly achieve success in only one dimension. It is argued that the significant negative relationship between social and economic missions suggests that these two types of missions lie on two extremes of a continuum (Stevens et al., 2015). The reason for such a result may be the limited resources that must be distributed to achieve either social or commercial goals (Gupta et al., 2006). However, this may not be a universal explanation, and social

enterprises may have high or low performance levels on both types of missions (Stevens et al., 2015). Nevertheless, prioritising profit maximisation may not always lead to the maximisation of social benefits (Teasdale, 2012). Through time, social ventures may develop either financially or socially oriented strategies (Pirson, 2012) that contradict the idea that shared value creation is a balanced orientation for social entrepreneurs (Pirson, 2012; Porter and Kramer, 2011). Similarly, several other researchers maintain that social entrepreneurship must be considered from a single value creation perspective (Thompson and Doherty, 2006). Although the findings of the research study showed a positive relationship between social and economic performance, it is argued that economic value results from the social strategy and that it is not possible to pursue both social and economic value (Bellostas et al., 2016).

In contrast, other researchers argue that it is possible to be successful both in the social and the economic dimension. Notably SEs started emphasising both commercial and social logics (Litrico and Besharov, 2019). According to Wilson and Post (2013), contrary to traditional thinking that achieving social and commercial missions is a zero-sum game, social businesses can find new efficient equilibria where financial investments and social impact investments contribute to each other. It is argued that social enterprises manage to achieve win-win value creation (Zeyen et al., 2014), and social and commercial goals reinforce each other (Spieth et al., 2019). Research findings reveal that SEs with a dual objective of reaching social and financial goals are more sustainable and competitive than SEs with social impact as their only objective (Leung et al., 2019). Specifically, the economic component may have a direct effect on the social mission and become interconnected with it (Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019). Moreover, SEs that have strong economic orientation contribute to successful and balanced social and commercial performance (Straessens et al., 2019), and while being well-managed, social and economic components may contribute to each other (Mongelli et al., 2019).

There are researchers who avoid the social/commercial dichotomy, which seems to be a legitimate approach, and instead focus on a more holistic conception of value that is defined as an “increase in the utility of society’s members” (Santos, 2012, p.337). As Santos (2012) notes, the major debate is not about the tension between social and economic value creation but about that between value creation and value capture overall. Santos (2012) states that the trade-off lays between value creation and value capture, as these dimensions are not usually perfectly

correlated. According to the author, organisations must determine their dominant focus between value creation and value capture, since a change in organisational identity can result in a loss of legitimacy among key stakeholders. The reason is that enterprises are embedded in a web of networks with respective expectations (Santos, 2012). Agafonow (2015, p.1055), in a similar manner, suggests that social enterprises forego the stages of value creation, value capture and value devolution, where value devolution describes the process of “giving away market power for consumers’ sake”. Lastly, emerging research is challenging the mission/market dichotomy and instead offers to define hybridity in terms of a moral choice of the economic system and social value orientation (Bull and Ridley-Duff, 2019).

3 Framing the conceptual model

It is notable that Choi (2015) uses the RBV theory to connect partnerships, resource conditions and social enterprise performance. The partner network is a key component of the business model that is usually linked with firm performance. Dacin et al. (2011) identify networks as one of the prospective future directions of the social entrepreneurship field. Networking relationships help firms gain an advantage in the competitive landscape (Riviezzo and Garofano, 2018; Wingwon, 2015). Networking is especially important in social entrepreneurship due to resource scarcity (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014). The firm’s resource base and network structure are key factors of success (Günzel and Wilker, 2012). Specifically, entrepreneurs’ networks are instrumental for gathering and utilising the required resources (Boutillier and Ryckelynck, 2017; Ratten et al., 2007) and early access to these resources (Sousa et al., 2011).

Resources are important determinants for the firms’ sustained success (Ratten et al., 2007). While the creative combination of resources is considered a key characteristic for social enterprises, and resourceful business models are widely discussed in the scientific literature (Dees, 2001; Zeyen et al., 2014), the concept of bricolage, first introduced by Lévi-Strauss (1966), seems to be an appropriate variable for studying social enterprise performance. Baker and Nelson (2005, p.333) define bricolage as “making do with current resources, and creating new products or services from tools and materials at hand”. Ladstaetter et al. (2018) argue that bricolage can be both a source and solution to breakdowns resulting from the arising tensions. Enterprises follow a bricolage approach to compensate for a lack of human and financial

resources (Mawadia et al., 2018). Kwong et al. (2017) maintain that social enterprises increasingly rely on collaborations to address resource constraints. This is particularly true for rural places that lack resources, and more collaboration among people is necessary (Farmer et al., 2008). Therefore, bricolage and collaborations are key variables when assessing the balance in performance, as involvement in asymmetric relationships could trigger higher levels of mission drift (Kwong et al., 2017).

As discussed above, it is argued that the sustainability of social enterprises heavily depends on the balance between social action and revenue generation (Moizer and Tracey, 2010); therefore, it is considered crucial to integrate this aspect into the conceptual framework. According to Moizer and Tracey (2010), legitimacy is an important determinant of sustainability. Simultaneously, it is one of the main challenges for SEs (Sparviero, 2019). Perceived legitimacy is stressing the credibility of the firm and influences its performance and access to financial resources (Iakovleva and Kickul, 2011). It is important to note that prioritising value creation or value capture associates social enterprises with relevant networks and expectations (Santos, 2012) and thus is a source of legitimacy for social enterprises that, in turn, leads to an increase in support from community bodies and an increase in capital (Moizer and Tracey, 2010). SEs may maintain legitimacy by outlining social mission as the dominant decision criterion (Spieth et al., 2019).

The issue of the social performance of social enterprises has been addressed in the literature, and findings have shown that social imprinting (that is, having a social orientation from the outset) and economic productivity are positively related to social performance, while social imprinting is negatively associated with economic productivity (Battilana et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the overall effect on social performance has been found to be positive.

Strong dedication to the social mission has been found to be a critical success factor for social enterprises (Satar and John, 2019). As the research of Battilana et al. (2015) shows, social imprinting is positively related to social enterprise performance. However, a dominant focus on social imprinting is negatively related to the economic performance of a social enterprise because social value creation requires more resources and efforts, at least in the short term. Although Battilana et al. (2015) tested this relationship, it is suitable to operationalise the concept with a continuum approach rather than a binary one (see *Measurement* section for

details), as enterprises range from having purely economic goals to purely social goals and can be characterised with a mix of social and economic goals in between (Williams and Nadin, 2011). The following can be hypothesised:

H1: The stronger the social imprinting is, the higher the social performance of a social enterprise.

H2: The stronger social imprinting is, the lower the economic performance of a social enterprise.

The quantity, breadth and diversity of social enterprise networks and their relationships with dependent variables such as social impact, social replicability and financial revenues have been researched (Weber and Kratzer, 2013). This study showed that all three network parameters (quantity, breadth, diversity) had positive links with social impact. Meanwhile, network quantity was not found to be significant; network breadth had a positive relationship, and network diversity showed an inversely U-shaped relationship with social replicability. Finally, in regard to financial revenues, a positive relationship, a non-significant relationship and an inversely U-shaped relationship were found with the quantity, breadth and diversity of networks, respectively. Weber and Kratzer (2013) maintain that social enterprises differ quite significantly in certain aspects, such as their underlying business model.

Networks are considered important assets for business development (Bernhard and Grundén, 2016; Bernhard and Olsson, 2020). Social entrepreneurs capitalise upon opportunities through their contacts with multiple actors (Arroyo-Lopez and Carcamo-Solis, 2011), which include government agencies, universities, development organisations, commercial companies and non-profit organisations (Vannebo and Grande, 2018) and which could be gained through personal networks, government entities, embassies and trade fairs (Jin et al., 2018). The strength of the partner network unites concepts such as the quantity, diversity and breadth of the partners of the enterprise (Weber and Kratzer, 2013), among others. As Weber and Kratzer (2013) tested these hypotheses on Schwab Foundation social enterprises, it could be relevant to test similar hypotheses on social enterprises that are more representative of the “general population” of social enterprises.

Based on the above-mentioned, the subsequent hypotheses are formulated as follows:

H3. The stronger the partner network of a social enterprise is, the higher its social performance.

H4. The stronger the partner network of a social enterprise is, the higher its economic performance.

Senyard et al. (2010) tested the relationship between bricolage and new firms' performance considering the moderating effects of firm change and innovativeness. The study shows the positive links between the tested variables. Bacq et al. (2015), based on a survey of 123 social enterprises, found that entrepreneurial bricolage is positively related to the scaling of social impact. However, the relationship was found to be an inverted U-shaped relationship, therefore to some extent showing the limitations of bricolage.

Current theories of bricolage need to be refined to adjust this concept for the analysis of social enterprises (Di Domenico et al., 2010). For that purpose, the authors have identified its key constructs as *making do*, *a refusal to be constrained by limitations* and *improvisation*. In addition, the authors have listed three other constructs of social enterprises: *social value creation*, *stakeholder participation* and *persuasion* (Di Domenico et al., 2010).

Bricolage leads to both economic gains for actors and different forms of sustainability (Shepherd and Patzelt, 2017). Akingbola (2013) also suggests that bricolage influences the longevity of organisations, especially among social economy entities. Bricolage is not only a predictor of social impact (Voltan, 2019), but it helps SEs address their dual mission (Hota et al., 2019). As Di Domenico et al. (2010) state, social bricolage is crucial for creating both social value and financial sustainability.

Therefore, the subsequent hypotheses are formulated as follows:

H5. Social bricolage has a positive effect on the social performance of a social enterprise.

H6. Social bricolage has a positive effect on the economic performance of a social enterprise.

As Cho and Kim (2017) argue, the relationship between social and economic performance has not been adequately researched. Economic performance is considered to positively influence a firm's corporate social performance (Chiu and Sharfman, 2011). In many cases, social enterprise researchers connect social value creation and economic value creation. It is argued that positive results in one component contribute to better results in another. For instance, Okpara and Halkias

(2011) propose a research model in which profitability and sustainable social entrepreneurship programmes are linked.

Several studies have shown that economic performance is positively associated with social performance (Bellostas et al., 2016; Cho and Kim, 2017; Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019). However, some researchers argue for single value creation, pointing out that simultaneous success in both dimensions is not feasible (Pirson, 2012). Some of these studies are qualitative, and this argument needs further validation through additional quantitative studies. Addressing the call for further study of the relationship between the social and the economic performance of social enterprises (Bellostas et al., 2016; Ebrahim et al., 2014; Pirson, 2012; Stevens et al., 2015; Teasdale, 2012), the following hypothesis is proposed:

H7. Overall, there is a positive relationship between the social and the economic performance of a social enterprise.

To summarise, the conceptual model is presented based on the proposed hypotheses (Figure 1).

4 Measurement

4.1 Dependent variables

As we are going to evaluate the sustainability of social enterprises, it should be noted that the operationalisation of sustainability is a complex issue, and it can be conceptualised in different ways. However, for example, Zhang and Swanson (2014) consider business sustainability to consist of economic self-sufficiency, social value, environmental responsibility and respect for cultural factors. As social enterprises are mostly oriented towards a double-bottom line (Emerson and Twersky, 1996), the main focus will be on the social and economic aspects, although, as we deal with the concept of sustainability, the environmental component will also be integrated in the research as part of the social performance construct.

Researchers usually represent the dependent variable of social enterprise performance through social enterprise social performance and economic performance (Liu et al., 2014, 2015; Miles et al., 2014).

4.1.1 Social performance

There exist several scales and approaches to assessing the social performance of social enterprises (Battilana et al., 2015; Choi, 2015; Liu et al., 2015; Miles et al., 2014; Sanchis-Palacio et al., 2013; Weber and Kratzer, 2013). Liu et al. (2015) measure social performance through a set of criteria, including successful bidding for public service contracts and grants, serving more beneficiaries, diversifying social services and offering social services in different locations. The 7-point Likert-type scale used by Liu et al. (2015) seems to capture more potentially interesting items for measuring social enterprise performance from the social point of view. However, as we deal with sustainability and social enterprises are considered to be contributing to economic, social and environmental goals (Haugh, 2005), one item on environmental performance from Choi (2015) will also be integrated into the construct.

4.1.2 Economic performance

Liu et al. (2015) combine the dimensions of commercial marketing achievement and economic value creation to assess the economic performance of social enterprises. Again, the 7-point Likert-type scale utilised by Liu et al. (2015) covers more items from the economic point of view (profitability, achieving financial goals, etc.) and will be adapted to measure the economic performance of social enterprises.

4.2 Independent variables

4.2.1 Social imprinting

Bosma et al. (2016, p.14) mapped social entrepreneurial activity both with and without dominant value creation in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) Special Study on Social Entrepreneurship 2015-2016. These researchers used the following statement to map the ‘value creating’ social enterprises – ‘For my organisation, generating value to society and the environment is more important than generating financial value for the company’. However, in a previous GEM study, Lepoutre et al. (2013) asked for the distribution of 100 points among the economic, societal and environmental goals of organisations.

Although Battilana et al. (2015) employed 0-1 coding to assess social imprinting (having a social orientation from firm foundation), as hybrid ventures are not usually binary but lie on the

hybrid spectrum that ranges from more socially- to business-oriented ends (Alter, 2006; Dees, 2001), it can be argued that assessing the social orientation and balance in value creation from a 'hybrid spectrum' perspective could be more beneficial for the research. Thus, as social imprinting encompasses the hybridity of value creation, the approach of Lepoutre et al. (2013) employed in the GEM study will be used to assess the primacy of the social mission, on the one hand, and the balance between social and economic dimensions, on the other.

Although social imprinting is a single-item measure, as Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007, p.175) found, "there is no difference in the predictive validity of the multiple-item and single-item measures".

4.2.2 Partner network strength

Partner network strength will be mainly evaluated through a combination of three dimensions, namely, network quantity, network diversity and network breadth, and a scale developed by Weber and Kratzer (2013), who studied the relationships of these variables with social impact, social replicability and financial revenues. However, additional items on the use and development of personal and professional networks will also be included.

4.2.3 Social bricolage

To capture the items from the social bricolage concept, the 5-point Likert-type scale of Senyard et al. (2014) modified into a 7-point Likert-type scale by Kickul et al. (2018) was adapted to include the social bricolage-related items of stakeholder participation and persuasion proposed by Di Domenico et al. (2010).

4.3 Control variables

The age of the enterprise is considered one of the key control variables in the entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship literature (Brettel et al., 2012; Weber and Kratzer, 2013), as it is assumed that well-established enterprises differ from start-ups in terms of their performance. Choi (2015) used firm age as a control variable and justified this choice by noting the potential differences in performance resulting from the different developmental stages of social ventures.

Size is another notable control variable widely used in entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship research (Brettel et al., 2012; Chiu and Sharfman, 2011; Choi, 2015; Liu et al.,

2015; Liu et al., 2014; Schuster and Holtbrügge, 2014; Weber and Kratzer, 2013). As authors argue, the size of the enterprise is important because it is highly likely to play an important role in resource mobilisation – large social enterprises have more resources and brand recognition that influence both the social and economic aspects of performance outcomes.

Several other control variables have been used in the entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship literature, such as geographic location, length of engagement in social enterprises in total, experience in the field, gender of the founder (Schuster and Holtbrügge, 2014; Weber and Kratzer, 2013) and industry characteristics (Brettel et al., 2012; Choi, 2015), among others.

5 Methodological choices

A quantitative method has been selected for addressing the hypotheses set out in this paper. A survey questionnaire designed to test the model and its hypotheses was administered and responses were collected. The data were collected in Sweden on Swedish work integration social enterprises. Approximately 350 work integration social enterprises that were listed on the sofisam.se database were targeted through an online questionnaire hosted on the SurveyMonkey platform. A total of 125 unique responses were received that represented a 36% response rate, which was higher than the widely accepted 30% threshold. A total of 115 responses were valid for a full model analysis. Data were cleaned before being analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics 25. Multiple regression analysis was applied to generate and evaluate the models.

5.1 Analysis

The demographic and organisational information is summarised in Table 1.

5.1.1 Reliability

The internal reliability of the constructs was checked using Cronbach's alpha. The majority of variables had a Cronbach's alpha higher than 0.70 (social bricolage - .886, social marketing - .839, commercial marketing - .891, partner network strength - .740) or very close to 0.70 (social performance - .686 and economic performance - .677). The initial variables for social performance had a Cronbach's alpha lower than 0.70, and the items that lowered the internal

consistency of the construct were dropped. The ultimate variables reflected high or acceptable levels of internal consistency.

5.1.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis was also conducted to check for underlying factors of different variables. The factor analysis of social performance, social marketing and commercial marketing only exhibited a single factor. Although more than 1 component was extracted in the case of variables such as economic performance, social bricolage and the strength of the partner network, factor loadings on initial components remained higher than .300; therefore, the initial components can be considered acceptable.

5.1.3 Collinearity diagnostics

In regard to collinearity analysis, all bivariate correlations are lower than the accepted threshold of 0.70, thus collinearity is not exhibited among the independent variables. If the eigenvalues are not close to 0 and the condition indexes are lower than 30, it can be argued that there are no serious problems of collinearity. The variance inflation factors are also well below 10 or 5 (Hair et al., 1995; Sarstedt et al., 2017), and collinearity tolerance is less than 0.2, thus showing no signs of multicollinearity.

5.1.4 Residuals

The scatterplot of the regression standardised predicted value/regression standardised residual shows that an absolute majority of the residuals are within -2/+2 standard deviations, thus providing an acceptable range for the residuals.

5.1.5 Normality

As significance for the Shapiro-Wilk test is higher than 0.05, the tests of normality are satisfied for the residuals of both social and economic performance.

5.1.6 Correlations

Social bricolage exhibited a high correlation with both social performance and economic performance (.539**³ and .511**). Partner network strength also showed a significant relationship with social and economic performance (.532** and .275**). However, social imprinting did not show a significant correlation with the dependent variables (.148 and -0.41). It should be noted that social performance and economic performance are significantly correlated (0.481**) with each other.

Of the control variables, impact measurement had a significant correlation with both dependent variables (.301** and .274**). The number of workers (.214*⁴ and .304**), number of reintegrated persons (.234* and .192*) and number of trainees (.303** only with social performance) have been positively related to social performance and economic performance.

5.2 Regression⁵

- Dependent Variable: *Social Performance* - When all independent and key control variables were entered in the regression equation, a significant relationship was detected for the following variables: social imprinting (.185), social bricolage (.352), partner network strength (.226) and number of trainees (.205).
- Dependent Variable: *Economic Performance* - When entering all variables in the regression equation, the model offers the following variables with significant relationships: social bricolage (.482), impact measurement (.277), firm age (-.175), number of workers (.430) and number of trainees (-.186).

The results of the multiple regression analysis are summarised in Table 2.

In regard to assessing the interrelationship between social performance and economic performance, both variables were separately entered in the respective regression models to assess

³ ** Significant at the p<.01 level

⁴ * Significant at the p<.05 level

⁵ Significance at the p<.05 level.

their links with each other, which resulted in significant relationships (0.268** and 0.266**, respectively).

5.3 Hypothesis validation

H1. The stronger the social imprinting is, the higher the social performance of a social enterprise.

The multiple regression analysis showed that social imprinting had a significant relationship with the social performance of social enterprises. Therefore, the hypothesis was supported, similar to the results from Battilana et al. (2015), who argue that social imprinting is positively related to social performance. The results can be explained by legitimacy theory: social enterprises gain legitimacy to obtain access to extra resources that help them achieve social goals (Folmer et al., 2018). Therefore, social enterprises tend to be more socially oriented, which helps them gain legitimacy and appropriate resources to achieve higher social performance.

H2. The stronger social imprinting is, the lower the economic performance of a social enterprise.

The relationship between social imprinting and economic performance was found to be negative, though non-significant. Thus, the hypothesis was not strongly supported and not in line with the findings of Battilana et al. (2015). Although it could be suggested that placing a higher focus on social value creation might lead to lower economic performance, the hypothesis was not validated. Legitimacy theory could again be an explanation. Resources received through the legitimacy gained with the target stakeholders help social enterprises avoid low economic performance. As the results suggest, being socially oriented does not necessarily mean that social enterprises would have inferior commercial performance.

H3. The stronger the partner network of a social enterprise is, the higher its social performance.

The multiple regression model showed that partner network strength has a significant effect on social performance. The findings supported the scientific literature (Weber and Kratzer, 2013) providing evidence for a positive relationship between partner networks and the social impact of social enterprises. In this regard, the hypothesis was supported. The results can be explained by stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994) and by the resources and support provided by the partners.

As stakeholder theory suggests, the success of the firm largely depends on how successful the firm is at meeting its stakeholders' interests. Partners are one of the key stakeholders of social enterprises. Meeting their expectations and successfully collaborating with them contributes positively to the social performance of social enterprises. The quantity, diversity and breadth of partners, the use of personal and professional networks, and the development of new networks help social enterprises obtain access to a diverse mix of resources and support that make it possible for them to achieve higher social performance.

