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Social enterprises governance, from values to practices : the case of french energy cooperatives

Adélie Ranville

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THÈSE

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préparée au sein du **Laboratoire IREGÉ**
dans l'École Doctorale CST (Cultures, Sociétés, Territoires)

**Social enterprises governance, from values to practices:
the case of renewable energy cooperatives**

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Résumé en français

Comment gérer une entreprise motivée par des valeurs plutôt que par le profit ? Cette question est au cœur des développements récents de la littérature sur l'entreprise sociale. Les entreprises sociales sont des « organisations privées à but non lucratif qui fournissent des biens ou des services dans l'objectif de servir la communauté. Elles s'appuient sur une dynamique collective et impliquent différentes parties prenantes dans leurs instances dirigeantes, elles accordent de la valeur à leur autonomie et assument les risques économiques liés à leur activité. » (Defourny et Nyssens 2008, p. 5, notre traduction)

L'objectif de la thèse est ainsi de mieux comprendre comment les principes normatifs interviennent dans les « entreprises sociales » à la fois comme concept et comme objet d'étude empirique. Nous étudions une forme spécifique d'entreprise sociale, les coopératives, dans le contexte de la transition énergétique. Notre objectif est de répondre à trois défis concernant ces organisations à travers trois articles de recherche :

Un défi épistémologique : étudier les entreprises sociales demande de se poser la question de la place des valeurs dans le processus de recherche. Nous proposons donc dans le premier article de la thèse de discuter de la question : **quelles sont les idées normatives présentes dans la littérature sur les entreprises sociales ?**

Un défi lié à la participation : les formes de gouvernances démocratiques adoptées par certaines entreprises sociales nécessitent la participation active des membres. On peut dans ce cadre demander quelle est la place des valeurs individuelles dans la motivation à participer. Dans notre deuxième article, nous explorons plus largement la question : **quelles sont les conditions qui poussent les membres à contribuer à la gouvernance ?**

Un défi de gestion des tensions : quand les entreprises sociales sont confrontées à des pressions internes et externes qui menacent ou modifient leurs objectifs et leurs pratiques, des tensions peuvent émerger vis-à-vis de leurs valeurs. Les membres et les employés peuvent être confrontés à des choix difficiles et à des dilemmes éthiques. Nous proposons donc de discuter la question : **comment les tensions émergent dans les entreprises sociales et comment peuvent-elles être gérées par les organes de gouvernance ?**

Dans notre premier article, nous étudions un échantillon de 100 publications anglophones influentes dans le domaine de l'entrepreneuriat social. Nous utilisons une méthode déductive d'analyse de contenu afin d'identifier les présupposés normatifs dans ce champ de recherche. Nous utilisons comme grille de lecture huit écoles de pensée contemporaines en philosophie politique et identifions les philosophies implicitement présentes dans la littérature en entrepreneuriat social. Nous discutons les principaux problèmes qui découlent d'un positionnement normatif qui n'est pas conscientisé : concepts ambigus, arguments de justification ou de critiques et contradictions entre différents principes normatifs. Notre étude contribue à la littérature sur l'entrepreneuriat social en montrant que la philosophie politique peut être utile pour identifier ce qui compte comme "social" dans l'entrepreneuriat social. Nous identifions les tensions normatives qui posent problème dans le champ de l'entrepreneuriat social et nous proposons des pistes pour conscientiser les enjeux normatifs afin de mieux évaluer et démontrer les impacts sociaux, économiques et culturels de l'entrepreneuriat social.

Notre deuxième article porte sur la participation des membres à la gouvernance de leur coopérative. Il s'agit d'une question clé pour les coopératives, car la mise en œuvre de leurs valeurs de démocratie organisationnelle nécessite des membres actifs. Cet article vise à étudier l'hétérogénéité des facteurs conduisant à la participation à la gouvernance d'une coopérative énergétique. Basée sur les données d'une enquête originale d'une coopérative énergétique française, l'étude s'appuie sur une analyse comparative qualitative à ensemble flou pour tenir compte de l'équifinalité et des interactions complexes entre les facteurs identifiés dans la littérature. Les résultats montrent qu'il existe de multiples voies menant à la participation et suggèrent que l'expertise est importante pour la participation aux coopératives énergétiques, mais que les interactions sociales peuvent être une voie de substitution pour faire face à l'inexpérience. D'un point de vue managérial, les résultats suggèrent que l'implication de non-experts dans les délibérations sur les sujets énergétiques nécessite des stratégies spécifiques.

Le troisième article de la thèse étudie comment les tensions émergent dans les entreprises sociales et comment elles peuvent être gérées par les organes de gouvernance. Afin d'identifier comment les entreprises sociales gèrent les tensions dans les pratiques quotidiennes, nous avons mené une étude qualitative et longitudinale d'un comité d'éthique

dans une coopérative multi-acteurs. Nos résultats empiriques montrent que l'environnement institutionnel et marchand est entré en tension avec les valeurs de la coopérative et a influencé ses choix partenariaux, sa structuration, son identité et ses pratiques de communication. Au niveau organisationnel, des tensions sont apparues entre le maintien de la pureté des valeurs de l'organisation et le risque de sa survie. L'hétérogénéité des attentes des membres constituait également un défi : chaque type de membre apporte une ressource différente et importante à l'organisation mais peut avoir des priorités différentes concernant les objectifs organisationnels. Nos résultats montrent clairement que les théories institutionnelles et basées sur les ressources sont complémentaires car les valeurs (ancrées dans les institutions) sont souvent en conflit avec les objectifs d'acquisition de ressources. Des recherches futures pourraient explorer les implications stratégiques de telles tensions pour les entreprises sociales.

Globalement, notre recherche contribue à la compréhension des entreprises sociales, des idées normatives liées à leur conceptualisation et de la participation dans ce type d'organisation. Elle met en lumière les tensions que rencontrent les entreprises sociales et les chercheurs pour traiter des questions sociétales.

Introduction

How to manage an enterprise that is driven by values rather than profit motive? This question is at the core of recent developments of the literature on social enterprise. Scholars try to understand how social enterprises manage the challenge of pursuing social goals while staying financially sustainable. (Hota et al. 2020). Social enterprises are “not-for-profit private organizations providing goods or services directly related to their explicit aim to benefit the community. They 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 linked to their activity.” (Defourny and Nyssens 2008, p. 5)

Recently, management scholars have been encouraged by editorial work to do research related to “grand challenges” described as “specific critical barrier(s) that, if removed, would help solve an important societal problem with a high likelihood of global impact through widespread implementation” (George et al. 2016, p. 1881). These societal problems can be defined for example through the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In this context, there is a clear interest for the contribution of private organizations to solving “grand challenges”. Social enterprises in particular are seen as interesting example of organisations tackling societal problems, both social and environmental. However, defining what is a problem or not in society includes political aspects (Cho, 2006). Similarly, scholars who tried to define social enterprises noted that it was a value-loaded concept (Choi and Majumdar 2014). We believe it is thus crucial to consider the questions of values when we want to study social enterprises. The goal of the thesis is to understand better **how normative principles intervene in ‘social enterprises’ both as a concept and as an empirical object of study**. We study a specific form of social enterprise, a cooperative, in the context of energy transition. Our goal is to answer three challenges regarding these organisations through three research papers: an epistemological challenge, a participation challenge and a tension challenges. Each of these challenges led us to tackle a different research question.

First, there is an epistemological challenge in studying social enterprises due to the normativity associated with it. We argue that to define and discuss social enterprises as a concept, a deeper understanding of the various political ideas that may underlie the ‘social’