H4. The stronger the partner network of a social enterprise is, the higher its economic performance.

Although partner network strength was significantly correlated with the economic performance of social enterprises, entering the independent variable in a multiple regression resulted in a non-significant relationship between the variables. Therefore, support was not found for this hypothesis. Even though stakeholder theory states that stronger connections with stakeholders result in better economic outcomes, the relationship may not be exactly the same for social enterprises: for social enterprises, partner network strength could be more important for social value creation than for economic value creation. As Folmer et al. (2018) state, although networks are crucial for both commercial and social enterprises, their use of partner networks differs considerably, i.e., social enterprises usually access more intangible resources through their networks than do their commercial counterparts. Furthermore, social enterprises could leverage their networks more for legitimacy reasons in both the start-up and the growth phases (Folmer et al., 2018). Specifically, social enterprises gain strategic legitimacy by engaging in partnerships with stakeholders in both the public and private sectors. Because of the lack of resources, social enterprises partner with those organisations that help them gain legitimacy and increase their access to resources.

H5. Social bricolage has a positive effect on the social performance of a social enterprise.

This hypothesis was supported. As argued in the scientific literature (Di Domenico et al., 2010; Hota et al., 2019; Voltan, 2019), social bricolage was found to be an important factor in the social performance of social enterprises. Social bricoleurs are able to create combinations with the resources at hand and by 'making do' that lead to enhanced social results. The RBV theory (Barney, 1991) is a good explanation for the findings. As social enterprises usually

operate in low-resource settings, resourcefulness becomes an important characteristic for them. Therefore, leveraging its own resource base and finding combinations that will yield higher social value can help a social enterprise deliver better social performance.

H6. Social bricolage has a positive effect on the economic performance of a social enterprise.

This hypothesis was also supported. Similarly, social bricolage was found to be a considerably important factor for economic performance, as maintained by various researchers (Hota et al., 2019; Senyard et al., 2014). Thus, according to the results, social bricoleurs seem to be able to combine resources in a creative manner at all levels of bricolage. Similarly, as the RBV (Barney, 1991; Choi, 2015) suggests, internal and diverse resources are the most important for building a competitive advantage as they can fill the resource gaps. Social enterprises can determine which of the available resources are most suitable for gaining a competitive position.

H7. Overall, there is a positive relationship between the social and the economic performance of a social enterprise.

The final hypothesis was also supported. A positive relationship was found between social performance and economic performance, as argued by some researchers (Bellostas et al., 2016; Cho and Kim, 2017). The results showed that it is possible to achieve high levels of both social and economic performance in social enterprises. Legitimacy theory can again partly explain the results. As social enterprises gain legitimacy, it gives them access to a variety of resources, which help them achieve successful results in both the social and the economic dimensions.

6 Conclusion

The findings in this work fully supported most of the hypotheses of the model (i.e., 5 out of 7). Two hypotheses were not significant according to the multiple regression results. In summary, social imprinting had a hypothesised significant relationship with the social performance of social enterprises, but its relationship with economic performance was not found to be significant. Partner network strength was shown to be a significant factor in the social performance of social enterprises; however, its relationship with economic performance was found to be non-significant. The effect of social bricolage on both social performance and economic performance was assessed to be one of the strongest. Finally, as hypothesised, the

association between the social and the economic performance of social enterprises was found to be positive. A combination of different theories, namely, stakeholder theory, the RBV and legitimacy theory, was presented to explain the results of the study.

6.1 Theoretical contributions

The findings contribute to the literature by demonstrating that social imprinting is an important factor in the social performance of social enterprises, as legitimacy theory would suggest. The strength of the partner network was found to be more important for the social performance than for the economic performance of social enterprises, in contrast to commercial enterprises. The networks might be used by social enterprises to gain intangible resources and legitimacy. The results could be interpreted using stakeholder theory. As the RBV theory also can support the hypotheses, the findings contribute to the scientific literature by showing that social bricolage is a significant factor in the social performance of social enterprises and support the literature in viewing this variable as an important factor in economic performance. Finally, the results of the study supported one stream of the social enterprise literature, arguing that the social performance and economic performance of social enterprises have a positive interrelationship.

6.2 Practical implications

The findings suggest that social enterprises need to care about gaining legitimacy. Having primarily social goals can help them in building legitimacy with diverse stakeholders in the public and private sectors. Partnerships with such stakeholders could offer the possibility to gain both extra legitimacy and further resources, especially for the social success of the social venture. Furthermore, social enterprises should attempt to use the resources available to them in an efficient and creative manner. In limited resource settings, social enterprises must focus on finding the right combinations of resources to achieve a strategic position and better social and economic outcomes. Finally, it may be possible to be successful in both the social and economic dimensions, and therefore, social enterprises should strive for that.

6.3 Limitations

The study has several, mainly methodological, limitations. First, the sample size can be considered one of the limitations. Although 115 responses are viewed to be above the acceptable threshold, considering a population size of approximately 300-350 social enterprises, a higher response rate could have better validated the results. Another limitation is that the study relied on the participants' perception of social and economic performance. However, it must be mentioned that perceived assessments are usually quite close to real measures of performance. In addition, it is usually difficult to find measures that capture social performance, but this can be a direction for future research. Finally, the study was conducted in only one context – that of Sweden. Conducting an international comparative study that considers country-specific differences could be a valuable contribution to the social enterprise literature.

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Notes

Tables

Table 1. Demographic and organisational information

Measure	Items	Number	Percentage
Social enterprise legal Form	Economic association	74	64
	Non-profit association	18	16
	Limited company	12	10
	Limited company with limited profit distribution	5	4
	Other	4	3
Firm age	Foundation	2	2
	0-2	18	16
	3-7	57	50
	8-17	24	21
	18-27	13	11
Number of employees	28+	3	3
	0	4	3
	1-5	32	28
	6-10	35	30
	11-20	26	23
Regional distribution ¹	21-30	10	9
	Blekinge	5	4
	Dalarna	4	3
	Gotland	3	3
	Gävleborg	7	6

	Halland	4	3
	Jämtland	3	3
	Jönköping	6	5
	Kalmar	5	4
	Kronoberg	5	4
	Norrboten	4	3
	Skåne	21	18
	Stockholm	12	10
	Södermanland	2	2
	Uppsala	4	3
	Värmland	5	4
	Västerbotten	11	10
	Västernorrland	3	3
	Västmanland	3	3
	Västra Götaland	15	13
	Örebro	6	5
	Östergötland	2	2
Sector ²	Car and bicycle repair	18	16
	Store	54	47
	Cafe, restaurant, hotel, conference	49	43
	Property management, construction	35	30
	Crafts, art	33	29
	Animal care	12	10
	Household services	30	26
	Information, communication, education	21	18

Office services	14	12
Culture, entertainment, leisure	19	17
Contract work	22	19
Cultivation, gardening	35	30
Staffing	13	11
Transport	14	12
Tourism	7	6
Recycling	36	31
Other service	29	25

Social enterprises could be operating in more than one region

² Social enterprises may operate in more than one sector

Table 2. Multiple regression results

Dependent variable	Parameter	B	Std. error	Standardised beta	T	Sig.
Social performance	Intercept	.354	.664		.534	.595
	Social imprinting	.154	.064	.185	2.409	.018
	Social bricolage	.396	.099	.352	4.012	.000
	Partner network strength	.263	.106	.226	2.481	.015
	Impact measurement	.102	.061	.145	1.675	.097
	Social marketing	-.040	.086	-.045	-.462	.645
	Commercial marketing	.095	.067	.130	1.418	.160
	Firm age	-.046	.059	-.064	-.789	.432
	Number of founders	.016	.059	.021	.271	.787
	Number of workers	-.071	.089	-.099	-.799	.427
	Number of volunteers	-.082	.061	-.123	-	.181
	Number of part-time workers	.008	.062	.012	.130	.896
	Number of trainees	.132	.053	.205	2.482	.015
	Number of reintegrated persons	.095	.071	.145	1.340	.183
Economic	Intercept	2.298	.534		4.304	.000

performance	Social imprinting	-.018	.051			-.348	.729
	Social bricolage	.435	.079	-.027		5.475	.000
	Partner network	-.106	.085	.482		-	.219
	strength					1.237	
	Impact measurement	.156	.049	-.113		3.175	.002
	Social marketing	-.052	.069	.277		-.753	.453
	Commercial	.057	.054	-.073		1.055	.294
	marketing						
	Firm age	-.101	.047	.097		-	.036
						2.130	
	Number of founders	.010	.047	-.175		.208	.836
	Number of workers	.246	.071	.017		3.447	.001
	Number of	-.067	.049	.430		-	.176
	volunteers					1.363	
	Number of part-time	-.009	.049	-.124		-.180	.858
	workers						
	Number of trainees	-.096	.043	-.016		-	.027
						2.243	
	Number of	-.004	.057	-.186		-.067	.947
	reintegrated persons						

Figure captions

Figure 1. The Conceptual Model

Figures

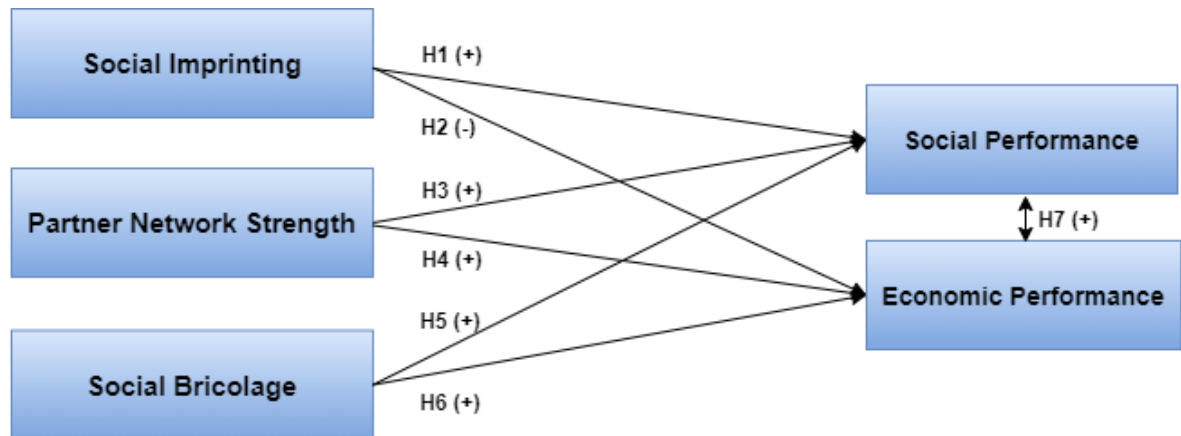


Figure 1

^[1] ** Significant at the $p < .01$ level

^[1] * Significant at the $p < .05$ level

^[1] Significance at the $p < .05$ level.

Transition

The objective of the second chapter of the thesis was to study the effect of social imprinting, strength of the partner network and social bricolage on social performance and economic performance of social enterprises. In addition, the chapter aimed to study the relationship between social and economic performance of SEs. The questionnaire survey was targeted at approximately 350 Swedish work integration social enterprises, 125 responses were received and 115 responses suitable for the model testing were analyzed using multiple regression analysis.

The research study showed that as hypothesized, social imprinting had a positive relationship with the social performance of social enterprises, but its relationship with economic performance did not turn out significant. Strength of the partner network had a positive relationship with the social performance of SEs; however, its relationship with economic performance was not found significant. The impact of social bricolage on both social performance and economic performance was detected to be positive and strongest. Finally, the results supported the last hypothesis about the positive relationship between the social and the economic performance of SEs. A mix of several theories, namely, legitimacy theory, stakeholder theory, and the RBV theory, was utilized to explain the results of the study.

Although the conceptual model has been tested through a quantitative study, there is a need to go beyond the tested relationships and understand the underlying reasons and related processes, as well as some other factors that have a considerable impact on social enterprises. Therefore, the third chapter aims to study how social enterprises are characterized by social imprinting, collaborations and social bricolage and what their roles are in reaching social and commercial goals in SEs. The paper is also going to study which business model configurations make it possible to be successful both in social value creation and economic value creation. Eventually, as

governments play an important role in the social enterprise sector, the role of the public agencies in the sustainability of SEs will also be studied.

The following research questions are going to be addressed:

- Do social enterprises utilise social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals, and to what extent?
- Do social enterprises face tensions between social and economic value creation, and what kind of business models help them balance the missions?
- What is the role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises?

Legitimacy theory, imprinting theory, stakeholder theory and resource-based view theory have been mobilized as a theoretical framework in order to address the multiple questions posed in the following chapter. A qualitative study is going to be conducted in the form of case studies in Sweden on Swedish work integration social enterprises (WISEs) located in the Scania (Skåne) region and on stakeholders of work integration social enterprises. In total, 29 semi-structured interviews will be conducted.

Chapitre 3

Explorer la durabilité des entreprises sociales –

Une étude de cas de WISEs suédoises

Résumé

Ce papier a pour objectif d'éclairer les différents aspects de la durabilité des entreprises sociales (ES). La question de recherche principale est de savoir si et comment les entreprises sociales peuvent devenir durables. Plus concrètement, les ES arrivent-elles à équilibrer création de valeur sociale et création de valeur économique ? Et quels types de *business model* leur sont-ils utiles à cet égard ? Ensuite, comment les ES utilisent-elles leur imprégnation sociale, leur réseau de partenaires et le bricolage social pour atteindre leurs objectifs sociaux et commerciaux ? Finalement, de quelle manière le secteur public joue-t-il un rôle dans la durabilité des ES ?

Le cadre théorique correspondant combine la théorie de la légitimité, la théorie de l'imprégnation, la théorie des parties prenantes et la théorie du management par les ressources (ou *resource-based view*, *RBV*). Pour répondre à ces questions, une étude qualitative a été conduite sous la forme d'études de cas de WISEs (*work-integration social enterprises*, soit des entreprises sociales d'intégration au marché du travail) opérant dans la région de Scania, en Suède. Un total de 29 entretiens a été réalisé – 16 avec des créateurs/ dirigeants de WISEs et 13 avec des parties prenantes d'ES. Comme le montrent les résultats, les ES se caractérisent par des niveaux différents d'imprégnation sociale, de collaboration et de bricolage social. Elles se confrontent à de multiples défis en vue d'équilibrer leurs missions sociale et économique, bien que certaines y réussissent en mobilisant des *business models* adéquats. De manière générale, la durabilité des ES est largement dépendante du secteur public.

Mots-clés : entrepreneuriat social ; entreprises sociales ; durabilité ; création de valeur ; business model ; imprégnation sociale ; réseau de partenaires ; bricolage social ; Suède ; entreprises sociales d'intégration au marché du travail ; WISE

Chapter 3

Exploring sustainability of social enterprises – A Case Study of Swedish Work Integration Social Enterprises

Giorgi JAMBURIA⁶

Abstract

The paper aims to shed light on different aspects of sustainability of social enterprises (SE). The main research question is whether and how social enterprises can become sustainable. Specifically, it is researched whether SEs manage to balance social and economic value creation, and what business model patterns help them in this regard. Second, it is studied how SEs use social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage to achieve social and commercial goals. Finally, the role of the public sector in affecting sustainability of SEs is investigated. The corresponding theoretical framework combines legitimacy theory, imprinting theory, stakeholder theory and resource-based view theory. To address the research questions, a qualitative study was carried out in the form of case studies on work integration social enterprises (WISEs) operating in the Scania region, Sweden. A total of 29 interviews have been conducted - 16 with the founders/managers of WISEs and 13 with the SE stakeholders. As the findings show, SEs are characterised with different levels of social imprinting, collaborations and social bricolage. They face multiple challenges in balancing social and economic missions, though some manage to mobilise proper business models. Whereas, SE sustainability is usually largely affected by the public sector.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship, social enterprises, sustainability, value creation, business models, social imprinting, partner network, social bricolage, Sweden, work integration social enterprises, WISEs.

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1. Introduction

Social enterprises have gained a heightened interest in Europe, being recognised to have an important role in addressing social and environmental challenges, and enabling inclusive growth opportunities (European Commission, 2013, 2015), as well as social and economic development (Sdrali et al., 2016). Social enterprises have multiple forms and a spectrum of missions, organisational identities, and entrepreneurial motivations (Young, 2006), ranging from more non-profit forms (Young, 2006) to the business models based on the ‘profit for purpose’ strategy (Agrawal and Gugnani, 2014). Social enterprises, and particularly work integration social enterprises, are even considered symbols of sustainable entrepreneurship and management, since they are aiming at sustainability of resources, labour and public administration (Baraibar-Diez et al., 2019).

Considering the importance of social enterprises, understanding whether SEs are sustainable and how they manage to balance social and economic missions are widely discussed questions (Bellostas et al., 2016; Mongelli et al., 2019; Pirson, 2012; Spieth et al., 2019; Wilson and Post, 2013). Sustainability in the simplest terms can be defined as “capability of being maintained at a certain rate or level” (Gruen et al., 2008). In a similar manner, sustainable entrepreneurship is defined as being “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” [Shepherd and Patzelt, (2011), p.142]. Hence, within the framework of the following research sustainability is mainly ‘operationalised’ through the double-bottom line (Emerson and Twersky, 1996), consisting of social and economic sustainability, if not specified otherwise. However, environmental sustainability is also examined. Investigating SE business models has a key role in understanding their performance (Demil et al., 2015).

There is a lack of studies on such nuances that shed more light on the tensions between social and economic value creation in social enterprises. More studies are asked to be conducted on interactions between social and commercial value creation in social enterprises (Bellostas et al., 2016; Ebrahim et al., 2014; Stevens et al., 2015) and how social enterprises could respond to

tensions between the different logics (Battilana et al., 2015; Battilana, 2018; Doherty et al., 2014). Doherty et al. (2014) also suggest studying how hybridity, which could be a combination of different organisational identities, organisational forms or institutional logics (Battilana and Lee, 2014), influences innovative resource exploitation in social enterprises. Bricolage is also seen as a process facilitating organisation of resources in an innovative way, and it is suggested to understand different combinations of its use (Desa and Basu, 2013; Janssen et al., 2018). It is proposed to study how the combination of different logics and networks creates opportunities for creating solutions for social needs (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014). Battilana et al. (2015) offer studying whether their research on the effects of social imprinting on economic productivity and social performance conducted in France is generalisable in other settings. The authors also suggest investigating the role of the government in a possible contribution to social performance and economic productivity (Battilana et al., 2015).

Based on the discussed research gaps in the scientific literature, the research questions can be formulated as follows:

- RQ1 - Do social enterprises utilise social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals, and to what extent?
- RQ2 - Do social enterprises face tensions between social and economic value creation, and what kind of business models help them balance the missions?
- RQ3 - What is the role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises?

The paper aims to address the issue of sustainability of social enterprises from several perspectives to give a more holistic view on this topic. The research questions are largely intertwined. Specifically, in order to see how SEs can become socially and economically sustainable, we should research how the business models, some of the key constructs discussed in the scientific literature and the government actors determine sustainability of SEs. Missing one of these pieces may result in not providing a more complete picture. The contributions of the paper are, therefore, multiple. First, I study whether and to what extent social enterprises use social imprinting (Battilana et al., 2015), partner network (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014) and social bricolage (Di Domenico et al., 2010) for achieving social and commercial goals. Second, following the calls from several researchers (Battilana et al., 2015; Bellostas et al., 2016; Doherty et al., 2014; Ebrahim et al., 2014;

Stevens et al., 2015), I investigate the social and economic value creation in social enterprises, inherent tensions and possible business models addressing arising challenges. Finally, I address the call on studying the role of the public authorities in affecting social and economic performance of social enterprises (Battilana et al., 2015).

2. Theoretical Framework

Legitimacy theory. Since social enterprises do not meet institutional expectations and do not fit one established form, they usually have to target multiple audiences and struggle with gaining legitimacy (Battilana and Lee, 2014). Following Suchman's (1995) typology of legitimacy, Dart (2004) argues that moral legitimacy connects the emergence of SEs to more neoconservative, right-wing, and market-oriented political and ideological value systems. Pragmatic and moral legitimacy is used by SEs within their institutional contexts to justify their collaborations (Bolzani et al, 2020; Huybrechts and Nicholls, 2013). SEs are also observed to be using organisational legitimacy (Bolzani et al, 2020; Luke et al., 2013). SEs also gain legitimacy through legal incorporation (Battilana and Lee, 2014). Acquisition of pragmatic legitimacy is important not to exclude organisation from the possible benefits; moral legitimacy is borrowed when it is perceived that non-conforming behavior would be viewed as wrong; whereas, in case of cognitive legitimacy, not conforming is considered unthinkable (Huybrechts et al., 2014). In this perspective, studying legitimacy-seeking behavior of social enterprises seems to be a prospective area of research.

Imprinting theory. Imprinting concept has been initially proposed in organisation theory (Stinchcombe, 1965). Imprinting suggests that organisations adopt elements from their environments during the foundation stage (Johnson, 2007). Social enterprise founders could be inheriting social or economic imprints from their previous workplaces and interactions with the external environment (Lee and Battilana, 2013, 2020). It is suggested that imprinting from for-profit experiences is usually stronger (Lee and Battilana, 2013). Social imprinting (Battilana et al.,

2015), thus, is an appropriate concept to address the factors that may have an effect on the sustainability of social enterprises.

Stakeholder theory. A group of researchers advocate for using stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994) in the social enterprise field (Burga and Rezania, 2016; Griffith, 2009; Huybrechts et al., 2014; Mason et al., 2007; Sarman et al., 2015). Freeman (1994) defines stakeholders as ‘any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organisation’s purpose’ (p.148). Stakeholder theory asks two fundamental questions - what the purpose of the firm is and what its responsibility is towards stakeholders (Freeman et al., 2004). Social enterprises are viewed as multi-stakeholder organisations (Campi et al., 2006). In the SE context, stakeholder theory is, for example, utilised to understand the governance structures (Huybrechts et al., 2014; Mason et al., 2017) and accountability practices (Sarman et al., 2015). It is argued that support of external stakeholders helps social enterprises avoid mission drift (Ramus and Vaccaro, 2017). Some authors state that considering double, triple or multiple- bottom lines, social enterprises have to place the interests of some stakeholders into higher priority, while they may have to pay less attention to the others (Griffith, 2009). However, it is argued that stakeholders could manage to balance their time and attention that should be allocated to their key stakeholders (Burga and Rezania, 2016). In this regard, studying partners as one of the most important stakeholders for social enterprises is an important direction for investigation.

Resource-based view theory. Resource-based view (RBV) theory (Barney, 1991) is also widely used to analyse social enterprises. Resources are described as “all assets, capabilities, organisational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, etc. controlled by the firm that enable the firm to conceive and implement strategies that improve its efficiency and effectiveness” (Barney, 1991). Under the RBV, the firms are seen as a combination of resources (Chisholm and Nielsen, 2014). Bacq and Eddleston (2018), based on the RBV, conclude that SEs’ scale of social impact largely depends on their capabilities to engage stakeholders, attract public support, and generate income. Considering the importance of the social dimension in order to achieve a triple-bottom line shared value creation, a social resource-based view approach is also proposed (Tate and Bals, 2018). In the perspective of the resource-constrained social enterprises and the need of

the resourceful business models, bricolage (Baker and Nelson, 2005) and social bricolage (Di Domenico et al., 2010) appear to be important concepts to be researched.

3. Literature Review

Social imprinting. Social imprinting, that is having a social orientation from the foundation of the enterprise (Bauwens et al., 2020), is considered to have a positive effect on social performance (Battilana et al., 2015). Lee and Battilana (2013) argue that the founders of social ventures acquire such imprints through their past background and experience. According to Battilana et al. (2015), economic productivity is positively associated with social performance, however, it is noteworthy that social imprinting indirectly weakens social performance through its negative effect on economic productivity, leading to an inherent paradox. SEs therefore are advised to assign social and economic responsibilities to separate teams, and to leave the ‘spaces of negotiation’ through which these teams can cooperate on trade-offs and manage to maintain productive tensions (Battilana et al., 2015).

Partner network. Networking is particularly important for social enterprises, considering the resource-scarce settings they usually have to operate in (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014). Di Domenico et al. (2009) suggest that collaboration between corporates and social enterprises is important as it connects wealth creation to community welfare. Social enterprises may forgo three stages in these collaborations - at the first stage, the asset and resource exchanges seem mutually beneficial; upon possible progression to the second stage, tensions may arise; while in case of reaching the third stage, social and commercial enterprises may manage to resolve the tensions (Di Domenico et al., 2009). Though, this process may not always be linear (Di Domenico et al., 2009). Savarese et al. (2021) argue that there is a low chance of tensions in SE-corporate collaborations if the engagement and interaction levels are also low, thus giving a higher priority to one logic. However, high levels of engagement may invite tensions which should be managed by the participants to facilitate hybrid value creation (Savarese et al., 2021). In these collaborations both parties usually seek for shared value creation and community capacity building, whereas

businesses are more focused on stakeholder appreciation, and the SEs look for fundraising opportunities (Sakarya et al., 2012). Consequently, commercial enterprises usually provide finances, and SEs provide knowledge, expertise and additional resources for social value co-generation (Sakarya et al., 2012). However, how SEs select potential commercial partners has been stated as a future research question (Di Domenico et al., 2009).

Social bricolage. The RBV theory and resourcefulness of social business models invite the use of the bricolage concept (Baker and Nelson, 2005) for studying sustainability of social enterprises. Bricolage is defined as “making do with current resources, and creating new products or services from tools and materials at hand” (Baker and Nelson, 2005, p.333). Di Domenico et al. (2010) propose that social bricolage is more suitable for studying social enterprises besides bricolage-specific constructs such as *making do*, *a refusal to be constrained by limitations* and *improvisation*, identify social bricolage-specific themes: *social value creation*, *stakeholder participation* and *persuasion*. Social bricolage suggests that SEs do not usually seek for external funding but operate in resource-constrained environments through improvisation and reuse of the capital that is not frequently considered useful (Langevang and Namatovu, 2019; Sunley and Pinch, 2012). It should also be mentioned that social enterprises use both internal and network resources during making do (Kwong et al., 2017; Tasavori et al., 2018).

Business models and sustainability of SEs. There are several business model approaches discussed in the scientific literature (Alter, 2006; Dohrmann et al., 2015; Mair et al., 2012; Santos, 2012). In addition, Sparviero (2019) proposes a Social Enterprise Model Canvas (SEMC) through modification of the Business Model Canvas (BMC) designed by Osterwalder and Pigneur (2010) to resolve the mission measurement paradox, and to address the strategy, legitimacy and governance challenges. SEMC has been offered as a tool to compare different forms of SEs and can be used to avoid ‘mission drifts’.

It is argued that running social enterprises is more difficult than running small businesses or SMEs, as SEs have to achieve both social and economic goals (Leung et al., 2019). The authors state that those SEs that have dual investment objectives and are expecting both social and financial returns are more sustainable, than those SEs that aim at social impact gains (Leung et al., 2019).

Therefore, social and economic value creation, and the inherent tensions are usually discussed in the literature. Some of the researchers maintain that it is not possible to achieve success in both social value creation and economic value creation (Bellostas et al., 2016; Stevens et al., 2015) since SEs may incline in one direction over time (Pirson, 2012). Others argue that it is possible to achieve successful results in both directions (Wilson and Post, 2013), as economic results may contribute to the social goals and to the overall balanced orientation towards both goals (Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019; Spieth et al., 2019). Finally, some authors prefer to see value creation from a more holistic perspective, and state that the conflicts do not exist between different forms of value creation, but between value creation and value capture (Santos, 2012), which seems to be a legitimate approach.

Relationship with the public sector. It is important to mention that the public sector is considered to be a largely dominant stakeholder for social enterprises, and particularly work integration social enterprises (WISE) (Hulgård, 2006). In certain countries, the involvement of the government in the WISEs could be quite high (Batillana et al., 2015; Hulgård, 2006). Social enterprises could be involved in the delivery of public services and be recipients of the state support (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009). When it comes to the collaborations between the SEs and the public sector, these partnerships may lead to the economies of scope (Steiner and Teasdale, 2019). Therefore, it is important to evaluate the type of relationship that WISEs have with the public sector in general and what kind of challenges it may be related to.

To summarise, the objective of the paper is to study how social enterprises become sustainable. From this perspective, first, the paper aims to research the role of social imprinting, collaborations and social bricolage in forming sustainable SEs. Second, the paper attempts to understand whether SEs balance social and commercial value creation and what kind of business models help them in this regard. Finally, the paper studies the role the government plays in sustainability of SEs.

4. Methodology

Case Selection

Case study approach has been selected to address the research questions posed in the paper. Following Yin (2008, 2014), work integration social enterprises were selected as a case of SEs within the framework of the research, to study different phenomena through in-depth interviews.

The Scania region of Sweden has been selected for case studies on work integration social enterprises. Scania (Skåne in Swedish) is the southernmost county of Sweden. It consists of 33 municipalities with Malmö being its central city. One of the main reasons for this choice is that the Scania region has historically had low levels of employment and in recent years has the highest unemployment rate among all 21 counties of Sweden. Besides, employment among youth is 20-30 percent lower in Scania compared to the national figures (Region Skåne, 2014). It is also noteworthy that the Scania region is estimated to be the third most active county in terms of work integration social enterprise initiatives (Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional Growth, 2018). 16 social enterprises, which were mainly listed in the sofisam.se platform which was maintained by the Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional Growth and aimed to be a knowledge source on work integration social enterprises for WISE managers and the public sector, and 13 stakeholders of social enterprises were selected for the case study.

Data Collection

In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted usually lasting 1-1.5hrs. The interviews were conducted from May to November 2018. Founders and/or managers of WISEs in Scania, Sweden representing different legal forms and being involved in such issues as work integration of long-term unemployed and migrant population among others, have been interviewed. In addition, SE stakeholders in Scania representing different institutions such as government agencies, academia, social incubators, networks for social enterprises, social cooperatives and civil society organisations and municipalities have been interviewed among others. 27 interviews were conducted face-by-face, the remaining 2 interviews were conducted via online and phone calls

with stakeholders based outside the Scania region (in Gothenburg and Stockholm). Finally, the recordings have been transcribed through Trint, an audio transcription software and manual transcription. The questions related to the research questions posed in the Introduction section were asked during the interview.

Table 1 provides the description of social enterprises interviewed during this study:

#	Case ID	Areas of operation
1	WISE 1	Golf course, organic farming
2	WISE 2	Second-hand shop, studio, car repair, car wash, bicycle repair, café
3	WISE 3	Café, catering, sewing studio, cleaning service
4	WISE 4	Second-hand shop, studio, flea market, café
5	WISE 5	Café, catering
6	WISE 6	Urban beekeeping
7	WISE 7	Online second-hand auction, studio
8	WISE 8	Second-hand shop, cafe
9	WISE 9	Cafe, catering, cleaning service
10	WISE 10	Cafe, catering
11	WISE 11	Insulation material development, accounting consulting, media and communications, etc.
12	WISE 12	Sewing studio, gardening, cleaning service, second-hand shop
13	WISE 13	Second-hand shop, online shop, bicycle rent
14	WISE 14	Second-hand shop, recycling, baking, etc.
15	WISE 15	Social sustainability consulting, diversity and inclusion education, etc.
16	WISE 16	Information technology consulting

Table 1. Description of social enterprises

Table 2 summarises the descriptions of the stakeholders interviewed for the study:

#	Case ID	Field of work
1	STKH 1	Work integration consulting and support organisation
2	STKH 2	Swedish Church

3	STKH 3	Cooperatives network organisation
4	STKH 4	Academia
5	STKH 5	Social enterprise incubator
6	STKH 6	Social enterprise incubator
7	STKH 7	Social analysis think tank
8	STKH 8	Municipality
9	STKH 9	Academia
10	STKH 10	Social enterprise network organisation
11	STKH 11	NGO network organisation
12	STKH 12	Government agency
13	STKH 13	Government agency

Table 2. Description of stakeholders

Data Analysis

Within-case and cross-case analysis have been conducted. Within-case analysis made it possible to assess the approaches and connections among different phenomena for specific cases. Whereas, cross-cases analysis made it possible to see the common patterns and differences among the cases. Coding has been conducted to quantify and categorise the data. Both pre-determined and emergent coding has been done. NVivo 12 Software has been used for coding the themes and sub-themes.

5. Research Findings

RQ1 - Do social enterprises utilise social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals, and to what extent?

Social imprinting and legitimacy. Social imprinting (having a social orientation from the foundation) could be observed in most of the WISEs included in the case study. They usually start

enterprises to address some social problems. For example, for WISE 1 founder, contributing back to society was the primary motivation to start a social enterprise. The SE attempted to find solutions to such social problems as integration of refugees with an incubator through connecting Syrian refugees and Swedish people, for example.

Money is a poor driving force for me. I don't become happier if I make more money. I could, if I were to only think of this as a normal money making machine company... I would be doing my golf and I would try to fill the parking lot with as many paying customers as possible. That's what I would do. I would search out the things that would make me as much money as possible. And that is not working with immigrants, people with depression... I wouldn't work with the children. I wouldn't start to try to 'grow' refugees (WISE 1).

For instance, as WISE 13 founder learned about SEs, he decided to work on it for the rest of his life and to focus on people with learning disabilities. As WISE 6 founder preferred teaching how to fish instead of bringing fish, he aimed to create small sustainable companies that could employ disabled people and newly arrived refugees among others. Similarly, helping the unemployed has been a big motivation for WISE 8 when starting the SE, due to the belief that unemployment in disadvantaged groups may lead to worsened health and become a spiral in the wrong direction. For WISE 5 as well, the main idea is to help disadvantaged people and it could be any type of activity if it was not the current one. But WISE 5 realises that they may be doing things mostly with heart and involvement of more business logic could be needed.

I do prefer teaching how to fish instead of always bringing fish. So that's when the idea of the company started to grow. Can we create small sustainable social companies that can make a working place for disabled people, ...newly arrived people with the problem of fitting in the system because of religion, because of culture?... How can I help set people free? (WISE 6)

In order to be sustainable and have positive social and economic performance, social enterprises have to be 'legitimate' first. They try to increase their legitimacy through multiple ways. One of the ways is the selection of such legal forms that restrict profit distribution and ensure the democratic participation of employees. For instance, WISE 1 has a legal status of AB svb – a

limited company with a limited profit distribution clause, a unique legal status held by very few enterprises in Sweden. Whereas even though WISE 7 has an AB (limited company) status, it still specified its readiness for a full reinvestment of surplus at the time of registration.

As far as the social enterprises in Sweden are often accused of ‘unfair’ government support (WISEs 1, 2, 6, 12), WISE 2 has even conducted a market environment analysis before introducing new directions not to be in an ‘unfair’ competition with small enterprises that possibly have the same business units. As a result, WISE 2 could collaborate with the potential small enterprise which was interested in selling spare bicycle parts, and not repairing bicycles itself. WISE 11 has made a similar check with the municipality. However, it does not cause any controversial feelings for other SEs to receive money from the government to accept people for work training, since commercial enterprises also used to enjoy similar possibilities through the years (WISE 6).

Primary focus on creation of social value serves as a source of legitimacy for most of the social enterprises in relation to both individual customers who want to contribute to social sustainability (WISE 1, 4) and business customers whose corporate social responsibility strategies fit with the activities of social enterprises (WISEs 3, 6). SEs are viewed as the entities that work for those who do not have many possibilities (WISE 4). As a result, people are donating stuff to their second-hand stores, for instance (WISEs 4, 13). On the other hand, WISE 5 states that the customers, partners and possible partners just want to provide the services at the high quality, and only if they succeed in that, then it could also be interesting for them to support SE’s social mission. WISE 9 also states that people do not realise their mission when purchasing their services. But the municipality would not have employed them if they were not a socially conscious business - thus, stressing on the importance of the primacy of social goals.

I mean if people actually knew what we're doing... they would understand that it's for the benefit of Malmö, for the diversity, I guess. And I guess, more companies would actually employ not us, but some enterprise, at least. I'm not saying that you should buy our product, but I mean, at least think about us as you're thinking about the environment nowadays. Maybe you should think about social conscious decisions as well. So to have it in the same sentence like, is this solution we're getting

now, is it environmentally good and is it good for the people around us? To get businesses to think about those two aspects (WISE 9).

Different other ways of gaining legitimacy have been observed across the cases. Some social enterprises invite politicians to increase their visibility (WISE 12), others conduct pro-bono projects so that they can use the names of their customers as reference (WISE 16), since although potential clients like what SEs do, they are hesitant to do business with them. Whereas, STKH 13 states that certifications can serve as a legitimacy enabler, specifically, certificate-holding SEs can prove their professionalism. Alliances and trust building (WISE 6) and being a member of larger umbrella organisations and platforms (WISE 8) are other sources of legitimacy. For WISE 8, it takes time and much effort to sell themselves and ensure that the stakeholders understand who they are, but they have managed to succeed in that.

Partner network. Partner networks and collaborations seem to be important contributors to social enterprise sustainability. There are social enterprises that have high, moderate and low levels of activity in terms of partnerships among the studied cases. It is noteworthy that WISE 3 is considered a model in the work integration social enterprise sector and is also promoted by the Swedish government. One of the main reasons for the success of the model of WISE 3 is its successful partnerships. It has approximately 30% economic growth every year as a result. Besides, it has managed to become self-sufficient, meanwhile increasing the number of employees from 6 to 34 since 2010 to 2018, and the number of branches to 4 in different parts of Malmö. Its collaboration with one of the international brands was awarded the prize for the best social-commercial partnership in Sweden. Furthermore, WISE 3 has key partnerships with other commercial, public and several other types of organisations.

On the other hand, social enterprises that depended mostly on themselves and collaborated less (WISEs 4, 7) agree that seeking more partnerships might have helped them become more economically sustainable.

I think that I should... have (made) more contacts with ordinary companies all around the city.. to make us well known, as well as maybe we could do some work with them. It could be gardening, or

it could be cleaning, or it could be anything. That's one thing that I think someone should do (WISE 7).

Although social enterprises realise that partner networks help them exchange experiences among several other benefits (WISE 10), many WISEs and interviewed stakeholders agree that social enterprises hardly have any resources to invest in collaborations. As collaboration requires networking and building relationships, many of the SEs are quite small to invest enough time and resources in establishing a partner network. It is easier for bigger SEs to collaborate. It is more difficult for the smaller SEs to establish partner networks, though not impossible (STKH 13). Due to the small size of SEs, partnership opportunities may be also limited (STKH 3, WISE 9). Thus, WISEs may have to find a partner with those establishments that have a more appropriate size (STKH 3). They also have to find more forms of networking (WISE 2). Though, it is notable that WISE 3 managed to adjust the needs of a multinational brand to its own priorities. However, sometimes non-collaborative behavior of SEs might be explained by the fact that WISEs may want to build strong businesses themselves rather than invest time in building partnerships (WISE 13).

We do not cooperate with so many others. We have a business. And I try to focus on the business because I see that if I do not build a strong business, I cannot help people. That is one of the most important parts that we have to be good in business and do business. And we have to focus on it, to get resources to help other people (WISE 13).

STKH 4 believes that a local climate of collaboration is needed. It is considered that SEs and commercial companies can collaborate more (STKHs 3, 8; WISE 10). Generally, it is more commercial businesses that reach out to SEs. For example, WISE 8 does not partner much with companies or NGOs, but is open for collaboration if someone approaches. It is important that the companies regard SEs as real enterprises and not something that would just be part of their CSR campaigns (STKH 4).

It's more likely there are other partners reaching out.. than it's about them [SEs] reaching out to other possible partners. So to have a climate where social enterprises are regarded as serious businesses and they are not regarded as projects. Projects are short term, not something stable, so

to show that this is actually a commitment, this will be there for some time, build that kind of trust and understanding, and that social enterprises are real enterprises (STKH 4).

However, there are cases where businesses and SEs have a collaborative business development perspective, building business models together (STKH 4). STKH 4 thinks that intermediaries can also play an important role facilitating this transition, as they know the logics of multiple sectors due to their background. However, it is argued that there is a very low understanding of SEs among traditional business advisors (STKH 12). Furthermore, STKH 4 states that SEs can themselves contribute to knowledge sharing. Hence, the licensing and mentorship model is quite an important one that could be supported. SEs should work in the B2B direction where real estate companies are more forward-looking, as social enterprises are local and support local communities that could raise the value of their properties. Another direction could be the circular economy that could integrate social sustainability aspects more.

(Real estate companies) are among the most far-sighted because they know also that if their tenants have good life, quality, reasonable jobs, etc. that means that the value of the property will rise. So it's actually a good business to do that. And social enterprises are often very local. They can work in local communities. So I think that real estate property is sort of interesting (STKH 4).

The alliances of smaller companies can have a considerable impact (WISE 6). They could start with smaller collaborations that could grow more organically (STKH 12). First, such collaborations can be useful for applying to the European Union (EU) funding for social projects, as long as the requirements for such applications cannot be met by small companies alone. The same could be true for applications for public procurement (STKHs 3, 13). Social Trade in Gothenburg is such an example where the orders could be sub-divided among several smaller organisations (STKH 3). In addition, such partnerships are beneficial from the point of view of social sustainability, as small enterprises allow more participatory involvement and promote democratic engagement (WISEs 6, 9).

We believe that small units, small companies allow people to be a part of.. too big things - it's the mission to help the poor people. If you really want people to be a part of something, keep it small, keep it simple (WISE 6).

Some social enterprises consistently work on establishing partner networks (WISEs 6, 15) and understand their value in negotiations (WISEs 3, 6).

We don't beg for anything because we know our value and we know as well.. that all those private companies, they need to have something that's clean and nice... They don't want.. negative publicity in the newspapers and so on. And here we stand for all the good things (WISE 3).