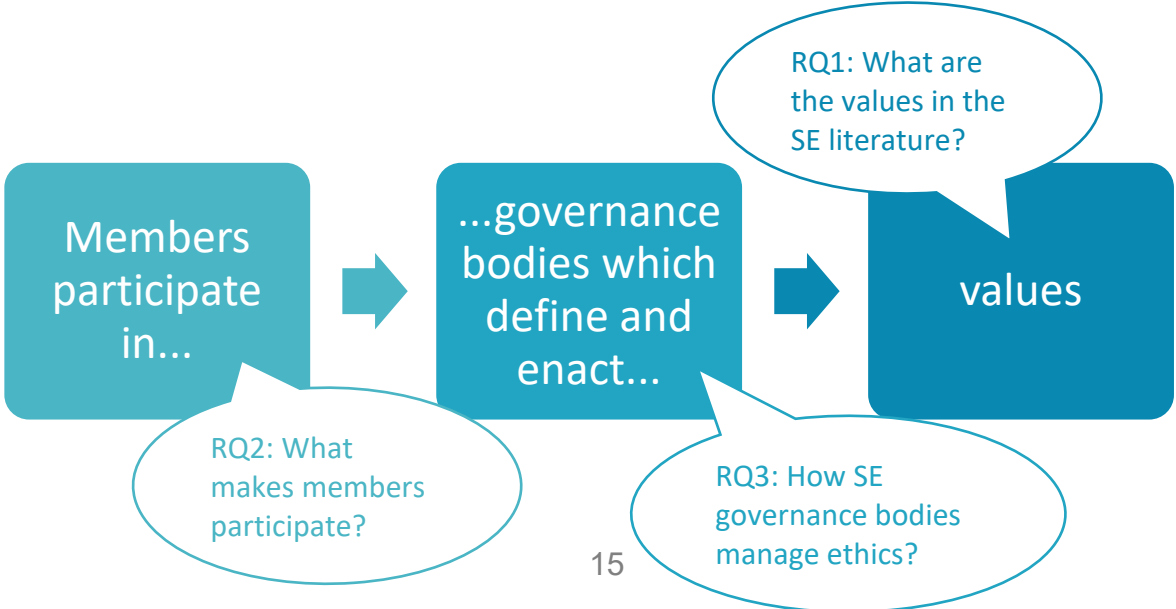
qualifier is essential. In the first paper of the thesis, we aim to address the question: **what are the normative ideas in the SE literature?**

Second, we turn to the issue of democracy within an energy cooperative by examining members' participation. This is of practical importance for cooperatives because democracy holds a significant value for them. However, democracy remains incomplete if members do not actively participate, and maintaining their involvement in governance is an ongoing challenge (Spear et al., 2009). To elucidate participation, individual values may be relevant among members' motivations to engage. In our second paper, we pose the research question: **what are the conditions that lead members to contribute to governance?**

Finally, social enterprises may encounter internal and external pressures that can threaten or alter the organization's goals and practices, leading to tensions with the organization's values. Members and employees may grapple with difficult choices and ethical dilemmas. In line with emerging discussions on hybridity and tensions in social enterprises, we explore the question: **how do tensions manifest in social enterprises, and how can they be managed through governance bodies?**

While our first research question remains primarily at the theoretical level, mainly focusing on existing literature, the last two questions involve intensive fieldwork. We have chosen to emphasize the context of governance. Indeed, it appeared to us as the primary arena where social enterprises' members and employees enact and debate values. The figure below illustrates the interconnection between our three research questions.

FIGURE 1 - SUMMARY OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



This thesis consist of three studies answering our three research questions. We present each one in a different research paper. These studies involved their own unique data collection and analysis processes, which will be presented in the research design chapter.

In this section, we provide a comprehensive overview of each paper, highlighting their core content, contributions, co-authorship involvement, and the dissemination of our findings through various communication and publication efforts Our studies explore how normative principles intervene in “social enterprises” both as a concept and as an empirical object of study. In our first paper, we show how political ideas can be reflected in theories. In the second paper, we explain the drivers of participation in the governance of an energy cooperative, including individual values represented by attitudes. Finally, the last paper aim at understanding the how groups deal with tensions in an energy cooperative.

In our **first article**, we study the normative ideas in the SE literature. To do so, we apply deductive content analysis to a sample of 100 influential publications in the field of social entrepreneurship (SE) to identify the normative assumptions in SE scholarship. Using eight contemporary schools of thought in political philosophy as a template for analysis, we identify the philosophies underlying SE literature and the important consequences of their (often-ignored) normative stances, such as ambiguous concepts, justifications and critiques, and normative contradictions. Our study contributes to the SE literature by proposing that political philosophy can help to identify what counts as the ‘social’ in SE. We are showing some of the field’s inherent normative tensions that could dampen its impact, and propose ways in which a normative awareness would help to establish a basis upon which to evaluate and demonstrate the social, economic, and cultural impact of SE.