SEs usually partner with a diverse set of partners from the private, public and civil sectors and academia (WISEs 6, 12, 15) and participate in different forums organised by the public sector among others (WISE 6). Involvement in different boards could be a strategy to access knowledge and have a wider viewpoint (WISE 3). Although, some civil society organisations may be seeing WISEs as competitors that may sometimes decrease the chances of collaboration (WISEs 1, 12).

Having a common vision is nonetheless important for establishing successful partnerships. WISE 1 finds it important that their NGO partner understands that their work takes time. Similarly, WISE 6 believes that sustainable things take time, and they have to establish themselves to build relationships, and exchanging products/services could be a tactical way for that purpose.

Social bricolage. Using discarded and unwanted resources serve as unifying prisms for social enterprises. For instance, WISE 2 runs a second-hand shop while partnering with a recycle plant that provides the social enterprise with the items that are still useful. WISE 4 also operates a second-hand shop and a flea market with the donations from individuals, who like to support the social mission of the SE. WISE 7, in a similar manner, operates an online auction of second-hand stuff. While WISE 3 and 7 even use discarded furniture for their offices. WISE 3 also uses discarded materials from its commercial partners, once again showing the importance of partners for social bricolage. Meanwhile, WISE 2 has found ways to use discarded resources for new purposes.

So this agreement with the recycling plant helped us.. started in my head that.. from an iron bed, you could get a fence or on the opposite... from jeans, you could make some bags (WISE 2).

Finding special value in discarded resources and building a social value creation process around it is also common. To WISE 2, agreement with a recycle plant was a mind changer, as the manager of the social enterprise could find new use for the discarded items and working on a second hand store would allow the SE to involve their participants more in the operations of the SE because of the nature of work such as recycling, refurbishing, etc.

I also noticed that a lot of participants, they like to work in a secondhand shop, and then I thought, okay, maybe we should change our way of working. So.. the main thing will be second-hand (shop) and the other workshop will support second-hand (shop). So we recycle clothes, textile, porcelain, and we also refurbish furniture, electronics.. but then we have a lot of material to work with (WISE 2).

WISE 13 could also find similar opportunities during the establishment of the secondhand shop. Similarly, WISE 8 finds that the unused materials can have a higher value in an already built house. It aims to buy houses for a cheap price. After buying a house, homeless people can live there while the house is in the process of being fixed. And later the houses could be sold at a much higher price.

We get a lot of stuff, a lot of construction, windows, doors and lots of things and we sell very cheap, but now we are going to buy an old house. It's very very cheap, but it's also very very bad. But we're gonna fix the house. And when we fix it, we're gonna sell it and we're gonna buy another one and fix it up with the people who are working here and with all the stuff that we get. So that's the next project for about two years. This only costs two hundred thousand crowns. And when you fix it up, you sell it for two million. There is a huge income. And during that time, people who are homeless, can leave inside of it (WISE 8).

Some SEs interestingly find a connection between the recycled stuff and long-term unemployed, as the labour market may not see them as valuable, but they could be valuable for WISEs where they can gain knowledge and skills (WISEs 4, 7, 8). Identifying unique skills of such people is a common pattern. For instance, immigrant women may lack education and skills in many directions, but their experience in sewing (STKH 12), cooking (WISE 3) and similar household activities (WISE 15) could be outstanding and be used for the benefit of the SE and the target group themselves.

I haven't really figured out how.. I connect that [environmental sustainability] with social sustainability. Could we make a company with these five-six persons who do this and instead of going around begging for money outside ICA, could they be selling biochar to people that put it in their yard or in their greenhouse or someplace.... So I still think that we can combine these different things. And biochar is interesting. I still haven't found a way to make it socially sustainable, but the possibility is certainly there (WISE 1).

WISEs try to use their current infrastructure for addressing the social problems (WISE 1). WISE 1 also thinks to use the same infrastructure not only for the integration of immigrants but for setting up an outdoor education for school children to increase the interest in the potential school dropouts.

I need to do something and this is what I could do with my current infrastructure. Quite easy. It's not a big thing for me. I have the irrigation, I have the staff, I have the clubhouse, I have this meeting room... It's a way of seeing how I can be creative in developing new crops, new ways of using the farm, using the land, using my infrastructure. Can I use it? (WISE 1)

Experimentation and improvisation are some of the dimensions that characterise social enterprises (WISE 1, 6, 7, 13, 15). WISE 7 has experimented with different directions before setting up separate departments. For this purpose, social enterprises attempt to open or 'semi-open' different doors through collaborations and seeking for viable solutions, hoping that at least one of the ideas will eventually succeed (WISEs 1, 6).

I might do other things while trying. And that's basically what we're doing at this point. We're waiting for the government a little bit to catch up, to come and focus because suddenly either if it is the project regarding dropouts or if it is the project with the refugees and the mentoring or if it's the CSA... So it's kind of like having multiple safes but I'm still punching in on only one and suddenly one of them will open (WISE 1).

During this process of experimentation social value creation is the primary driver (WISE 1). For example, for WISE 1, refugee centres and the problem of dropouts are some of the social problems that require a wider address. WISE 1 manages to successfully combine different dots such as golf course and organic production with the involvement of immigrant groups; school dropouts and outdoor education; biochar production and beggars as sellers. Connecting dots is thus crucial for finding solutions and social value creation. However, WISE 6 notes that experimentation takes time as no one usually funds it, but the process could be intensified if receiving funding. SEs also don't fear making mistakes during the process (WISE 1).

We are not afraid of making mistakes. We don't intentionally make mistakes, but we are not afraid of them. We say that it's not a mistake, it's a learning process that didn't really work very well. Then we'll have to tweak it or change it. We don't stop (WISE 1).

Persuasion of stakeholders is also an important part for social enterprises as they have to persuade their stakeholders including public, commercial and social entities to provide resources and/or collaborate on addressing social challenges (WISEs 1, 3, 5, 6). Sometimes, SEs may decide not to be related to big establishments in order to maintain flexibility for experimentation.

So that is one reason, because we don't want to be a part of the big community.. establishment, because if you should change some things and you'll report to municipality or Region Skåne or anything, it takes about half a year. But we can.. we can decide on Monday and start working on Tuesday. So that's what we were doing with the cans (WISE 8).

Stakeholder engagement is important for social enterprises. They use boards to access different types of expertise (WISEs 2, 3, 5, 6), while the social enterprises mainly with more commercial

legal forms (WISEs 1, 4, 7) do not have functional boards to formally engage stakeholders. However, WISE 1 uses informal networks to 'substitute' the function of the board and usually, it's the founders, their life partners or mentors who could be serving as 'informal' board members (WISEs 1, 7, 13). However, WISE 7 thinks that having a board would have helped the enterprise develop more and have a better economic ground. Boards are actively used in order to access knowledge and competence. A particular focus is placed on the diversity of the board (STKHs 4, 10), as well as its competency (STKHs 4, 5). As most of the SE founders come from the social sector, it is advised to involve professionals from the other sectors such as business, academia, etc. Typically, WISEs have representatives from the private sector, civil sector, public sector, etc. placed in their boards. Usually, WISEs find their boards quite useful (WISEs 3, 5, 9, 10, 15), though some expect more from them in social direction, as they may be more focused on the economic aspects (WISE 2) or vice versa (WISE 5). In addition, some SEs run several boards. For instance, WISE 3 is actively using 2 boards - a board involving employees and a board representing diverse professionals.

The negative thing about the board, if I have to speak frankly, is that they are just focused on the economy and I have been here for 13 years and the economy has never been bad... And also when we talk about methods and this European project, there is a lack of interest, I think (WISE 2).

RQ2 - Do social enterprises face tensions between social and economic value creation, and what kind of business models help them balance the missions?

Business Models. Social enterprises usually have to employ multi-sided business models where the target group, customer and paying customer could be all different (STKH 5, WISE 15). Social enterprise could be gaining funding from public entities and municipalities, as well as private companies, depending on the social problem they might be dealing with (STKH 5), this could be particularly true for SEs run as NGOs which may have such different types of revenue streams.

When you come to social entrepreneurship, (there) is often a more complicated relation between the customer and the (enterprise), because often what we do is that we have, for example, the target group that could be unemployed people, but they are not our customer. So the one who is

our customer is the city or Arbetsförmedlingen (Public Employment Agency) and the target group could be completely different. But then the funding may not always come from the client. It could be, for example, that we apply for money from the European Union to finance something, but the client is the city. If you see, it's these three. So then it makes it sometimes very complicated. Since our clients, our financing and the target group are different (WISE 15).

Some WISEs and stakeholders believe that the idea of growth needs to be redefined (STKH 4, WISE 11), and there could be a similar problem with impact investments as everyone expects scaleup (WISE 11). To WISE 11, good business models are all about allocating resources in an innovative way. In this regard, sustainability of SE business models may be achieved through such scale-up when more social enterprises are started in different locations, through social franchising, for instance (STKHs 6, 12). Though, financial sustainability should be increased, as SEs are working at the limit and they don't have enough time and resources for development (STKH 12). It is stated that those enterprises that have diverse activities, such as cafe, handicraft and cleaning among others, tend to be more sustainable (STKH 10).

Collaborations among big private companies and social enterprises is one of the models that is gaining more popularity (WISE 3, STKHs 4, 13). Social franchising and bigger consortiums could be models for social enterprises that may ensure their sustainability. However, each SE has to find its model and know how to run their enterprise as a business (STKH 13).

They were saying that our partnership is based on... collaborative business development. So they were seeing that we are building a business together and that they are doing it in partnership - a small social enterprise with fifteen people and one of the largest real estate companies in Sweden, they were building business models together. That mindset is essential (STKH 4).

In addition, as STKH 4 states, it could be difficult to put everything upside down for traditional business models. But circular business models could be suitable for social enterprises. As for them, money is the means, rather than an initial goal. Besides, as the circular economy is more work-intensive, it invites more people to it. Furthermore, social business models should have a particular focus on B2B direction, as they could never sell some products to private individuals. At the same

time, private businesses should understand that participation in B2B relationships with SEs is a good way to contribute to social sustainability.

The traditional business models are sometimes difficult to treat - to kind of to put everything upside down, inside out, to adapt to a kind of a circular mindset. And I think that social enterprise is right to do that, which they haven't done. On the other hand, you would start from a business maximising revenue perspective and then you would adapt or try to get some kind of social or environmental perspective into that. But with a social enterprise, you start from the other way around. For a social enterprise, revenue finalises - the economy, money is the means.. (STKH 4).

When social value creation is concerned, work integration social enterprises are focused on different target groups that could be conditionally divided into four parts: mentally disabled, addicts, new immigrants and old immigrants (STKH 3). These groups usually need diverse approaches, and SEs try to find the respective activities for these target groups (WISE 6).

One important aspect that has been mentioned by several respondents is the importance of real work. As some work integration activities focus on artificial work, it is considered to be demeaning (STKH 8, WISE 8) the beneficiaries, as only meaningful activities (STKHs 6, 9) could activate and excite people who are far from the labour market. Nature-based rehabilitation is also stated as a suitable area for preparatory steps for work integration (STKH 9). In addition, the objective of *Fas 3*, one of the public programs, was to bring people closer to the market. However, they could not do actual work but instead ‘pretend’ to do actual work. WISE 11 also could not educate people because that was another direction. Despite that, WISE 11 found a way to help cultural organisations by offering their work for free - and not calling it a formal training either. Similarly, the Fountain House and WISE 1 are trying to create workplaces closer to the work market, so that the beneficiaries can then go to the regular workplaces (STKH 7).

When it comes to social value creation, it is argued that the beneficiaries have to take the power as no one can empower them, thus the focus has to be on offering to people to fight for empowerment. Although, it is difficult to organise people who are vulnerable (STKH 2). As other WISEs encountered (STKH 10, WISEs 4, 11), they could not or could hardly empower beneficiaries to start their own businesses because of lack of education, skills, and no experience of

making their own decisions. WISE 7 also aimed at involving the target group employees more in the idea generation, but did not succeed.

It is noteworthy that different departments give the trainees a chance to try themselves in different areas (WISE 2, 4, 7). Additionally, for a good result, WISE 8 considers that mix-up of different target groups is important. WISE 1 has also been trying to match different target groups to get a better social outcome.

When we talk about people that are employed here, there have to be many different things for them to choose. Not everyone is good at sewing and not everyone is good at taking care of gardens and so on (WISE 4).

Local development is another form of social value creation. For instance, Råstonga Local Development Group is a social enterprise that strengthens the local community (STKHs 4, 7) which also includes vulnerable groups, but not only them (STKH 4). It is argued that rethinking is needed for the idea of SE, otherwise it would look like a tool for public administration (STKH 4, WISE 2) - for example, Råstonga Local Development Group has been social in a wider sense, they have transformed the village and had an economic and social impact, changing the location from having a decreasing population to a place with an increasing population (STKH 4). Being a local influencer (WISE 1), being involved in more collaboration and less competition, as well as building trust with stakeholders help SEs generate more value (STKH 4).

There is no inherent contradiction between social enterprises and growth, because social enterprises can also be very successful financially. It's not a problem that there's no inherent contradiction. But it's not seen as very sexy. So social enterprises are seen as so connected to the social sector. So social innovation becomes innovation for foldable groups, poor people, homeless, etc., which I think is the faulty way of thinking. Instead, we should think about social enterprises as social in the wider societal sense that it's about providing sort of civic values to the values and the benefits that are being produced by social enterprises and by social innovation. It's really for the benefit of all. Not for specific small groups. And with that shift in mindset, you would want all enterprises to be social enterprises, basically. So I think there has been a shift already (STKH 4).

Although SEs have a great knowledge of social aspects and people, often too little focus is placed on economic aspects (STKH 12). Several SEs state that social enterprises have to see themselves as businesses rather than social meeting places (WISE 7, 13), as they could be running projects for a period of three years and would need to close down, as they might be doing something that can't generate any income (WISEs 7, 11, 13). STKH 11 observed that they tried to find different ways to finance the initiatives but project form was most common and as a result, they had to find new ideas for projects in 1-3 years. WISE 11 similarly notes that projectification stops people from doing business in a sound way with real economic rules. Therefore, SEs are advised to think about the post-project phase and focus on the consumer-oriented business development from day 1 (STKH 3).

You can live for three years in a project and then you have to close. And that's a problem. You can't just sit down and make something on your desk that can't be sold and can't get any money in. I think that's a big problem for those companies... I think that's the main problem for social companies that... they don't have any economic knowledge. They don't know how the company works and they often.. are not aktiebolag (limited company), but they're ideella föreningar (non-profits) and things like that and everybody can decide. There is no big boss. I think that's a problem (WISE 7).

WISE 15 states that SEs should be considered not that different from the regular businesses and the typical failure is when SEs do not think about the 'boring' economic part. Similarly, WISE 13 founder has not had any SE-specific challenges while running the social enterprise compared to the previously run commercial ventures. For WISE 13, WISE is a business in the field of work integration and finding high income sources could only help magnify the social value created, which is a position not always shared by the counterparts.

So when it comes to social enterprise, I think it's not that different from building another company, you know, ordinary company. It's just your values and why you do things. But the journey you do is the same. And I think that is a typical failure for the one who are a social enterprise or organisation. They think that only because we are value driven, that makes us... you don't have to

think about all the kinds of boring things that is coming to building a business because we are value driven and we are changing the world (WISE 15).

You're so passionate that you should just, you know, this is just something that you should do. But no, it's not. This is a part of how we will solve societal challenges. And that's something that one should be paid for. So that is also this shift that I think we need to do and that covers (that) it's not wrong to be paid for contributing to a better world, because otherwise there will be no world (STKH 5).

Part of WISEs try to diversify their economic activities and income sources (WISEs 3, 12, 15) in order not to depend significantly on any party (WISE 15). WISE 3, for instance, has three sources of income: commercial (cafe/catering, cleaning, sewing studio, renting conference rooms), sales of a workshop and the mentorship agreement to other SEs that are willing to franchise, and a financing from Tillvaxtverket (Swedish Agency for Economic Growth) for experimentation. Whereas, WISE 15 monetises its innovative solutions which gives them a chance to invest their own money and not be dependent on the project funding. WISE 15 also helps companies develop social sustainability agenda, and they are particularly active with construction companies due to social clauses from municipalities.

Then of course we are able to do some kind of funding and innovation. So when it comes to our business model, we have innovations. So we do crazy innovations, different projects. And this gives us knowledge. It gives us the methods and those methods we can develop into services and products we can sell. So we can sell education... And this also allows not only to be depending on project money, but also to be able to invest our own money in different innovations. So that is our business model (WISE 15).

SKTH 8 thinks that the Swedish Public Employment Agency (AF) subsidies would not be enough to run a sustainable SE and therefore, tried to make the municipality to purchase a certain amount of work hours to have a safe economic ground. By becoming an SE, STKH 8 could combine the income from the municipality and the income from B2C/B2C sales. For WISE 7, AF is the main source of income, but it also aims to get an EU Leader project that would allow them to hire one

person each month for the period of two years. Whereas, for WISE 9, 50% own profit and 50% funding from outside is considered a balanced point. To note, mapping of the possible available funding is being done for the SE spectrum at the Swedish Agency for Economic Growth, where SEs range from entities with 90% of funding being from private sources to 90% of income being from the public sources (STKH 12).

However, it is noteworthy that some social enterprises may have inherent constraints. WISE 5 notes that even in the perfect conditions, one cannot generate high income with a small cafe, and their economic perspectives are particularly limited considering the size of the location and the opening hours of the hosting facility. Although spreading to other places could be easier for some enterprises (WISE 16), some SEs try to grow in different directions, the needs of different stakeholders do not always meet with the possibilities of SE (WISE 9). However, STKH 10 criticises big foundations coming to the SE scene, as the money could go to the upper parts of the organisation. Whereas, at WISEs the money goes back to create more and/or better opportunities for work training and integration.

STKH 4 thinks that funding is not an important issue for SEs, as most of them are not in need of it considering their typical industries, though the possibility of microfinancing could be an interesting option. As STKH 10 states, the EU Social Fund is quite an active funding source. But the dependence on the EU Social Fund project might be creating more problems than solutions in Sweden, as it only provides reimbursement costs and not surplus (STKHs 4, 6, 10). It is difficult to manage it and combine with SE needs (WISE 14). Therefore, it is difficult to have a bigger surplus from other operations if SE's main work is focused on the project and it is more of a labour market integration work rather than a project to start an SE (STKH 6).

Social bonds could be another possibility for funding SEs. For instance, a private investor could be sharing risks with municipalities. Simultaneously, SEs have to focus on the financial side to get funded (STKH 5). In addition, some microfunds / microcredit unions are open for the SEs, but it is difficult for the SEs to go to the regular banks (STKHs 10, 13), and social banks are also not different in this regard (STKH 3).

Sustainability. Sustainable social enterprises are sometimes described as less realistic and more idealistic cases (STKH 2). Achieving sustainability and successful transition from the project to an enterprise phase is considered an exception and WISE 3 represents such an example, as they managed to start an SE upon completing the project phase (STKH 4). WISE 3 started on a small scale, developed connections, and attracted customers. Besides, according to STKH 4, WISE 3 has a diverse source of income, where some parts could be more stable, the others - more volatile, while the rest could be weakest economically but strongest marketing-wise.

So I think that's the part with the mix of different business models and reaching out predictability versus marketing potential and in combination with a very active board that opens doors for long term collaborations. That combination, I think, is the key for every type of success (WISE 4).

As STKH 10 states, there is a big vulnerability for SEs during the political changes. There should be some balance to avoid mission drift in such a situation (STKH 10). When rules and regulations change, many WISEs go out of the market and the Fas 3 program is a good example (STKH 13). During Fas 3, a lot of enterprises were calling themselves SEs, getting a lot of trainees, but they were out of the market after the cutting of the funding (STKH 1, WISE 7). Those enterprises that realised that they cannot rely only on the work integration services as a revenue stream, have become more sustainable. Similarly, since municipalities have their own activities in the work integration field, sometimes they are not interested in supporting SEs. Therefore, SEs are encouraged to find a stable income not dependent on the public sector. It is also argued that consortia and franchising models could ensure sustainability, as well as selling work integration both to the public and private sectors (STKH 12).

Apart from that, there is a huge competition in the sectors where the majority of WISEs are active (cafes, catering, second-hand stores) which also may affect their sustainability (STKH 3). According to STKH 3, there is no need for more enterprises in these fields. Instead, SEs willing to open cafes can do so as a part of franchising chains of social cafes, for example. Additionally, SEs could select fields that have a high potential such as digitalisation, elderly care, dog daycares, etc. SEs can also move to the city centers for more visibility (STKH 3). It is also noteworthy that SEs

based in bigger cities can have an easier access to the headquarters of big companies that facilitate collaborations between SEs and commercial businesses (STKH 5).

Usually, in the SE context, social and economic sustainability are being discussed. Several SEs also consider an environmental aspect. WISE 6 argues that different dimensions of sustainability should be incorporated by SEs. For STKH 2, such additional forms are cultural, spiritual and religious aspects of sustainability.

When it comes to balancing social and economic missions, STKH 4 believes that if SEs collaborate with the state or if a big part of their revenue comes from the public sector, they will in the end become similar to the public entities, hinting at institutional isomorphism, that could lead to mission drift. Therefore, diversification is important to avoid mission drift, achieving of which can be both easy, as SEs are not stuck with the idea of money and difficult, as it could be related to individual values of the SE founders, that may shape their identity (STKH 4). For WISE 3, to balance social and economic goals, it is important to start with balancing between the market and society needs, and their unique capabilities, to ensure that everything is produced for someone who wants it on the other side of the table (STKH 2, WISE 3). Some SEs understand that they cannot compete with mass production, therefore, focus on the B2B market where it could target a specific segment and charge more (STKH 4, WISE 3).

What you have to do, you have to start with the balance between what the society needs and what the market needs, what people want to buy in comparison to what we could do and what we can make in different ways (WISE 3).

Some interviewees argue that it is important to consider economic aspects while founding SEs. SEs should understand that it is acceptable to think about finances (STKH 5, WISE 16). Such approaches are partly explainable by the fact that the founders usually have a social work / civil society background (STKH 10, WISE 16). They are passionate but without a defined strategy (STKH 5). For WISE 9, the balance should be sought constantly considering that a good client base and financials are instrumental. It is important to generate income (WISE 9, 16), and even in the SE context it is a high responsibility to be financially successful for social purposes (WISE 16).

Otherwise, SEs would be dependent on the public money and later may have to leave the market. Nevertheless, it is also argued that the main idea is not to have profit but to cover the costs (STKH 12).

If you're looking at IKEA, for example, the most successful business in Sweden, that is a company that was started up by one man, he was just good at business. But he has used a lot of people with learning disabilities, for example, and he had a lot of those kinds of people in his business. So why couldn't we find something that we really can earn a lot of money with, too, so we can help even more people? That is my dream. And I think that this is really a challenge. When I say this to my colleagues, they get angry because they don't really catch it. They think that we don't want to earn money. They say, well, we shall not just be businessmen. OK, but good luck then, try to find your money for your social work, how to help people. What are we doing here? We're integrating people into the labor market. What is the labor market? A part of it is the public employment that you can have. But the engine in the whole site is the businesses and that is where we are. We have to create businesses so we can integrate people into the labor market. So people are talking too much about the challenges they have just because they are social enterprises. I say that's not true because I have been running businesses before. I have the same kind of challenges. I have to find customers. I have to find good services to provide. I have to find good products that I can sell. And if I do that, I'm gonna earn money... We have to inspire people and help them to come to the conclusion that they have to focus more and identify themselves more like businessmen than social workers (WISE 13).

Three types of SEs could be distinguished based on SEs that are part of the accelerator at STKH 3: more business-inclined, more socially-inclined, and the balanced ones. Business-oriented SEs may have higher salaries. When it comes to the socially inclined SEs, one might characterise them as not professional enough for running businesses. But it should be considered that it may not be their purpose to grow, as their main focus may be to be more participatory (STKH 3). Those SEs that balance social and economic missions are exceptions (STKHs 2, 4). In most cases, SEs need to depend on big subsidies from the government, though it is not considered fair due to the wrong economic foundation (STKH 2). In addition, such incentives create a 'black market' of labour,

when companies are interested in beneficiaries only for the period when they can get subsidies from the state (STKH 2).

Diversifying the sectors is a way to be safe if one of the directions goes bankrupt. Hence, many different sources of income are important for sustainability (STKH 2) and as a result, for ensuring that social and economic goals are not in danger.

To be successful in both social and economic dimensions, boards could be important, particularly, having both general and staff boards, since democratic principle is important for ensuring sustainability of social enterprises (STKH 3, WISE 6).

Mapping out of responsibility areas is another factor contributing to sustainability (STKH 3), as those enterprises where everyone does everything are usually less effective. Additionally, professional management (STKH 10, WISE 15) and competent personnel (WISE 2) are considered important for sustainability of SEs, since many social ventures lack proper skill in this area. Professional managers could be starting each day with the meetings to discuss the overall impact of their activities, to motivate their employees, for example (WISE 8). It is also argued that SE managers do not have capabilities to advance their practicants to other companies (STKH 8). In this regard, it is notable that bottom-up initiatives and involvement of employees could help build more sustainable ventures, compared to the top-down approaches (WISE 10).

During the conflict between social and economic aspects, SEs try to ensure that economic interests do not endanger the social mission of the SE (WISE 2). For WISE 4, balancing missions is a difficult challenge, and they have to pay low salaries to their employees and are glad that they like the job. However, as argued by WISE 3, some SEs hire many people from the target group, because of feeling pity for them, thus endangering the economic results. Everyday work does not allow SEs to build relationships with strategic partners that would allow balancing the missions (WISE 10). Project money, ways to promote the product and alliances are important for some SEs to build balanced SEs (WISE 6). Whereas for the rest, approximately 50%-50% balance between own income and external financing (WISE 9, 10) is a sign of balanced enterprise, which WISE 9 thinks that they have reached.

For WISE 13, social and economic missions help each other, as training the people to carry the responsibility and grow affects the company and target group itself. When the beneficiaries are established as properly skilled employees, they can support the organisation in carrying out the mission. Whereas, for WISE 9, it is important to grow, but to keep the core values.

It is complex to have measurements for SEs tackling Sustainable Development goals (SDGs), but there should be both quantitative and qualitative measurements employed (STKH 5) to assess sustainability of SEs. STKH 5 suggests that SEs may not have a ROI in terms of money but in terms of society problems.

One of the traditional ways SEs try to measure their social success is by the percentage of the beneficiaries starting a work or continuing studies (STKH 10, WISEs 8, 12, 14, 15). For example, conversion from trainees to employees is quite common at WISE 8. However, these employees disappear quite fast to other companies, after they become more valuable for WISE 8. The SE loses employees but it could be considered a perfect outcome from a social point of view by the SEs. WISE 8 gives people time to get used to work and people start functioning. WISEs are not able to track their former trainees formally (WISE 4). However, they can informally check it through personal relationships and feedback about their experience, as well as by observing their development inside the SE initially (WISEs 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 16). Many social enterprises show that they are content with the results. In addition, SEs can also measure the satisfaction level of their current employees where they usually have positive results. Another way of evaluation is to measure a total amount of money that the SEs could be saving for the society by reintegrating people in the workforce, for instance (STKH 7, WISEs 1, 3) or going even further and calculating compound effects (STKH 7), as employment could break the chain of poverty.

Lastly, it is considered that certifications could provide a good opportunity for measuring SEs (STKH 10, WISE 13) and their conformance to standards and the WISE certification program of SKOOPI, network for social enterprises, is an illustrative example.

As mentioned above, it is mainly the double bottom line, i.e. social and economic aspects of sustainability being discussed by the SEs. However, there are SEs that consider sustainability in terms of a triple bottom line (WISEs 1, 3, 5, 6, 8, 12, 14, 15).

WISE 3 considers recycling things not only environmentally sustainable, but also as a sound economic strategy, in the production of which a social target group is involved, thus ensuring a triple bottom line is met. WISE 1 is similarly trying to combine all three main aspects of sustainability - organic farming that gives an economic motor for social inclusion, making social mission economically sustainable.

For WISE 1, measuring economic performance and environmental sustainability are easy, whereas measuring social sustainability is more difficult. They wish to have an easy way of measuring it, to know how good they are doing. It is mentioned that it is difficult to balance these three. SEs should make sure that ends meet for economic sustainability, achieving environmental sustainability is not considered a challenge, while the biggest potential and the main reason for doing the whole work is social sustainability.

Now the economic one is really easy because that's the number, so that's very digital and easy to see. Environmental or ecological sustainability, so it's also quite easy. I do that bookkeeping in my head. I don't do this for other people. It's not a reach out thing. Maybe that's stupid. It's just that I'm an entrepreneur and I just don't have time for that. So I do it for myself. How many birds' nests did we do this year? How many acres of pollinator plants did I plant, and so on. So environmentally it's still quite easy. The social one is really difficult because I have no idea how I impact social sustainability through the work that we do here. I can see parts of it and I can interpret it as being on the right track, but I have no idea... (WISE 1).

WISE 3 looks at the problems from the prism of sustainability and argues that the future belongs to sustainable small communities, sustainable food and transport systems, etc. WISE 6 promotes urban farming involving and connecting immigrant children and elderly locals, and tries to make the municipality buy food from sustainable sources. WISE 8 also pays a special attention to

sustainable development, however, although taking care of garbage, i.e. the environmental part, is most important, sometimes they don't have enough resources for it.

Apart from that, following the sustainability movement, WISEs are expected to be more valued by both governments and private enterprises (STKH 10). As many people are more conscious of social responsibility of potential employers (STKH 12), the same could be expected from the consumers to be more socially conscious, similarly to the way they position themselves towards environmental aspects of sustainability (WISE 9).

RQ3 - What is the role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises?

The case studies showed that the government is a key player in the work integration social enterprise sector that has a considerable influence on the sustainability of social enterprises. The Swedish government provides important support for the work integration of disadvantaged groups of population and thus, the changes in regulations relating to these areas have a significant effect on the operations of work integration social enterprises. Because of the changes in certain policies, the social enterprises sometimes have to lay off their employees (WISEs 4, 7) and close certain directions (WISE 2). Many SEs also depend on the possible political changes (WISE 4).

And sometimes they have a lot of money and sometimes they don't. And everyone is giving the guilt to anyone else. Oh, it's them... So now we are just waiting for how it will be in politics.. who will come to power.. to decide (WISE 4).

Besides, the Swedish government is argued to be promoting big and quick fixes (WISEs 1, 3, 6), while in reality it takes hard work to make things work. However, the managers of social enterprises maintain that many small solutions, rather than one big solution could better address the existing challenges (WISE 1). Furthermore, focus on numbers and maximisation of participants does not contribute to the solution of the pressing social problems (WISE 6). The authorities also prefer to work with large companies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and smaller

companies are distrusted (WISE 1), while working with many small enterprises may give a better result as small companies allow people to be part of them (WISE 6).

And I think what's coming now very much is that the rest of Sweden, actually, many other municipalities want to do something similar and.. I think that many things - it's a quick fix, you know, but you just have (our) model and so on. But it's really hard work every day and it's lots of challenges the whole time (WISE 3).

Especially in Sweden, I would say, the government works almost exclusively with either very big commercial companies and they're the ones making money sending to Panama and so on. Or NGOs, they currently never work with smaller companies that do this from a social, you know, heart perspective. And, we are distrusted (WISE 1).

Actually, nothing else is a problem. It is the public sector that has to acknowledge the necessity of especially small sustainable companies and how they are going to incorporate them in politics, policy and law making. It's a new labor market and it's very hard because there are the unions and all that from an era that was before that, when we were an industrial country. We are not anymore. So it's a challenge (WISE 6).

It is argued that selling goods and services to public administration will still remain important for WISEs in the foreseeable future. Interestingly, in more than 95% of the cases, these are commercial enterprises that are benefiting (STKH 4). The problem is that SEs are not seen as real enterprises. They are supposed to be cheap and expected to provide things for free. Whereas, commercial enterprises can charge as much as they want. Therefore, SEs should value themselves more (STKH 4, WISE 3).

It is notable that the public procurement spending represents 20% of total finances circulating in Sweden - social clauses and reserved public procurement are the forms. Therefore, it is a big potential market for the SEs (STKHs 3, 12; WISE 16), and for SMEs operating in the municipality as well (STKH 4, WISE 16). It is argued that public procurement announcements should become smaller (STKHs 4, 11, 12). For instance, simplification and removal of non-essential requirements

from the announcement enabled WISE 3 to participate and win the contract with Region Skåne (STKHs 4, 11), and it could enable more SEs to participate (STKH 3). Therefore, a shift of mindset is needed in the public sector. Although the public procurement system has become more inclusive (STKH 13), it could still need to become more socially sustainable (STKHs 3, 5). Many municipalities may not still follow it (STKH 12), but it is noteworthy that some municipalities have more innovative approaches in this regard (STKH 5) and many more are expected to follow (STKH 13). And there could be a need for more involvement and contribution from the SE side as well (STKHs 5, 11). When it comes to the social clauses, they represent another possibility for social enterprises to partner with larger companies. The most widespread example is a partnership of real estate companies with WISEs (WISE 3, 5, 6, 15).

The vast amount of money being spent by the public is via procurements. So if we can educate and if we can get a common ground on how an entrepreneur or social entrepreneur contributes and understand how to sell to the public, we could potentially, make the public procurement processes to be more socially sustainable or more environmentally sustainable. And that is often when one talks about the public procurement process - oh, they're so complex, they're so difficult, and they're just, you know, hindering us from doing things. But I'm just thinking. OK, well, yeah, that is the truth now. But we need to elaborate on that. And that is also from the state agency's perspective. They, of course, want the procurement to be more sustainable as well. So we will then get some guidelines from them (STKH 5).

Public-Private Partnerships (IoPs) are rarer among social enterprises due to the small size of SEs and possible power imbalance (STKHs 11, 12, 13). It is used in some parts of Sweden, while it is considered not to be for WISEs (STKH 13) in some others. However, there are some SEs that have managed to establish such partnership agreements both with the Swedish Public Employment Office and a municipality, and try to grow the scope (WISE 3).

It is noted that the experience that SEs have at the Swedish Public Employment Office and municipalities, for example, could largely depend on the key contacts who are in charge of the WISE affairs at these public entities (STKH 6, WISEs 1, 3, 9, 10). Some contacts are knowledgeable about WISEs, while it may not be the case for the others, and could get criticised

for not being responsive to offers for collaboration (WISEs 1, 6). Those municipal and AF centers, where there is a longer SE tradition and an experience of working with outstanding SE examples, tend to be more aware of the field (STKH 6, WISE 10).

When it comes to the specific entities with which SEs usually have to deal, these are Swedish Public Employment Service, Municipalities, Regions, etc.

It is argued that the Regions should be more actively involved in the SE support (STKHs 4, 12), as it is their responsibility to support businesses (STKH 4) and they know all the actors such as incubators and business developers among others (STKH 12). For instance, WISE 8 thinks that they have nothing to do with Region Scania, as they are too big for them. However, WISE 3 managed to partner with the regional council of Scania County, and plans to enlarge the collaboration.

When the municipalities are concerned, it is often mentioned that they run similar work integration activities (WISEs 2, 4, 8), and therefore, they are not interested in supporting SE initiatives (WISE 8). While some SEs view this as a negative fact, as they believe that they can offer more diversity (WISE 4) or run initiatives with an entrepreneurial spirit (WISE 2), others are not much concerned about municipalities operating in the same domain (WISE 13).

On the other hand, the kommun (municipality) in Sweden, they are running projects like this on their own but their force is different because, I think, if you're working in the kommun (municipality)... I don't think you will have that kind of energy or that kind of interest as if you're a free organisation (WISE 2).

And nowadays, I think they have money that the municipality has a lot of projects of their own where they are placing the people. And that's a bit sad because then it's always about one thing (WISE 4).

And that is I don't expect that the municipality is coming here, knocking on the doors asking, what can we do for you? Because I am an entrepreneur. I understand that if something should happen, I

need to do it myself, to take contact and go forward. Go get it. There are so many resources to get. (WISE 13).

Though, some municipalities are interested in financing the premises and supervisors for WISEs. Some SEs have a good relationship with municipalities (WISEs 9) and for some they have served as one of the key partners as well (WISEs 5, 10), despite stressing on the need of renewing the terms of the agreement (WISE 5). In contrast some SEs consider that municipalities have lots of power, but almost no accountability (WISE 6) and are criticised for offering constructed work to beneficiaries (STKH 7).

They were very helpful for us, the startup, they reduced rent and helped with the suppliances. And they have been very helpful. They wanted us to succeed. So they really opened up possibilities for us to make it work. Yes, I have nothing bad to say about that. It's really, really great (WISE 10).

Lastly, it is mentioned that municipalities cannot survive without the collaboration with the civil society (WISE 12).

The Swedish Public Employment Service (Arbetsförmedlingen - AF) is the key stakeholder for WISEs. It usually covers 80% of the employees salaries (WISEs 8, 9), as long as the working conditions should be adapted to the employees' health and capacity (WISE 9). Some SEs are more content by the collaboration with AF (WISE 8). The overall volume of support can vary based on the political parties in power, ranging from several billions of SEK to virtually nothing, therefore a national policy is wished to exist (WISE 10). Due to a change of funding volume and high dependence of WISEs on AF subsidies (STKH 4), some SEs have to lay off employees (WISEs 4, 7), lose the funding (WISE 12) or go out of the market altogether. Some WISEs and stakeholders find it unfair that AF gets criticised much (STKHs 2, 5, 8, WISE 11), as they just implement the political decisions (STKH 8, WISE 11). In addition, the employees have to take care of too many people, there is a frequent reorganisation and big turnover of employees at AF (STKH 2). Nevertheless, it is also argued that AF should be more proactive to support reintegration and understand the effort it takes to put people in practice work (WISEs 1, 13) and cover the respective

costs, and help possible beneficiaries in finding workplaces and not just providing financial support (WISE 8).

But the system in Sweden is very bureaucratic and complicated. So if you go to the Arbetsförmedlingen and say hello, I am mentally ill, but I want to work, they don't really want you there. They say, you can get help, you can get money, but we can't help you with work (WISE 8).

Another problem with dealing with AF is that they have a limited number of support months for beneficiaries, usually ranging from 3 to 6 months (WISE 2), while it could be taking more time to reintegrate those people (WISEs 2, 8). Whereas, at municipalities the support months may not be usually limited, however, they try to place the problem under AF's responsibility because of high costs at some major municipal centers due to high unemployment figures (WISE 2).

Current rules, as well as EU project requirements, promote SEs to accept a lot of people from the public agencies and such priority on numbers and statistics is against social sustainability (WISE 6). Many companies are also interested in the beneficiaries as long as they have government subsidies of 80% of their salaries and are now longer willing to collaborate as soon as this period is over (STKHs 1, 2). Though, some SEs state that these are SEs adding 20% to the salary, rather than the state providing 80%, as it is their responsibility to provide people with decent work (WISE 6). Simultaneously, the public sector also has to understand the value it is getting from social enterprises (STKH 12).

Other criticism of the public sector includes non-willingness to collaborate with small sustainable companies (WISE 6); providing less financial support to beneficiaries in case they are able to start working (WISE 8); placing trainees on unrelated trainings (WISE 14); not allowing to work with diverse target groups (WISE 8), and paying social income instead of supporting SEs (WISE 16).

If some year they say, now, we want to work with them. And then everybody runs in that direction. And the next year (it's) something else. But it always leaves a big group of people outside. And these are the people who we really care about (WISE 8).

In addition, while some respondents see development in more collaboration with the public sector (STKHs 10, 11; WISE 10), others criticise the current downsides of the welfare system in Sweden (STKH 7). They warn that there are a lot of social work places constructed for WISE. Though, it could be considered to be positive, it should rather be regarded as an intermediate place. As 10% of the population is out of the market and being taken care of, the need for changing the discourse, organising the society in new ways, and disrupting in a new innovative direction is highlighted (STKH 7). The solutions could be a small number of disadvantaged people working in small sustainable companies, more ownership, as well as more open forms of social innovation. Since if the system creates the problems, providing more money will continue everything in the same way (STKH 7).

Furthermore, the SE stakeholders criticise the notion of ‘people who are far away from the labour market’ and state that it could be the labour market that may be far from people (STKH 2). Besides, they stress on the negative aspects of stigmatising people who are sick and unemployed (STKH 2). In this sense, SE may not even be a part of the solution, as these issues are related to more widespread societal problems (STKH 2). Through the access to public funding, SEs become part of the storytelling of labour market policies (WISE 11). Consensus that everyone should work to be accepted as a part of society is also criticised by WISE 11. As a result, everyone who is unemployed blames themselves about it. Thus, the responsibility is shifted from the environment/society to the individual. Nevertheless, this position is not accepted by many, arguing that it would be impossible to have a proper society, if people are not in the labour market, so that they can contribute to the system and not consume it (STKH 9).

If the people are not in the labour market, how are we going to have a society?! (STKH 9)

For WISE 11, inventing work for this purpose does not make sense and is hiding the problem of redistribution of means in society. To WISE 11, basic income could be a solution, which could unleash creativity, instead of adapting people to the labour market that has no interest in them. However, the target group also refuses the basic income idea, and prefers to be part of this system (WISE 11). WISE 11 argues that the SE term is problematic, as long as the norm of enterprising is antisocial. WISE 11 states that this small group of people who are mostly publicly funded should

be banned, since extracting value from these target groups is deeply unethical, as many people get sick. Similarly, as WISE 11 believes, impact investment lessens the flow of philanthropic capital to more long-term solutions. Finally, the SE term is getting skewed because of different political reasons.