This paper was co-authored with our colleague Marcos Barros who contributed to design and refine this study during its development. We list in the box below the respective contributions of the two authors.

Adélie Ranville (Author)	Marcos Barros (Co-author)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Research question ▪ Research design ▪ Data analysis ▪ Result interpretation ▪ Writing ▪ Paper revision including a new round of analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Regular discussion of the research design ▪ Sampling reliability check ▪ Coding reliability check ▪ Argument framing for introduction and discussion ▪ Paper revision

We presented this research in several peer-reviewed workshops and conferences before submitting it for publication to the *Journal of Business Ethics* who finally accepted the paper in 2021. We present below the timeline of our publication and presentation efforts.

06/2018	Presentation at the 6th <i>EMES international training school</i> , Marseille.
09/2019	Presentation at the 11th <i>International Social Innovation Research Conference</i> , Glasgow.
04/2019	Presentation at the <i>IABS Business & Society European Paper Development Workshop Series</i> , Paris.
06/2020	Initial submission at <i>Journal of Business Ethics</i> [FNEGE 1; HCERES A]. Decision: major Revision.
01/2021	Submission of the revised manuscript. Decision: minor revision.
05/2021	Submission of the revised manuscript. Decision: accepted for publication.
07/2021	Publication: Ranville, A., & Barros, M. (2021). Towards Normative Theories of Social Entrepreneurship. A Review of the Top Publications of the Field. <i>Journal of Business Ethics</i> . https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-021-04867-4

Our **second article** focuses on members' participation in their cooperative's governance. This is a key question for cooperatives because enacting their values of organisational democracy requires an active membership. This paper aims to study the heterogeneity of drivers leading to participation in the governance of an energy cooperative. Based on original survey data from a French energy cooperative, the study rely on fuzzy set Qualitative Comparative Analysis to account for equifinality and complex interactions between the factors identified in the literature. Results shows that multiple paths leading to participation exist and suggests that, in addition to share the values of the cooperative, expertise do matter for participation into governance, but that social interactions may be a substitutive path to cope with inexperience.

From a managerial perspective, the findings suggests that involving non-experts in deliberations around energy topics require specific strategies.

This paper did not involve co-authors and was presented at several conferences specialised in the topic of community energy and the QCA methodology. The paper received the Best Paper Award at the *International QCA Paper Development Workshop*. Since this research focus on a rather niche topic (participation in energy cooperatives) and a niche methodology (QCA), it was difficult to find space for it in generalist journals. After some rejections, we thus decided to submit it to *Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics*, a more specialised outlet. We present below the timeline of our publication and presentation efforts.

06/2019	Presentation at the <i>International Conference on New Pathways for Community Energy and Storage</i> , Groningen.
12/2019	Presentation at the <i>International QCA Paper Development Workshop</i> , Zurich (Best paper Award).
02/2021	Submission at <i>Energy Policy</i> . Decision: Rejected after review.
01/2023	Submission at <i>Journal of Business Research</i> . Decision: Desk rejected (not fitting the journal scope).
04/2023	Submission at <i>Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics</i> [FNEGE 4; HCERES C]. Decision: Review and resubmit.

The **third article** of the thesis investigate how tensions emerge in social enterprises and how they can be managed through governance bodies. In order to identify how social enterprises manage tensions in everyday practices, we conducted a qualitative, longitudinal, study of an ethics committee in a multi-stakeholder cooperative. Our empirical results show that both institutional and market environment entered in tension with the values of the cooperative and influenced its partnership choices, its structuration, its identity and its communication practices. At the organisational level, tensions appeared between maintaining the purity of the organisation’s values and risking the organisation’s survival. The heterogeneity of members’ expectations was also a challenge: each type of member bring a different and important resource to the organisation but may have different priorities regarding organisational goals. Our results shows clearly that institutional and resource-based theories could be complementary because values (embedded in institutions) are often in conflict with

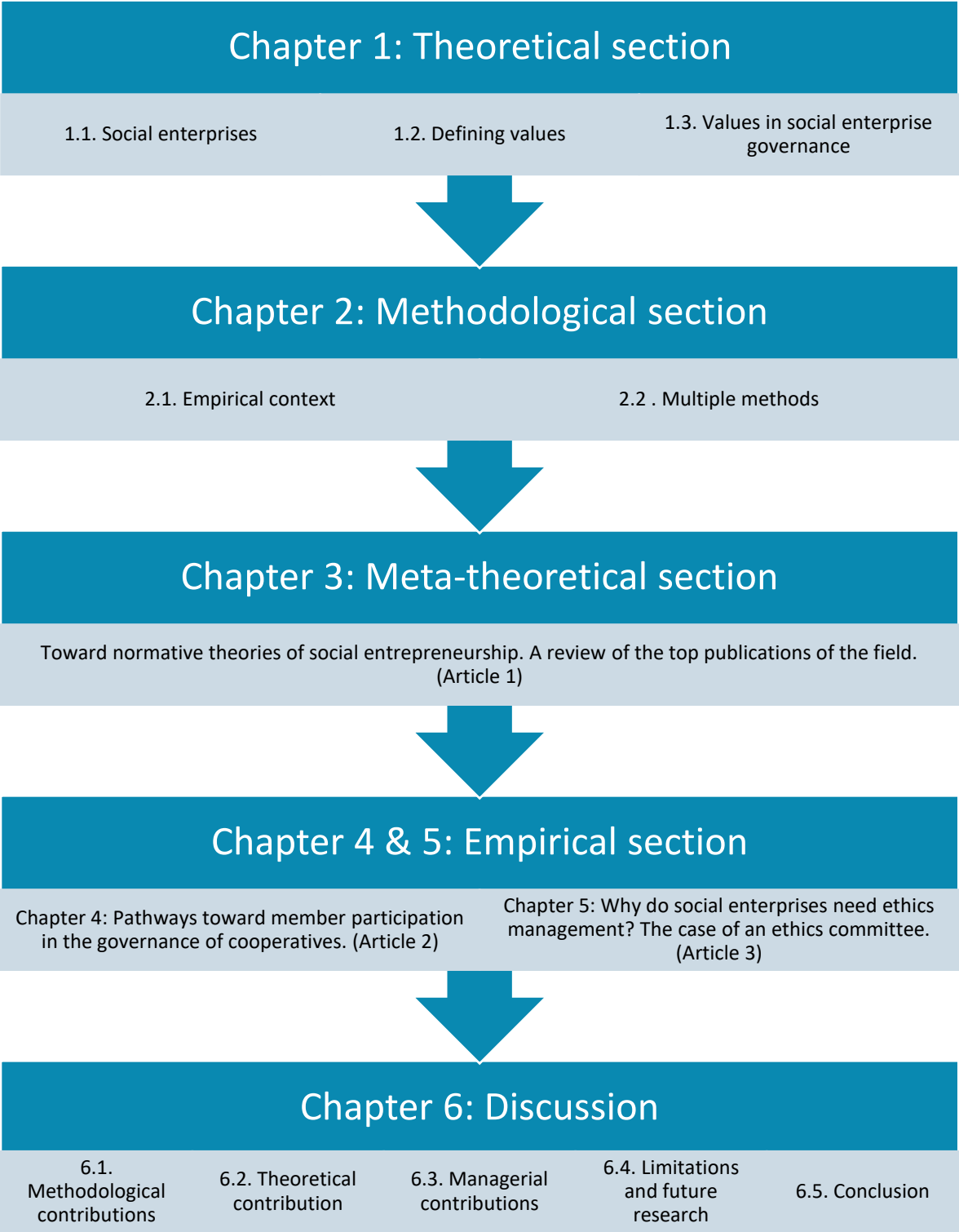
resource acquisition goals. Future research could explore the strategic implications of such tensions for social enterprises.