I hope this particular field called social enterprising, which is trapped with project funding and other sorts of limitations, where you put these people, stigmatise them while getting rid of your bad conscience for not having them included in the regular economy... I think it's shameful. It should be stopped. The idea of having to be employed in order to be accepted as a member of society is not valid anymore... If you want to uphold that idea, you must say no to the primary forces of economic development because it has always been to get rid of work and to produce stuff in a more efficient or effective way. And so the idea that we should invent work, it's obnoxious. So it's a way of also dodging the problem of redistribution of means in society... Because we have the winner takes all the economy. I mean, you don't have to think really hard to realise that it's not going to work if you don't have any customers... The whole idea with the welfare state, the important idea was to redistribute money to have a consumer class, who invented the consumer class. Now, if you want to uphold a consumer economy, which is you might not want that, but if you want that, you need to keep the consumers funded one way or the other. Since the political system can't do that, I guess the business system has to do it themselves (WISE 11).

Last but not least, the public agencies, through the social democratic influence, are used to owning things instead of giving a chance to private actors to run and provide services/products (WISE 15). On the other hand, measuring the need both from the business and government side needs to be done to have a more efficient system (WISE 14). In addition, taxation is another problem that concerns social enterprises that have both commercial and project income. To simplify the process SEs have to register two separate entities - foundation for the project income and a regular company for commercial income, however, such a distinction risks the end of a social enterprise circle of innovations and social initiatives (WISE 15).

6. Discussion and Conclusion

RQ1 - Do social enterprises utilise social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals, and to what extent?

Legitimacy and social imprinting. Focus on social value creation and its prioritisation is a source of legitimacy for social enterprises. WISEs focus on achieving legitimacy through the special legal forms and partly, fair competition practices. However, some enterprises do not consider that such approaches are necessary.

Having a primary social mission enables SEs to access respective networks, and gain legitimacy among the business, public and private customers. Though, it also should be mentioned that not all customers realise the social mission of the SEs and it is the high quality of the products or services that they pay attention to. The findings can be explained by the legitimacy theory (Suchman, 1995) and imprinting theory (Stinchcombe, 1965). It could be argued that social enterprises use all - pragmatic, moral and cognitive - forms of legitimacy (Huybrechts et al., 2014). First, SEs acquire pragmatic legitimacy not to exclude their enterprise from the possible benefits. For instance, stating profit-limiting clauses during foundation is such a behaviour. Otherwise, SEs may risk not getting contracts from the public agencies. Second, an example of leveraging moral legitimacy is following the fair competition practices, when SEs try to study the market not to be in an unfair competition with other enterprises that may be operating in the same field. As SEs might find it wrong since they usually get support from the public entities. Finally, prioritisation of social value creation can be considered a cognitive form of legitimacy, when in some cases SEs might view it unthinkable not to do so. In addition, findings also support the position that SEs acquire organisational legitimacy from both public and private sectors (Blessing, 2015). The findings respond to the call from the researchers on studying how SMEs legitimise social and environmental practices in different country settings (Crossley et al., 2021). As it is argued that prosocial motivations have not been adequately addressed within the framework of imprinting theory (Moroz et al., 2018), the findings also contribute to the imprinting theory by showing that social imprinting serves as a source of legitimacy for social enterprises and eventually affects the SE organisation and performance.

Partner network. Different social enterprises use their partner networks differently, some are more active, collaborating with more and different types of organisations, while others have a limited number of key partners and some do not collaborate much. However, it is noteworthy that in line with the scientific literature (Frankenberger et al., 2013; Weber and Kratzer, 2013), enterprises with more and different types of partners have more social and economic achievements.

It is also notable that one of the WISEs has successfully used its connections with the key worldwide known commercial brand to gain publicity and legitimacy, contrary to the claims of Moizer and Tracey (2010) that such ties may endanger the legitimacy of SEs. On the contrary, through the partnership with the international brand, the WISE managed to have markets opened up for them, suggesting that as long as they could satisfy the requirements of the well-known brand, then they could have agreement with everyone. Hence, it also does not support the argument that SEs that receive stakeholder support for their hybrid mission could lose moral legitimacy among their future stakeholders due to the possible lack of social impact (Brown et al., 2021).

Though, it has to be mentioned that SEs are usually small and rarely have enough time and resources to establish proper partnerships. Similarly to many startups (Zahra, 2021), they can be seen as entities with liabilities of smallness and sometimes, newness. Due to their small size, their partnership opportunities could be also limited. But several social enterprises could be open for collaborations if their potential partners reach out to them. Nevertheless, some SEs prefer not to collaborate much, as they want to focus on their core business. Knowledge sharing, alliances of small social enterprises, constant seeking of partnership opportunities and common vision are stated as important factors contributing to sustainability of social enterprises.

The findings could be connected to the stakeholder theory to understand why SEs try to work with their most important stakeholders (Griffith, 2009). In this regard, external commercial or non-commercial partners may not be considered as such. Rather, these are the beneficiaries and in some cases, public sector entities that need more attention from the SE founders / managers. Therefore,

the findings do not support the proposition that social enterprises could be aiming at a balanced allocation of their time and attention among their key stakeholders (Burga and Rezanian, 2016).

Social bricolage. Social entrepreneurs are argued to be social bricoleurs (Zahra et al., 2009). SEs combine resources in creative and efficient ways (Dees, 2001). As Di Domenico et al. (2010) propose, making do, a refusal to be constrained by limitations, improvisation, creation of social value, stakeholder participation and persuasion are key principles and processes of social bricolage. It could be argued that in certain cases, SEs could be characterised with several if not all of these processes. Social bricolage is particularly important for social enterprise sustainability. WISEs are characterised with creative resource mobilisation; however, the levels of social bricolage differ from case to case, whereas, enterprises with higher levels of social bricolage exhibit qualities of more socially and economically sustainable social enterprises (Di Domenico et al., 2010).

Many WISEs operate second-hand stores, thus understanding the value of discarded materials. They try to organise work processes around second-hand stores and some even attempt to increase the value of materials by using them to renovate old houses. Interestingly, several WISEs similarly view their target group employees as unused resources by the regular market who can find their places within social enterprises. SEs use their existing infrastructure to address social issues. They experiment and improvise with their resources at hand and also resources potentially available to them, for the acquisition of which they try to persuade their stakeholders. Some of them also actively use boards consisting of the members with diverse backgrounds to access external knowledge and expertise.

The findings are mainly in line with the RBV theory (Barney, 1991) that views an organisation as a combination of tangible and intangible resources, based on which firms compete (Peteraf and Bergen, 2003; Doherty, 2011), and create and maintain competitive advantage (Zahra, 2021). Resource-based view theory posits that gaining and sustaining competitive advantage is possible when these resources are valuable, rare, inimitable and organisationally embedded (VRIO) (Barney, 1996; Cheah et al., 2019; Gibson et al., 2021). However, Zahra (2021) states that the VRIO framework may not be fully appropriate for the startup firms, since startups are

characterised by the liabilities of smallness and newness, they may usually lack resources and not be in a position to acquire highly valuable and non-substitutable resources. Similarly to startups, social enterprises are in most cases characterised by the liabilities of smallness and newness (in case of the SEs in the foundation stage). Therefore, it may be argued that although the VRIO attributes enable SEs to gain a competitive advantage, it is quite rare when the resources of SEs fall within the VRIO framework. Rather, it is more about creative combination of scarce resources and making do, as well as entrepreneurial resourcefulness and the concepts underlying the bricolage construct (Zahra, 2021). Hence, the findings of this study extend support for the propositions of Zahra (2021) from the context of startups to that of social enterprises.

RQ2 - Do social enterprises face tensions between social and economic value creation, and what kind of business models help them balance the missions?

Business models. It is argued that the idea of growth needs to be revisited from a different perspective. In addition, such scale-ups should be promoted when new small SEs are replicated in different locations. Social franchising could be one of such examples. Circular business models and focus on B2B direction could be also prospective directions for SEs seeking sustainable business models. Indeed, as Lane and Gumley (2018) state, the social enterprise sector is even more active in the circular economy than the commercial waste management sector.

When it comes to social value creation, social enterprises stress on the importance of real work, that WISEs should be normally providing (Krupa et al., 2019; Zaniboni et al., 2011), versus artificial work. Diversity of work training is also stated as an important factor. In addition, interviewees argue about the need of self-empowerment for the target group of long-term unemployed, however, it has also been acknowledged that the lack of skills and knowledge among this group make such initiatives prone to failure. Although, Chui et al. (2018) found that WISEs can be a source of meaningful engagement, individual-based empowerment and relational-based empowerment, as it seems, there are certain boundaries to the possible empowerment of beneficiaries, as also noticed by Tanekenov et al. (2018).

When the economic value creation is concerned, the majority of interviewees agree that SEs should see themselves as regular businesses. However, the project funding works as a potential ‘trap’ for them. Social initiatives are run with the project funding without economic ground, and once they are out of finances, they usually fail to proceed to an enterprise stage, with some exceptions. Diversification of economic activities and income sources is thus suggested. It is also noticed that the SEs with diverse activities are more sustainable as they diversify their risks. As argued by Guan et al. (2021), little attention has been paid to the revenue diversification in social enterprises. However their study showed that revenue diversification had a negative effect on the financial health of SEs, but the effects were offset after considering the total income (Guan et al., 2021). Whereas, several authors state that diverse income is one of the key factors contributing to successful social and financial outcomes (Ciambotti and Pedrini, 2019; Powell et al., 2018). Therefore, running social enterprises in a consortium way could be a possibility for achieving sustainability. Hence, several SEs find an approximately equal income from their own sources and external support as a balanced point that they should be content with. However, SEs may largely differ according to the ranges of their own income / external support, as also discussed in the scientific literature (Alter, 2007; Dohrmann et al., 2015). Finally, it is stated that SEs may actually not be in need of external financing in most cases.

Sustainability. Successful transition from the project phase to an enterprise happens in case of those SEs that start small, considering the economic principles and building the SE at an early stage. Again, a diverse source of income ensures sustainability of SEs. Particularly, in case of political changes, big dependence on public support could be damaging or even disastrous for many SEs. While some SE founders/managers, similarly to Leung et al. (2019), state that running SEs is more work intensive than running regular enterprises, as they also have to deal with the social dimension, other social entrepreneurs argue that they do not find differences between running social and commercial ventures.

As SEs work actively with the public sector, and also come from the public sector and/or social work backgrounds, such experience may make them similar to these public agencies, and thus become a source of mission drift. Additionally, some WISEs understand the importance of

matching the market needs and their own production. A particular importance is placed on the need to consider economic aspects more seriously, and even more carefully, considering its effect on reaching social goals. The findings also support the position of Leung et al. (2019) that SEs that aim at achieving both social and financial goals seem to be more sustainable than the ones pursuing only social goals. Similarly, Battilana (2018) argues that social enterprises that are based on hybrid organising, are more successful on social and economic dimensions. Operating in fields that are not characterised with high competition is also important. Furthermore, advisory boards, mapping out of responsibility areas and professional management could contribute to sustainability of SEs, supporting the claims of Battilana et al. (2015).

For achieving sustainability, it is important to measure social and economic performance, as well as the environmental aspects. Although measuring commercial results could be more straightforward, evaluating social results may not be that clear. Some of the examples for assessing social performance could be the percentage of the beneficiaries proceeding to work or continuing studies. Another way is measuring the amount of money that SE may be saving for society by integrating the beneficiaries into the workforce, or even estimating the compound effects of such integration. When it comes to the environmental dimension, it has to be mentioned that some SEs assess their sustainability with a triple-bottom line perspective, integrating environmental sustainability, the measurement of which some SEs do not find particularly challenging. While others even argue about integration of some additional forms of sustainability. The findings in this regard support the position of Baraibar-Diez et al. (2019) that SEs can be considered symbols of sustainable entrepreneurship. However, many WISEs do not formally measure their performance despite the existence of many different approaches, even though researchers argue that investing SE's limited and valuable resources in documenting the impact and outcomes to properly measure social and economic performance should more than justified, which can also help SEs demonstrate organisational legitimacy (Luke et al., 2013).

Contrary to the position that it is not possible to achieve high results on both social and economic dimensions (Bellostas et al., 2016; Stevens et al., 2015), many SEs show that it is realistic, supporting the claims of the other group of researchers (Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli

et al., 2019; Spieth et al., 2019). However, there are several cases where SEs do not manage to be equally successful in both directions, as argued by a part of the authors.

The key findings could be mainly explained by the imprinting theory (Moroz et al., 2018). Type of imprinting that SE founders and/or managers may have, largely influences their views, perspectives and approaches, according to which they may structure their business models. Although the impact of some forms of imprinting (e.g. parental imprinting) on the SE creation and commercialisation is debatable (Dickel et al., 2021; Lee and Battilana, 2020), work imprinting seems to be an important factor that influences SE commercialisation (Lee and Battilana, 2020).

RQ3 - What is the role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises?

It should be mentioned that until rather recently, the term ‘social enterprise’ referred to WISEs in Sweden and public support initiatives have also been targeted at WISEs (European Commission, 2015).

The findings are in line with the scientific literature that a social enterprise is an embedded concept (Mair and Marti, 2006) and national, regional and municipal level regulations play an important role in shaping the context for social enterprises. The EU-level regulations can be also mentioned for the EU-member countries. Changes in these regulations have a significant effect on sustainability of social enterprises. Furthermore, promoting big and quick fixes and collaborating solely with big corporations and nonprofits does not leave space for small sustainable enterprises. Besides, public agencies in several cases have been described as the partners with the limited capability of collaborative innovation.

Public procurement spending is considered to be one of the effective measures that is currently underemployed in the Swedish WISE arena. Social clauses and reserved public procurement are the sub-forms of it. It is argued that the public sector should change the mindset and adjust the requirements to the capacities of smaller enterprises. More established partnerships, such as IoPs are usually rare, considering the small size of SEs.

Key contacts at public agencies could be changing the experience of WISEs and may affect the potential of possible collaborative work. Though, the difference may lie in the prior work tradition of the municipal or other agency centers with WISEs.

When it comes to specific agencies and centers, there are different expectations, criticism and appraisal of each of these entities. For instance, regional centres are expected and seen to have a big potential to contribute to the SE development. Meanwhile, municipalities are rather considered actors that engage in similar work training activities as SEs. However, attitudes of SEs towards this fact differ as well. Despite criticism, in some cases, municipalities serve as key partners for SEs. When the Swedish Public Employment Service is observed, it is notable that the change of their policies could be leading to instability among WISEs.

Finally, some interviewees criticise the welfare system overall and warn about the high percentage of people being taken care of by it. In this perspective, they advocate for disruptive models to revolutionise the welfare system through more open forms involving ownership and small sized enterprises, in order to deconstruct the current equilibrium. Whereas, others even argue about banning social enterprising in this form, as WISEs could be a way of hiding the redistribution problems through creating publicly funded workplaces and not contributing to really solving the problem.

To conclude, the relationship with the public agencies could be explained by several theories, specifically, stakeholder and imprinting theories. The study contributes to the imprinting theory by showing that the social imprinting (Battilana et al., 2015) concept highlights the type of relationships and expectations that SEs may have towards the public sector. Whereas, the study informs the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994) how important the parties (SEs and public agencies) perceive each other, and pay attention to one another considering their perceived value (Griffith, 2009), rather than equally allocated value (Burga and Rezania, 2016).

7. Limitations and Future Research Avenues

The study has several limitations. When methodological limitations are concerned, the study mainly depends on the perceptions of the interviewees, rather than more measurable items. Although it could largely be a characteristic of many qualitative studies, integration of more ‘quantitative’ measures would be welcome. The research is also limited to the country context of Sweden, and its region, Scania. While Scania can be considered a representative Swedish county, extending the research to more countries could contribute to the literature. Finally, the study is limited to the WISE form of social enterprises, and it can be conducted on the other forms of SEs.

There are several potential research questions that the study results have prompted. The first research avenue is conducting a longitudinal study that could assess the possible changes in social imprinting, reasons for such changes and effects on the SE legitimacy. Another prospective question concerns studying processes related to social bricolage, such as effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2001), lean startup (Ries, 2011), etc., their adoption by the SEs and the resulting outcomes. Finally, the similar study could be conducted on those social enterprises that have left the market due to different reasons, as it may provide a different perspective on the findings.

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Conclusion

The initial objective of the thesis was to find an operating definition of social entrepreneurship relevant for theory building. The main objective of the thesis was to understand the connection between implementation of business models in social enterprises, specifically, by researching the effects of social imprinting, partner network strength and social bricolage on social and economic performance of social enterprises. Additionally, the relationship between social performance and economic performance among social enterprises was also addressed. Finally, the role of the public sector in sustainability of SEs was also examined.

Secondarily, the objective of was to study the link between the implementation of business models and the SE performance - specifically, the impact of social imprinting, partner network strength and social bricolage on the social and economic performance of SEs. The association of SE's social performance with economic performance was also addressed.

Lastly, the final objective of the thesis was to understand how social enterprises use social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals. In addition, the goal was to understand what kind of business models and approaches help SEs balance social and economic missions. Finally, the role of the public sector in sustainability of WISEs was aimed to be assessed.

Specifically, the following research questions have been addressed in the thesis:

Chapter 1

- Does the research have to focus on social entrepreneurial processes, social entrepreneurs or social enterprises?
- Can this definition overcome the differences in national representations of SE?
- How could this definition be operationalized through indicators, items, that would be workable both in quantitative and qualitative approaches?

Chapter 2

- What are some of the most important factors influencing the sustainability of social enterprises?
- Do the social imprinting, strength of partner network and social bricolage have positive effects on sustainability of social enterprises - their social and economic performance?
- Can social enterprises be successful both in terms of social performance and economic performance?

Chapter 3

- Do social enterprises utilise social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals, and to what extent?
- Do social enterprises face tensions between social and economic value creation, and what kind of business models help them balance the missions?
- What is the role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises?

I. Synthesis of the Main Results

The section describes a brief summary of the research results per each chapter of the thesis.

Chapter 1

The paper first described the nature of SE in comparison to other types of entrepreneurship. Next, existing social entrepreneurship paradigms were discussed. The sections were followed by the analysis of heterogeneity of the SE concept by articulating the legal and the conceptual differences relating to public policies and academic debates, respectively. Based on the existing definitions, a ‘common denominator’ definition has been proposed together with the ways to operationalize it.

Chapter 2

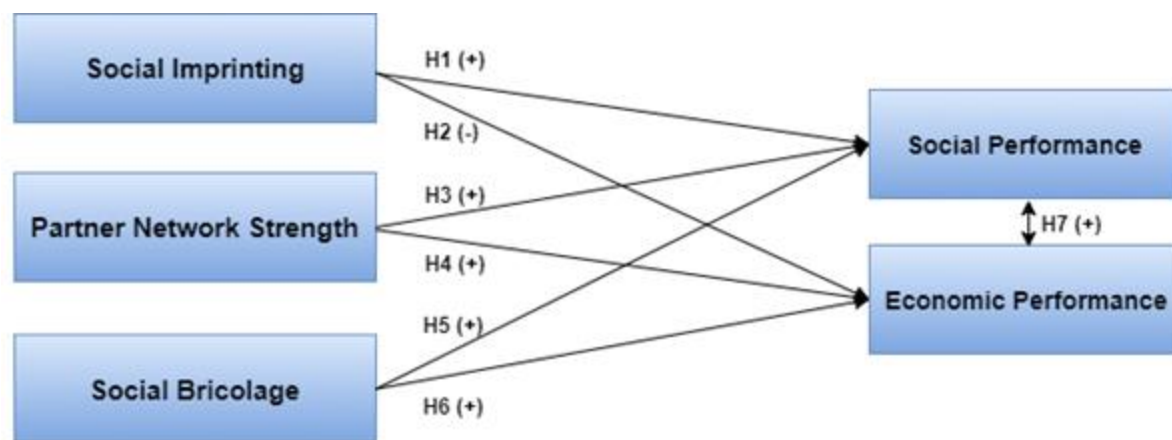


Figure 1. Conceptual Model

Most of the hypotheses of the model (5 out of 7) were fully supported. The relationships proposed in the remaining two hypotheses were not found to be significant. More specifically, social imprinting had a positive impact on social performance of SEs, while its link with economic performance was insignificant. The study showed that the partner network strength had a positive impact on social performance of SEs, but its relationship with economic performance did not turn out to be significant. The positive relationship of social bricolage with both social performance and economic performance has been validated. Lastly, the link between social performance and economic performance of SEs was found to be positive.

Chapter 3.

The results of the qualitative study showed that social enterprises focus on social value creation and prioritization of social direction is a source of legitimacy for them. Having a primary social mission gives SEs access to different partner networks, and gain legitimacy with public, private and individual customers. WISEs differ in their level of activity in building partnerships. Some rather few SEs are quite active in collaborations, others partners with key stakeholders, while a big part of WISEs find it difficult to build partnerships because of their small size, and limited resources. However, some SEs could be open to partnerships if a potential partner approaches, while some decide not to collaborate much because they find it important to focus on their business. When it comes to social bricolage, WISEs that are characterised with higher levels of

social bricolage usually exhibit qualities of more sustainable enterprises. WISEs usually understand the value of discarded materials and unseen employee skills. They use their existing infrastructure for social value creation, try to persuade key stakeholders on providing potentially available resources, and access external knowledge through their boards.