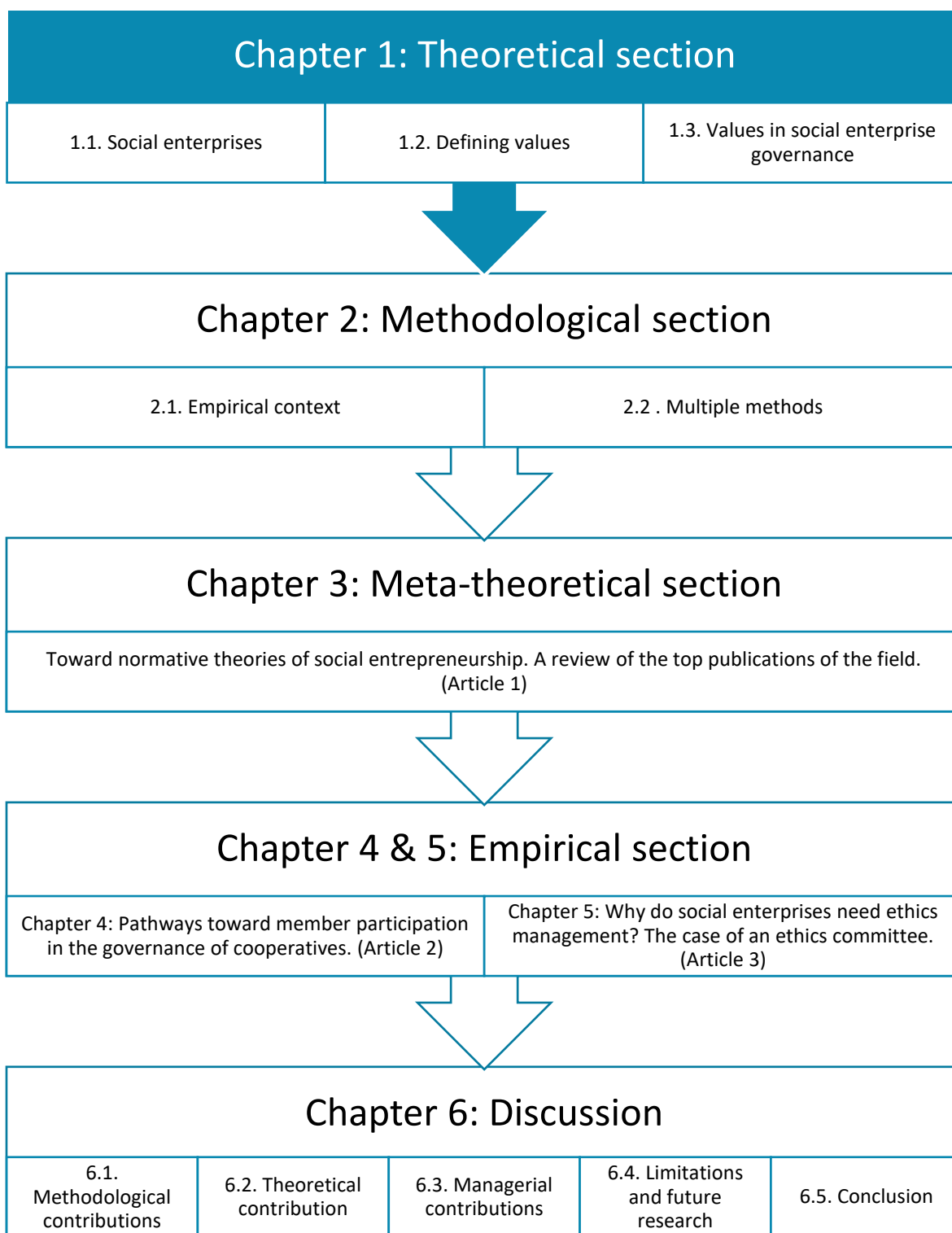
This third and last paper was presented to internal seminars and at the *12ièmes rencontres doctorales des perspectives critiques en management 6-7 septembre 2023, Grenoble Ecole de Management*. Table 1The table below summarise the main questions, relevance, theoretical approach and contributions of each research paper. For the remainder of the text, this thesis is composed of six chapters and is structured as follows: Chapter 1 presents our theoretical framework, defining social enterprises, values, and their role in governance. Chapter 2 focuses on the research design, investigating the empirical context of social enterprises in France and especially in the energy sector and presenting the methods we used in each study. Each of our research papers are presented in Chapters 3, 4 and 5. Lastly, Chapter 6 provides a comprehensive discussion, highlighting methodological, theoretical and managerial contributions, discussing limitations, and suggesting avenues for future research. We present the global architecture of the thesis in Figure 2. We include this figure at the beginning of each chapter to assist the reader in contextualizing each part within the overall framework of the thesis.

TABLE 1 - SUMMARY OF THE THESIS PAPERS (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)

Main research question			
Title	Toward normative theories of social entrepreneurship. A review of the top publications of the field.	Drivers of participation in community energy: the case of an energy cooperative in France	Why do social enterprises need ethics management? The case of an ethics committee in a multi-stakeholder energy cooperative.
Research question	What are the values embedded in SE conceptualisations?	What are the conditions leading members to contribute to the governance?	How tensions emerge in social enterprises and how are they managed?
Relevance	We need to be explicit regarding how values may intervene in our research processes.	Members' participation is important for cooperatives but we lack an integrative framework to understand it.	Social enterprises have to manage tensions tensions while trying to balance multiple social, economic and environmental goals.
Theoretical approach	Political philosophy, philosophy of science.	Participation, pro-social attitudes, social capital, resource model of participation.	Ethics management, institutional theory, resource-based theory.
Contributions	Explain how different normative anchorages are connected to various theoretical approaches. Identify critical positions taken by researchers. Highlight ambiguous concepts and theoretical inconsistencies associated with normativity.	Values are a necessary condition for participation in absence of other incentives. Motivations (including values) should be combined with resources to lead to participation.	Identify the origins of tensions, different possible stances for an ethics committee in face of ethical challenges, and different mechanisms that can contribute to alleviate tensions.

FIGURE 2 – THESIS ARCHITECTURE





Chapter 1. Theoretical framework

In this section, we will first explore the various definitions of social enterprises through the existing schools of thought, and typologies describing their various forms. Secondly, we will discuss the definitions of 'values' at the individual, organisational and institutional level. Lastly, we will examine the role of values within governance processes.

1.1. Defining social enterprises

In this section, we will present an overview of the social enterprise research field. Then we will discuss social enterprises definitions, existing school of thoughts as well as existing typologies of social enterprises.

1.1.a. Social enterprise research: an emerging field of study

The theme of social enterprise has increasingly garnered the attention of researchers, and the field of social entrepreneurship has exhibited steady growth over the past few decades, as shown by several bibliometric studies (Hota et al. 2020; W. Phillips et al. 2015; Rey-Martí et al. 2016; Tan Luc et al. 2020). See figures below.

FIGURE 3 – NUMBER OF PEER-REVIEWED PUBLICATIONS BETWEEN 1998 AND 2012 (SOURCE : PHILLIPS ET AL. 2015)