When the sustainability of social enterprise business models is concerned, scaling of SEs through social franchising and diversification of economic activities, possibly including consortium models, are considered to contribute to sustainability. Circular business models, and focus on B2B as the key market are other prospective directions. It is also argued that SEs should view themselves as regular businesses, which may not always be true, considering the social background of the SE founders. Starting SEs with project funding does not produce expected results, as many founders run SEs without economic ground and fail to proceed from project to enterprise phase.

Finally, when assessing the role of the public sector in the sustainability of SEs, we can find that the state agencies are instrumental for SE sustainability, particularly, in those cases when SEs decide to largely depend on the public subsidies and funding, which may ebb away after political changes.

II. General Discussion

The general discussion section reviews the findings per each chapter and presents the theoretical contributions, showing how the theoretical gaps have been addressed. It also discusses contributions to the theories mobilized in the theoretical framework. Finally, it presents the complementarity of research findings that produces a theoretical contribution.

2.1 Chapter 1. Systematic Literature Review

Based on the systematic literature review, one stream of literature (Alter, 2006; Dees, 1998; Lepoutre et al., 2013) which views SEs to be residing on the hybrid spectrum, was enforced. Social enterprises can be considered to be located on a multi-dimensional continuum of social value creation, market orientation and innovativeness, as also similarly viewed by Lepoutre et al. (2013). The definition of social entrepreneurship has been proposed based on the common core of the

definitions - *Social entrepreneurship is a process of opportunity discovery or creation and creative resource mobilisation towards predominant social value creation with either a certain level of market orientation or innovativeness or a combination of both.*

Relating to the research question whether the research has to focus on social entrepreneurial processes, social entrepreneurs or social enterprises, it was suggested that the research could be conducted on all dimensions though the focus should be more on the process and organizational dimensions rather than on individual characteristics of social entrepreneurs, in order to advance the field. It is also argued that the definition can overcome the differences in national representations of SE.

When it comes to operationalization of the definition, focus on the social value creation could be operationalized through the share spent on social issues or through a distribution of priorities among competing dimensions (Lepoutre et al., 2013). Market orientation of SEs could be measured according to the share of the earned income. Finally, innovativeness can be operationalized through different criteria, for instance, the ones used in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) studies, assessing enterprises on the following dimensions: providing new products or services, offering a new approach to producing a product/service, or new way of delivery and promotion and unattended customer niche can characterise innovations among social enterprises (Bosma et al., 2016; Lepoutre et al., 2013).

2.2 Chapter 2. Quantitative Study

Social imprinting has been considered an important variable that has a positive effect on the social performance of SEs, though negative association with economic results (Battilana et al., 2015). However, since the authors have tested their hypotheses on the social enterprises in a single country (France), they have called for the replications of the study in other countries in order to find support for generalizability of findings (Battilana et al., 2015). The multiple regression analysis showed that social imprinting was positively and significantly related to the social performance of SEs, thus supporting the Hypothesis 1. The results are in line with the findings of Battilana et al. (2015) which showed the positive relationship between social imprinting and SE social performance. Therefore, the study responded to the call of studying the assessed relationships in other country contexts than France, showing support for the hypothesis on the

Swedish SEs. The findings can be explained by legitimacy theory. SEs gain legitimacy which gives them access to the additional resources to reach social objectives (Folmer et al., 2018). Therefore, social imprinting enables SEs to gain legitimacy among their stakeholders which helps in mobilizing necessary resources. However, Hypothesis 2 on a negative relationship between social imprinting and economic performance was not supported. Even though it is argued that social imprinting decreases economic results (Battilana et al., 2015), the claim was not validated. Legitimacy theory could again serve to explain the possible underlying issue. The resources that are gained through enhanced legitimacy due to social imprinting, may not only help reach positive social outcomes, but also may not necessarily lead SEs to poor economic results.

Strength of the partner network is another factor that has been argued to be a key variable for social and economic performance of SEs (Weber and Kratzer, 2013). Since the argument was based on a study of a more 'elite' group of social enterprises such as Schwab Foundation social enterprises (Weber and Kratzer, 2013), it was considered appropriate to examine the relationships on more 'general population' of SEs. Hypothesis 3 on a positive relationship between the strength of the partner network and SE social performance has been validated. Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994), that argues that a firm's success is highly related to the degree of meeting stakeholders' interests, as well as the resources provided by the partners could explain this result. However, Hypothesis 4, suggesting a positive association between the partner network strength and economic performance of SEs was not supported. Although stakeholder theory suggests that stronger links with stakeholders leads to better economic results, there could be differences in case of social enterprises. As Folmer et al. (2018) argue, despite the importance of partner networks for both commercial and social ventures, their use of networks is significantly different since SEs mainly access intangible resources via their networks. SEs also use their networks more for legitimacy reasons (Folmer et al., 2018).

Bricolage (Baker and Nelson, 2005) has been considered another key variable ensuring high performance and scaling of impact (Bacq et al., 2015; Senyard et al., 2010). However, the findings of Bacq et al. (2015) showed that the effects of bricolage are limited at some point, as it showed an inverted U-shaped relationship between bricolage and scaling of social impact. Di Domenico et al. (2010) have proposed social bricolage concept Hypotheses 5 and 6 suggesting positive effects of social bricolage on social performance and economic performance of SEs, respectively, have been

supported, supporting the propositions from the academic literature (Di Domenico et al., 2010; Hota et al., 2019; Senyard et al., 2014; Voltan, 2019). Though, unlike the findings of Bacq et al. (2015), RBV (Barney, 1991) provides explanations for the findings, as SEs usually operate in scarce resource environments and during social bricolage SEs use their own resources, and seek for creative combinations, which help them deliver enhanced social and economic results.

Finally, the Hypothesis 7 proposing that there is a positive relationship between the social performance and economic performance of SEs has been supported, strengthening the claims of one stream of literature (Bellostas et al., 2016; Cho and Kim, 2017; Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019) that it is possible to reach successful results on both dimensions. Legitimacy theory could again attempt to explain the findings. Gaining legitimacy helps SEs get access to diverse resources that helps them reach successful results both on social and economic directions.

2.3 Chapter 3. Qualitative Study

RQ1 - Do social enterprises utilise social imprinting, partner network and social bricolage for reaching their social and economic goals, and to what extent?

Legitimacy and social imprinting. The findings showed that social enterprises leverage all - pragmatic, moral and cognitive forms of legitimacy, as argued by Huybrechts et al. (2014). Specifically, SEs indicate profit-limiting clauses upon registration as legal entities, and employ pragmatic legitimacy not to stay out of the possible benefit schemes run by the public sector. Social enterprises also leverage moral legitimacy, when they try not to become involved in an ‘unfair’ competition with the enterprises that may operate in the same field, as it could be seen wrong due to public support that SEs receive. Finally, SEs are characterized with the cognitive form of legitimacy, as they are placing high priorities on social value creation, the opposite of which may seem unthinkable to them. The findings contribute to the legitimacy theory (Suchman, 1995) by showing how SMEs (and in this case social enterprises) legitimize their social and environmental practices in different national settings (Crossley et al., 2021). Since it has been discussed that prosocial motivations have not been properly studied within imprinting theory (Moroz et al., 2018), the study also contributes to the imprinting theory by illustrating that social

imprinting is a source of legitimacy for SEs which ‘imprints’ their organizations and business models.

Partner network. The findings support the literature that the enterprises with higher diversity and the quantity of the partner network usually have more social and economic successes (Frankenberger et al., 2013; Weber and Kratzer, 2013). The study showed that partnership with commercial brands did not deteriorate the legitimacy of SEs, as expected by Moizer and Tracey (2010). On the contrary, such ties rather served as a source of legitimacy for SEs, which attracted public attention and other potential partners. Therefore, it does not equally agree with the claim that early support for hybrid mission from stakeholders provides risk of losing moral legitimacy because of the lack of social impact which could be an eventual outcome (Brown et al., 2021). However, SEs are usually characterized by the liability of smallness and sometimes, newness, similarly to many startups (Zahra, 2021), they do not have sufficient time and resources for setting up partnerships. Other SEs are not proactive but are open to collaborations, if potential partners take the initiative. While for some WISEs, collaboration is not a high priority as they want to focus on their primary business. The findings also contribute to the stakeholder theory by showing that SEs usually focus their attention on stakeholders that are considered most important by them (Griffith, 2009), which could usually be their beneficiaries and public agencies in certain cases, rather than try to allocate their attention among several of their stakeholders (Burga and Rezanian, 2016) which could include several commercial or non-profit partners.

Social bricolage. The findings show that social enterprises are characterized by the majority if not all of the processes of social bricolage, namely, making do, a refusal to be constrained by limitations, improvisation, creation of social value, stakeholder participation and persuasion (Di Domenico et al., 2010). Social entrepreneurs are considered social bricoleurs (Zahra et al., 2009), however, the levels differ across cases and social bricoleur SEs tend to be more socially and economically successful ventures, as argued by Di Domenico et al. (2010). The research findings provide another perspective to the position accepted within the resource-based view (RBV) theory that only resources which are valuable, rare, inimitable and organisationally embedded (VRIO) provide competitive advantage to the firms (Barney, 1996; Cheah et al., 2019; Gibson et al., 2021). As Zahra (2021) argues the VRIO argument is not completely valid in case of startups that suffer

from liabilities of smallness and newness. The case study reveals the same pattern about social enterprises, as it could quite seldom when SE resources may belong to the VRIO framework. Social enterprises are characterized more by a creative combination of limited and discarded resources. Thus, the findings contribute to the RBV theory by extending the claims of Zahra et al. (2021) from startups to social enterprises.

RQ2 - Do social enterprises face tensions between social and economic value creation, and what kind of business models help them balance the missions?

Business models. The analysis of the case study data shows that social franchising and circular business models (Lane and Gumley, 2018) are argued to be the patterns that SEs should seek to adopt. From a social value creation perspective, SEs underline the importance of real work for trainees (Krupa et al., 2019; Zaniboni et al., 2011), versus artificial work, as well as diversity of work training. Even though the interviewees argue about the need of empowerment of the long-term unemployed, as SEs are considered a source of meaningful engagement and empowerment (Chui et al., 2018), it is also noticed that it may have considerable limitations (Tanekenov et al., 2018). When it comes to economic value creation, it is argued that SEs should self-identify as conventional firms. However, SE initiatives usually start with the project funding and are run without real market rules and end of funding means failure to qualify for the enterprise stage. It is suggested to diversify the economic activities and the income sources, to which little attention is paid in the social enterprise context (Guan et al., 2021), even though it is maintained that revenue diversification contributes to successful social and economic outcomes (Ciambotti and Pedrini, 2019; Powell et al., 2018). SEs differ in terms of ratios of own income to external funding (Alter, 2007; Dohrmann et al., 2015), but approximately equal distribution of these sources are considered a balance point.

Sustainability. Some social entrepreneurs argue that running SEs is more challenging than running commercial enterprises, as similarly put by Leung et al. (2019), since they also have to integrate the social value creation, whereas others do not find the experiences to be different from each other. SEs are encouraged to pay more attention to economic aspects. The findings endorse the arguments that SEs which have an aim to achieve both social and financial objectives (Leung et

al., 2019) and are built on hybrid organizing principles (Battilana, 2018) are more sustainable in both social and economic dimensions. Although investing resources in measuring social and economic performance is important and encouraged among others for demonstration of organizational legitimacy (Luke et al., 2013), WISEs rarely have their impact measured formally. However, some SEs have more informal ways of assessing social and economic sustainability, and others even integrate environmental dimension. Both cases of only achieving success in one dimension (Pirson, 2012), as well as on both social and economic dimensions (Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019; Spieth et al., 2019) were observed. It has been argued that work imprinting was an important factor that influenced SE commercialisation (Lee and Battilana, 2020). Similarly, the findings contributed to the imprinting theory (Moroz et al., 2018) that the type of imprinting that social entrepreneurs may possess considerably influences their viewpoints and approaches, according to which they organize their business models.

RQ3 - What is the role of the public sector in sustainability of social enterprises?

The findings show that the public sector and its regulations considerably influence social enterprises and their sustainability. Changes of these regulations have a significant effect on sustainability of social enterprises, which results in firing employees, closing certain units and going out of the market. Public agencies are argued to be partnering mainly with large corporations and nonprofits, and ignoring small enterprises and their offers for collaboration.

Public procurement is viewed as one of the most effective tools for involving social enterprises, though it is not properly utilized. The outcome of potential collaborations with public agencies may be largely based on the key contacts that could be changing often, and the agencies with prior experience of work with WISEs outperform. Overall, regional centers are viewed to have a huge potential to contribute to the development of social enterprises, which is currently underutilized. Municipalities are more actively involved in supporting and collaborating with social enterprises, however, in some cases they are running training activities similar to those of SEs, which is sometimes viewed as controversial. When it comes to the Swedish Public Employment Service, changes in their policies are considered a source of uncertainty and risks for WISEs.

From another perspective, some respondents criticize the Swedish welfare system and see the high percentage of population being dependent on it as one of the warning signals. Some even consider that WISEs may actually serve as a tool to hide the redistribution problems by setting up workplaces backed by public support, which does not fix the real problem. Instead, out-of-the box thinking and disruptive models are promoted, which for instance, could involve more open forms of ownership and small enterprises.

The findings contribute to the imprinting theory by showing how social imprinting (Battilana et al., 2015) may shape expectations and relationships toward the public sector among SEs, which in some cases may transform into overreliance on the public support. It also contributes to the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994) showing how valuable social enterprises and the public sector agencies focus on one another considering their perceived value (Griffith, 2009), instead the equally allocated value (Burga and Rezaia, 2016).

2.4 Complementarity of findings

To conclude, the first chapter provided a definition of social entrepreneurship with the suggested possibilities for its operationalization, which paved the way towards conducting quantitative and qualitative studies. The empirical studies presented in the second and third chapters provided support for the majority of the propositions of the conceptual model, and offered possible explanations.

First of all, the quantitative study showed a positive relationship of social imprinting with social performance, but did not support the hypothesis on a negative effect of social imprinting on economic performance, as originally proposed by Battilana et al. (2015). Similarly, the case study illustrated how social orientation of SE founders and managers was transformed into enhanced social outcomes. However, social imprinting was not a precondition for poor financial results. In certain cases, social imprinting would be accompanied by work imprinting (Lee and Battilana, 2020) and social work background, for instance, which would lead SE founders to view their venture as a social organization.

Regarding the partner network, its strength was found to be an important factor for the social performance of SEs, while support was not found for a positive relationship with the economic performance. Indeed, SEs were usually seeking partnerships for enhancing the social outcomes of their ventures. The findings showed that ties with commercial brands may not endanger the legitimacy of SEs, contrary to what Moizer and Tracey (2010) claimed. On the contrary, partnerships with famous commercial brands rather served as a legitimacy enabler for some SEs. However, SEs were characterized by a liability of smallness and the lack of time and resources for cultivating partnerships limited the possibilities for collaborations, particularly proactive initiatives from the SEs themselves. Whereas, some SEs preferred to focus on their core business.

When social bricolage is concerned, the quantitative study showed that social bricolage had a positive effect on both social performance and economic performance of SEs. The case study analysis also illustrated that social enterprises that were ‘social bricoleurs’ benefited their social and financial objectives through their activity. The studied WISEs were also exhibiting the processes and practices of social bricolage, such as making do, a refusal to be constrained by limitations, improvisation, creation of social value, stakeholder participation and persuasion (Di Domenico et al., 2010).

The research studies showed that social enterprises can be simultaneously successful in both social and economic dimensions, supporting one stream of literature arguing about this possibility (Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019; Spieth et al., 2019). However, as the case study showed, social enterprises usually face challenges in this way, and most frequently it is the economic direction that is suffering. When it comes to the business model patterns that enhance SE sustainability, social franchising, consortia and circular business models were distinguished. From the social value creation perspective, the importance of real work, diversity of training and empowerment were outlined, though constraints related to empowering beneficiaries (Tanekenov et al., 2018) were also noted. From the economic value creation perspective, self-identification as a business firm was considered particularly important. It was rather the existence of hybrid organizing that played a major role in sustainability of SEs. Some WISEs realized that the SE had to have both a primary social orientation and a well-functioning business organization to ensure balanced performance, as proposed by several researchers (Battilana, 2018; Leung et al., 2019).

Next, the importance of diversification of business activities and income sources was stressed (Ciambotti and Pedrini, 2019; Powell et al., 2018).

Finally, the public sector turned out to be a critical actor on the social enterprise scene (Battilana et al., 2015). Changes in public regulations around SE operations are considered as one of the major sources of uncertainty and instability among WISEs. The government is accused of limiting their partnerships with large corporations and non-governmental organizations, excluding SMEs, and social enterprises among others. The evaluation of effectiveness of different agencies varies, and the importance of key experienced contacts is highlighted. Lastly, the welfare system leading to many artificial job places and the use of WISEs as a tool to tackle the problem are criticized, and the search for the new disruptive models is encouraged.

III. Theoretical and Managerial Implications

3.1 Theoretical Implications

First of all, the first chapter contributes to the SE literature by a definition of social entrepreneurship that is operationalized with a set of items and indicators. The definition could be used for conducting both quantitative and qualitative studies in different national settings.

The findings of the second chapter contribute to the literature that social imprinting (Battilana et al., 2015) is an important factor for social performance of SEs. Strength of partner networks was found to be more important for social performance, rather than for economic performance of SEs, unlike the case of commercial enterprises. Whereas, the partner networks could actually be used for gaining intangible resources and legitimacy for social enterprises (Folmer et al., 2018). The findings contributed to the scientific literature illustrating that social bricolage is a significant factor for social performance of SEs (Di Domenico et al., 2010; Hota et al., 2019; Voltan, 2019), and supported the literature in considering the variable important for economic performance (Hota et al., 2019; Senyard et al., 2014). However, the results did not show the constraints of social bricolage at its certain levels, in contrast to the existing literature (Bacq et al., 2015). Finally, the results supported one stream of the SE literature (Cho and Kim, 2017; Mongelli et al., 2019; Spieth

et al., 2019), maintaining that social performance and economic performance of SEs have a positive interrelationship.

The analysis of the third chapter supported the claims of Battilana et al. (2015) that social imprinting is positively related to the social performance of SEs. However, the analysis did not show that social imprinting is the reason for poor economic results. Thus, the study responded to the call from Battilana et al. (2015) for conducting similar studies in other country settings. Regarding the collaborations, the case study analysis showed that partnerships with commercial companies may not be a danger for legitimacy of SEs, as argued by several researchers (Brown et al., 2021; Moizer and Tracey, 2010). However, it was also revealed that many WISEs do not collaborate much due to the limitations related to their liability of smallness (Zahra et al., 2021), as is the case for startups. The findings showed that SEs were characterized by the majority of the processes of social bricolage as described by Di Domenico et al. (2010). The case studies also illustrated the importance of the empowerment of beneficiaries (Chui et al., 2018), though stressed on its limitations as well (Tanekenov et al., 2018).

The findings of the third chapter also showed that social enterprises can be successful in both social and economic aspects, supporting the argument of some researchers (Di Lorenzo and Scarlata, 2019; Mongelli et al., 2019; Spieth et al., 2019), though the difficulty of ‘hybrid’ success was equally outlined. The analysis supported the propositions from the literature that SEs based on hybrid organizing, that aim at achieving both social and economic goals are more sustainable (Battilana, 2018; Leung et al., 2019). The particular importance of diversification of revenue sources was also articulated (Ciambotti and Pedrini, 2019; Guan et al., 2021; Powell et al., 2018). Finally, following the call from Battilana et al. (2015), the role of the public sector entities was studied and the findings showed that the government is one of the most important actors in the social enterprise sector and changes in public regulations are viewed as one of the key sources of instability among WISEs.

3.2 Managerial Implications

The findings suggest that SEs should care about gaining legitimacy. Having a primarily social orientation can help them in acquiring legitimacy with a variety of stakeholders across the sectors.

Collaborations with the key partners could offer the possibility to gain both extra legitimacy and further resources, especially for the successful social outcome for the SE. Even though most SEs are small-sized, they could start with collaborations at a lower level and gradually increase the scope of the partnership. However, it should be noted that SEs also can focus primarily on building their business, if they risk drawing away the focus.

Additionally, SEs should try to creatively use the resources, which are available to them or could be easily acquired. Considering the scarce resource environment, SEs should focus on seeking the right combination of resources to reach enhanced social and economic outcomes.

As it is possible to be successful in both the social and economic aspects, SEs should be aimed at reaching that goal. Besides, SEs could consider adopting social franchising, consortia or circular business models. They should attempt to diversify their work training activities, if possible. SEs should identify themselves as hybrid organizations, paying a particular attention to building a business organization from onset. In addition, SEs should attempt to diversify their economic activities and income sources.

Finally, when it comes to the relationship with the public sector, SEs should work with different agencies and municipalities. However, it is important to consider the potential changes in policies. Therefore, SEs should not be highly dependent on the income from the public sources and rather build a strong business entity with a diversified portfolio of revenue streams.

IV. Limitations and Future Research Questions

The studies have several limitations. First, when it comes to quantitative study, its sample size can be viewed as one of the constraints. Even though 115 responses are considered to be above the widely acceptable threshold, it could be argued that a higher number of responses would have validated the results more strongly, taking a population of approximately 300-350 social

enterprises into account. Another limitation is that the study uses the respondents' perceptions of social and economic performance; however, perceived evaluations are normally close to the real measures of performance. Lastly, the study was conducted in only a Swedish context. Conducting a similar study in other national settings could be a valuable contribution to the literature.

When limitations of the qualitative study are concerned, it also depends on the perceptions of the interviewees, even though it is a common pattern of the qualitative studies, integration of some more measurable items would be welcome. The research study is again limited to the context of Sweden, and specifically the region of Scania which could be regarded as a representative Swedish county, but replicating the research in more countries could contribute to the academic literature. In the end, the research was limited to the WISE form of social enterprises, while the study can be extended to several other forms of SE.

The studies have prompted several potential research questions. The first research possibility is conducting a longitudinal study that could assess the possible changes in social imprinting, social bricolage and collaborative behavior among SEs, as well as reasons for these changes, since a case study method may only provide a snapshot at a particular time. Next, adoption of processes similar to social bricolage, such as effectuation, lean startup, etc. by the SEs and their effects on SE sustainability could be studied. Finally, similar studies could be conducted on 'failed' social enterprises that have exited the market mainly due to financial instability, as they may provide different perspectives on the findings, since the SEs that have been studied were usually the ones which survived over time.

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Appendix

Appendix A - Questionnaire (English translation)

RE: Survey – Sustainability of Social Entrepreneurial Business Models

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am writing to ask about your views and experience as a manager or owner of a work integration social enterprise (WISE). More specifically, among others I would like to know how you balance social and economic goals, establish partnerships and mobilize resources for your social enterprise. The results of the survey will allow the research team to provide suggestions regarding government policies on sustainability of WISEs and to highlight the best practices for the social enterprises.

The following survey is being carried out within the framework of the PhD thesis entitled “Sustainability of Social Entrepreneurial Business Models” conducted at the University of Montpellier (France) and at the Lund University (Sweden), as a part of a visiting research. Your responses will be highly valuable for advancing the research on sustainability of work integration social enterprises and social enterprises in general both in Sweden and beyond its borders.

It will take around 15 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. The survey should preferably be completed by the company's founder or manager. Please fill in the questionnaire until 16 November 2018.

This is an anonymous survey. I can assure you that the information you provide will remain confidential. Data will be analyzed by sector and size of business and it will not be possible to identify individual firms.

Please follow this link to access the survey: [Survey questionnaire](#)

Or copy and paste this URL address in your computer search engine: <http://>

We thank you in advance for your collaboration.

Best regards,

Giorgi Jamburia

Background Questions

Are you the founder of the company?

- Yes
- No

Gender

- Male
- Female
- Other

Birth year (19xx)

Is Sweden your country of birth?

- Yes
- No

If no, are your parents born in Sweden?

- Yes
- One of them
- No

Have you had any employment before you started working with the social enterprise?

- Yes
- No

If yes, answer the following (can be more than one)

- In for-profit companies
- In non-profit companies
- Within the public sector
- In social enterprise
- Other, please indicate:

Have you worked in the same sector before in which you are currently active?

- Yes
- No

How long have you worked in the sector in which you are currently active?

How long have you worked at social enterprise(s) in total?

What is your highest level of education obtained?

- High school
- Professional training
- College
- Undergraduate
- Masters
- Doctorate

Position in the social enterprise (may be more than one)

- CEO
- Operations manager
- Other, please indicate ...

The social enterprise is operated as

- Limited company
- Limited company with limited profit distribution
- Economic association
- Trading company
- Non-profit association
- Foundation
- Other, please, specify

What year did the company offer products or services for the first time?

What year did the company receive external funding for the first time?

Size

How many people founded the company?

How many people work today in the company (not including those seeking work / integrated in the labor market)?

How many of these work voluntarily?

How many of these work part-time?

Beneficiaries

How many people who are in the process of integrating into working life are currently undertaking training in your company / organization?

How many people who were far from the labor market and needed reintegration currently work in your organization?

How many percent of them who undertook work integration in your organization during the last year (2017) have found a job after completion of the process?

Geographical location in which the company is active (can be more than one):

- Blekinge
- Dalarna
- Gotland
- Gävleborg
- Halland
- Jämtland
- Jönköping
- Kalmar
- Kronoberg
- Norrbotten
- Skåne
- Stockholm
- Södermanland
- Uppsala
- Värmland
- Västerbotten

- Västernorrland
- Västmanland
- Västra Götaland
- Örebro
- Östergötland

Sector you work in (can be more than one)

- Car and bicycle repair
- Store
- Cafe, restaurant, hotel, conference
- Property management, construction
- Crafts, art
- Animal care
- Household services
- Information, communication, education
- Office service
- Culture, entertainment, leisure
- Contract work
- Cultivation, gardening
- Staffing
- Transport
- Tourism
- Recycling
- Other service

Financials

What was the total income of the company in 2017? (SEK)

From which sources was the income (allocate 100%)?

- Public funds

- Private sales

Of public funds, how much is the percentage of procurement and how much comes from the grants?

Of private sales, how much is the percentage of private individuals and how much comes from private business?

- Individuals
- Private companies

What was the total cost of the company in 2017? (SEK)

How much profit did the company have in 2017? (SEK)

How much share was reinvested in the company 2017? (SEK)

Social Impact Measurement

Do you measure your company's social impact?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Systematically

If yes, why:

- Financiers demand it
- It is important to be able to show to investors
- It is important to know that what we do has a positive impact
- Other, please, indicate

Social Marketing Achievements

Answer the following statements relating to the last year (2017), where 1 means 'Strongly disagree' and 7 means 'Strongly agree':

The volunteer hours from the current volunteers have increased

- Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree
- Do not know
- We do not work with volunteers

We regard ourselves as successful in attracting private contributors to our business

We regard ourselves as successful in engaging volunteers in the business

Commercial Marketing Achievements

Answer the following statements relating to the last year (2017), where 1 means ‘Strongly disagree’ and 7 means ‘Strongly agree’:

We have managed to acquire new enterprise customers

We were successful at acquiring new business support

We experienced increasing sales from the enterprise customers

We have accomplished to increase the amount of business support from the current business partners

Please assess the statements about the social performance of your enterprise relating to the period of the last year (2017) on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=Strongly disagree to 7=Strongly agree.

Social Performance		Scale						
1	We regard ourselves as successful in bidding for public service contracts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	We regard ourselves as successful in seeking and receiving public support / grants for our projects / activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Our enterprise serves more beneficiaries in the community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	We provide more different types of social service (e.g. different types of work integration)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	We manage to expand social service (e.g. work integration) to different locations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Our enterprise is doing eco-friendly business activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please assess the statements about the economic performance of your enterprise relating to the period of the last year (2017) on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=Strongly disagree to 7=Strongly agree.

Economic Performance		Scale						
1	We consider our firm profitable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	We believe we achieve our financial goals for the enterprise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The customers of our enterprise are satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	We are effective at delivering value to the customers of our enterprise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	We manage to expand enterprise activities to different locations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	We engage in more different types of enterprise activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Value Creation Centered Business Model Design

Companies can set goals for what kind of value they seek to create, economic value, social value and environmental value. How would you distribute your company's goals? You have a total of 100 points to distribute.

- Economic value
- Societal value
- Environmental value

A partnership is defined by two or more organizations exchanging something of value beyond a single transaction. The degree of partnership intensity ranges from loose collaboration to more formal collaboration.

Partner Network Strength		Scale				
1	Network Quantity and Diversity	Please, indicate to how many partners in each category your enterprise maintains contacts to				
	Private individual donors	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Funds and foundations	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Supranational organizations (e.g. EU and OECD)	0	1	2	3-6	>6

	Governmental institutions	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Municipalities	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Academic institutions	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Non-profit organizations	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Social enterprises	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Banks	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Consultancies	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Media organizations	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	All other companies	0	1	2	3-6	>6
2	Network	The geographical widespread of your partners...				
	Widespread	a) is limited to one municipality b) spans several municipalities in one region c) spans several regions of a country d) spans most of the country e) spans more than one country				

Answer the following statements on a scale where 1 means ‘Strongly disagree’ and 7 means ‘Strongly agree’:

In my current position, I use my established personal and private network extensively

In my current position, I use my established professional network to a large extent

Through my current work, I have developed a brand new professional network

In the local market where we operate, there are more labor integrating social companies

If yes, you are active in the same sectors

The following statements are about how your enterprise uses various kinds of resources to deal with new challenges. By resources we mean things like materials, equipment, people, or anything else that can be used to get a job done. By challenges we mean both new problems and new opportunities. When I say ‘we’ or ‘our’ I mean you personally or anybody else acting on behalf of the business. I want you to respond on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 means ‘strongly agree’.

Social Bricolage		Scale						
1	We are confident of our ability to find workable solutions to new challenges by using our existing resources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	We gladly take on a broader range of challenges than others with our resources would be able to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	We use any existing resource that seems useful to responding to a new problem or opportunity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	We deal with new challenges by combining of our existing resources and other resources inexpensively available to us	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	When dealing with new problems or opportunities, we take action by assuming that we will find a workable solution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	By combining our existing resources, we take on a surprising variety of new challenges	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	When we face new challenges, we put together workable solutions from our existing resources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	To address the challenges, we combine discarded, disused, or unwanted resources for new purposes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	We adapt internal governance structures (such as boards) to access new contacts and expertise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	We persuade stakeholders to ensure acquisition of new resources and support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B. The Questionnaire (Swedish version)

Enkät

RE: Enkät - Hållbarhet i affärsmodeller inom socialt entreprenörskap

Kära grundare eller VD

Jag skulle behöva dina åsikter och din erfarenhet som VD för, eller grundare av ett socialt företag inom arbetsintegration (s.k. ”Work Integration Social Enterprise” eller ”WISE”). Jag skulle t.ex. vilja titta närmare på hur ni balanserar sociala och ekonomiska mål, etablerar partnerskap och mobiliserar resurser åt det sociala företaget. Resultaten av undersökningen kommer att kunna användas av forskningsteamet för att ge förslag och råd i utformandet av statliga riktlinjer gällande hållbarhet inom WISE, och för att belysa framgångsrecept inom socialt företagande.

Enkäten genomförs inom ramen för en doktorsavhandling med titeln ”Hållbarhet i affärsmodeller inom socialt entreprenörskap” vid universitetet i Montpellier (Frankrike). Dina svar kommer att vara väldigt värdefulla som bidrag till forskningen på hållbarhet inom arbetsintegration i sociala företag och socialt företagande i allmänhet, både i Sverige och utomlands.

Enkäten tar ca 15 minuter att besvara och ska helst fyllas i av företagets grundare eller VD senast den 16:e November 2018.

Undersökningen är anonym och jag försäkrar dig om att informationen du ger oss förblir konfidentiell. Datan kommer att analyseras efter vilken branch och storlek företaget befinner sig i, och det kommer inte att vara möjligt att identifiera individuella firmor.

För att svara på enkäten, använd följande länk: [Enkät](#)

Eller kopiera och klistra in följande adress i din webbläsare: <http://>

Stort tack på förhand för din medverkan.

Med bästa hälsningar

Giorgi Jamburia

Allmänna frågor

Är du företagets grundare?

- Ja
- Nej

Kön

- Man
- Kvinna
- Annat

Födelseår (19xx)

Är ditt födelseland Sverige?

- Ja
- Nej

Om nej, är dina föräldrar födda i Sverige?

- Ja
- En av dem
- Nej

Har du haft någon anställning innan du började arbeta med det sociala företaget

- Ja
- Nej

Om Ja, svara på den senaste (kan vara mer än en)

- I vinstdrivande företag
- I icke-vinstdrivande företag
- Inom offentliga verksamhet
- I socialt företag
- Annat, specificera

Har du arbetat i samma sektor tidigare, som du nu är verksam i?

- Ja
- Nej

Hur länge har du arbetat i branschen som du nu är verksam i?

Hur länge har du arbetat med socialt företagande totalt?

Vilken är din högsta utbildning?

- Gymnasium
- Yrkesutbildning
- Kandidatexamen
- Masterexamen
- Licentiat
- Doktor

Befattning i det sociala företaget (kan vara mer än en)

- VD
- Verksamhetsansvarig
- Annat, specificera

Det sociala företaget drivs som

- Aktiebolag
- Aktiebolag med begränsat vinstuttag
- Ekonomisk förening
- Handelsbolag
- Ideell förening
- Stiftelse
- Annat, specificera

Vilket år erbjöd företaget för första gången produkter eller tjänster till andra?

Vilket år erhöll företaget extern finansiering för första gången?

Storlek

Hur många personer grundade företaget?

Hur många personer arbetar i dag i företaget eller för företaget (ej inkluderat de som söker arbete/integreras på arbetsmarknad)?

Hur många av dessa arbetar frivilligt?

Hur många av dessa arbetar deltid?

Deltagare

Hur många personer är i en arbetsintegrerande process i ert företag/organisation just nu?

Hur många personer som varit långt från arbetsmarknaden, och som behövde återintegreras på arbetsmarknaden arbetar för tillfället i er organisation?

Hur många procent av dem som arbetsintegrerats genom er verksamhet under 2017 har fått ett arbete efter avslutad process?

Geografisk plats som företaget är verksamt på? (kan vara mer än en)

- Blekinge
- Dalarna
- Gotland
- Gävleborg
- Halland
- Jämtland
- Jönköping
- Kalmar
- Kronoberg
- Norrbotten
- Skåne
- Stockholm
- Södermanland
- Uppsala
- Värmland
- Västerbotten
- Västernorrland
- Västmanland
- Västra Götaland
- Örebro

- Östergötland

Sektor du arbetar inom (kan vara mer än en)

- Bil och cykelvård
- Butik, försäljning
- Café, restaurang, hotell, konferens
- Fastighetsskötsel, bygg
- Hantverk, konst
- Hunddagis, annan djurvård
- Hushållsnära tjänster
- Information, kommunikation, utbildning
- Kontorsservice, ekonomi
- Kultur, nöje, fritid
- Legoarbete
- Odling, trädgårdsarbete
- Personaluthyrning, bemanning
- Transport
- Turism
- Återvinning
- Övrig service

Ekonomi

Vad var den totala inkomsten i företaget under 2017? (SEK)

Från vilka källor kommer inkomsten (fördela 100 %):

- Offentliga medel
- Privat försäljning

Av offentliga medel, hur stor procentdel är offentlig upphandling och hur stor procentdel är bidrag?

- Upphandling

- Bidrag

Av den privata försäljningen hur stor andel går till privatpersoner och hur stor andel går till privata företag?

- Privatpersoner
- Privata företag

Vad var de totala kostnaderna i företaget under 2017? (SEK)

Hur stor vinst hade företaget under 2017? (SEK)

Hur stor andel återinvesterades i företaget 2017? (SEK)

Mått på social påverkan

Mäter ni idag ert företags sociala påverkan (social impact)?

Aldrig 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Systematiskt

Om ja, varför:

- Finansiärer kräver det
- Det är viktigt att kunna visa för investerare
- Det är viktigt att veta att det vi gör har en positiv påverkan
- Annat, specificera

Relaterat till 2017, svara på följande påståenden, där 1 betyder håller inte alls med och 7 betyder håller absolut med.

Social Marknadsföring

Vi betraktar oss själva som framgångsrika när det gäller att engagera volontärer i verksamheten

De frivilliga timmarna från nuvarande volontärer har ökat

- Håller inte alls med 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Håller helt med
- Vet inte
- Vi arbetar inte med volontärer

Vi betraktar oss själva som framgångsrika när det gäller att attrahera privata bidragsgivare till vår verksamhet

Kommersiell marknadsföring

Vi har lyckats attrahera nya företagskunder

Vi har lyckats att erhålla ny affärssupport

Vi har upplevt ökad försäljning till företagskunder

Visar lyckats öka summan av pro bono-stöd från nuvarande företagspartners

Sociala resultat		Skala						
1	Vi betraktar oss själva som framgångsrika när det gäller att vinna offentliga upphandlingar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Vi betraktar oss själva som framgångsrika när det gäller att söka och få offentligt stöd/bidrag för våra projekt/verksamhet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Vår organisation hjälper fler ur den/de grupper som befinner sig långt från arbetsmarknaden	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Vi erbjuder flera olika typer av tjänster för arbetsintegration.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Vi lyckas utöka samhällstjänster (t.ex. arbetsintegration) till nya/olika platser	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Vår organisation sysslar med ekologiska/miljöfrämjande aktiviteter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ekonomiska Resultat		Skala						
1	Vår betraktar vår affärsenhet som lönsam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Vi anser att vi når våra ekonomiska mål för företag	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Våra kunder är nöjda	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Vi är effektiva när det gäller att leverera värde till våra kunder	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Vi lyckas utvidga vår verksamhet till olika geografiska platser	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Vi lyckas utvidga vår verksamhet till olika sektorer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Design av värdeskapande affärsmodeller

Företag kan sätta mål för vilken typ av värde de strävar efter att skapa, ekonomiskt värde, samhällsvärde och miljövärde. Hur skulle du fördela ditt företags mål? Du har totalt 100 poäng att fördela.

- Ekonomiskt värde
- Samhällsvärde
- Miljövärde

Ett partnerskap definieras av att två eller flera organisationer utbyter något av värde utöver en enda transaktion. Graden av partnerskapets intensitet sträcker sig från löst samarbete till mer formellt samarbete.

Partnernätverkets styrka		Skala						
1	Nätverkets storlek och mångfald	Vänligen indikera hur många partners inom respektive kategori er verksamhet har kontakt med						

	Privata enskilda givare	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Fonder och stiftelser	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Supranationella organisationer (t ex EU and OECD)	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Statliga institutioner	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Kommuner	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Akademiska institutioner	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Ideella organisationer	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Sociala företag	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Banker	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Konsulter	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Medieorganisationer	0	1	2	3-6	>6
	Privata företag	0	1	2	3-6	>6
2	Nätverksspridning	Den geografiska spridningen av era partners...				
	a) Är begränsad till en kommun					
	b) Sträcker sig över flera kommuner inom en region					
	c) Sträcker sig över flera regioner i landet					
	d) Sträcker sig över större delen av landet					
	e) Sträcker sig internationellt					

Svara på följande påståenden, där 1 betyder håller inte alls med och 7 betyder håller absolut med.

I min nuvarande position använder jag mitt etablerade personliga och privata nätverk i stor utstäckning

I min nuvarande position använder jag mitt etablerade professionella nätverk i stor utstäckning

Genom mitt nuvarande arbete har jag utvecklat ett helt nytt professionellt nätverk

På den lokala marknaden där vi är verksamma finns det fler arbetsintegrerande sociala företag

Om ja, ni är verksamma i samma sektorer

Följande påståenden handlar om hur er verksamhet använder olika resurser för att hantera utmaningar. Med resurser menar vi material, utrustning, människor, eller annat som behövs för att få ett arbete utfört. Med utmaning menar vi både nya problem och nya möjligheter. När vi skriver

”vi” eller ”vår” syftar vi på dig personligen, eller någon annan som agerar för företagets räkning. Du skall svara på en skala där 1 betyder håller inte alls med och 7 betyder håller helt med.

Social Bricolage		Scale
1	Vi är säkra på vår förmåga att hitta genomförbara lösningar för nya utmaningar genom att använda våra befintliga resurser.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Vi tar oss gärna an fler typer av utmaningar än vad andra med samma resurser hade kunnat göra	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	Vi använder vilka befintliga resurser som helst, som verkar användbara, för att möta ett problem eller en möjlighet	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	Vi hanterar nya utmaningar genom att kombinera våra existerande resurser samt andra billiga resurser som finns tillgängliga.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	När vi hanterar nya problem eller möjligheter agerar vi utifrån att vi kommer att hitta en hållbar lösning.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	Genom att kombinera våra befintliga resurser kan vi ta oss an en stor variation av nya utmaningar.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	När vi möter nya utmaningar skapar vi en fungerande lösning utifrån våra existerande resurser.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8	För att anta utmaningar, kombinerar vi kasserade/slängda resurser, oanvända resurser eller resurser som ingen vill ha, för nya syften	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	Vi anpassar interna ledningsstrukturer (t.ex. styrelser) för att få tillgång till nya kontakter och expertis	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	Vi övertygar nyckelpersoner på myndigheter, kommuner och andra aktörer för att säkerställa tillgången till nya resurser och stöd	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

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