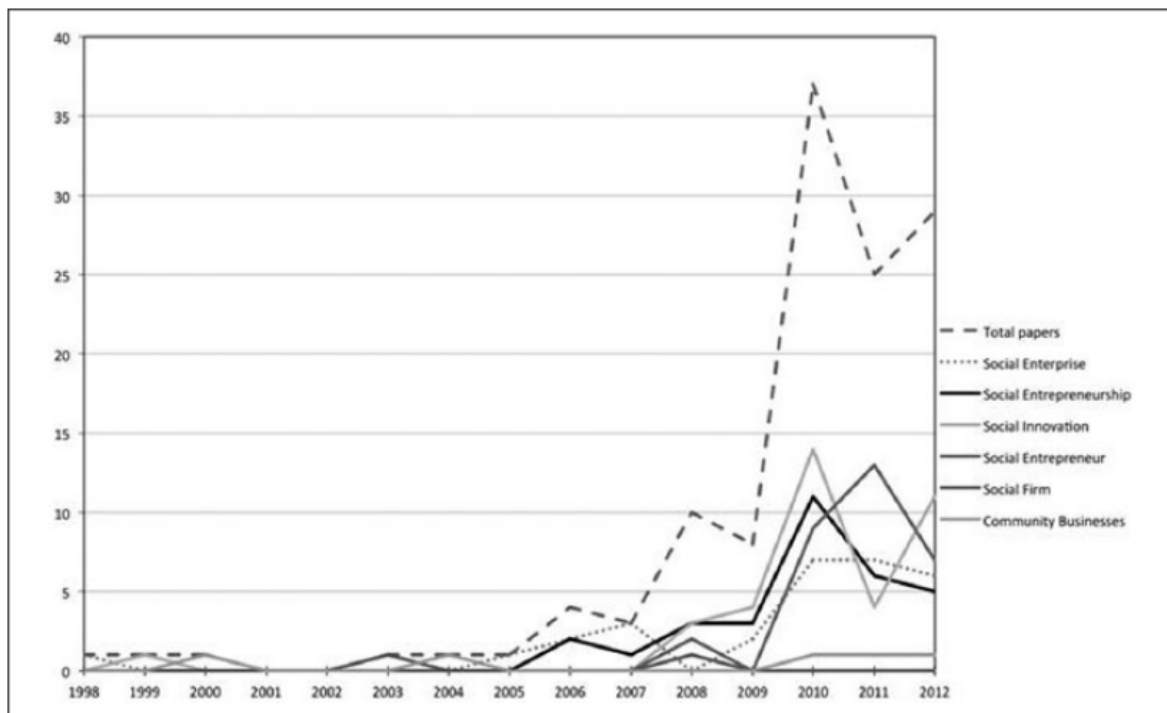


FIGURE 4 - NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS ON SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP REFERENCED IN WEB OF SCIENCE DATABASE PUBLISHED BEFORE NOVEMBER 2019 (SOURCE : TAN LUC ET AL. 2020)

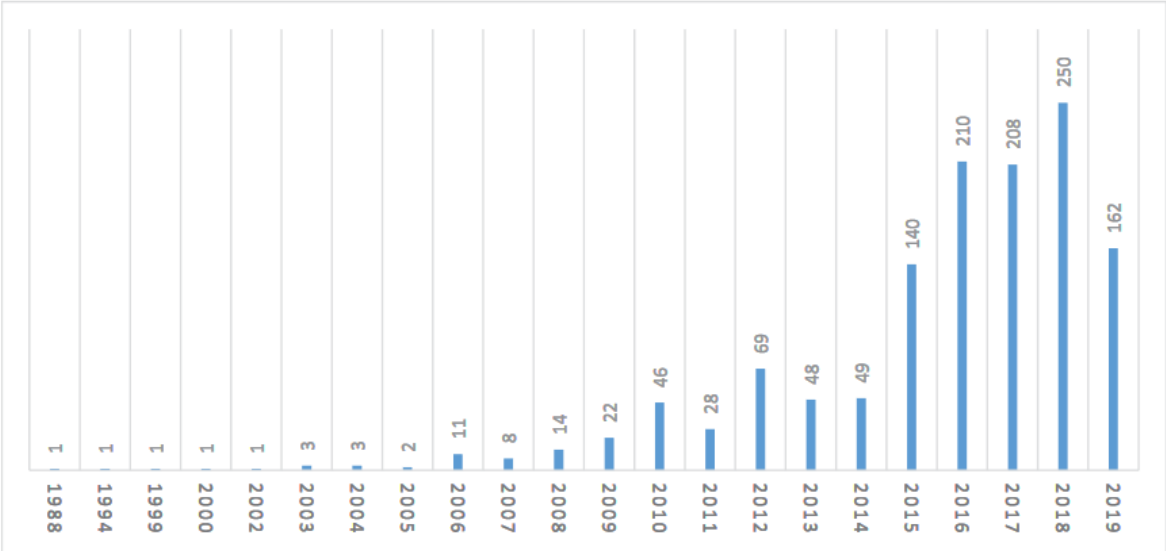
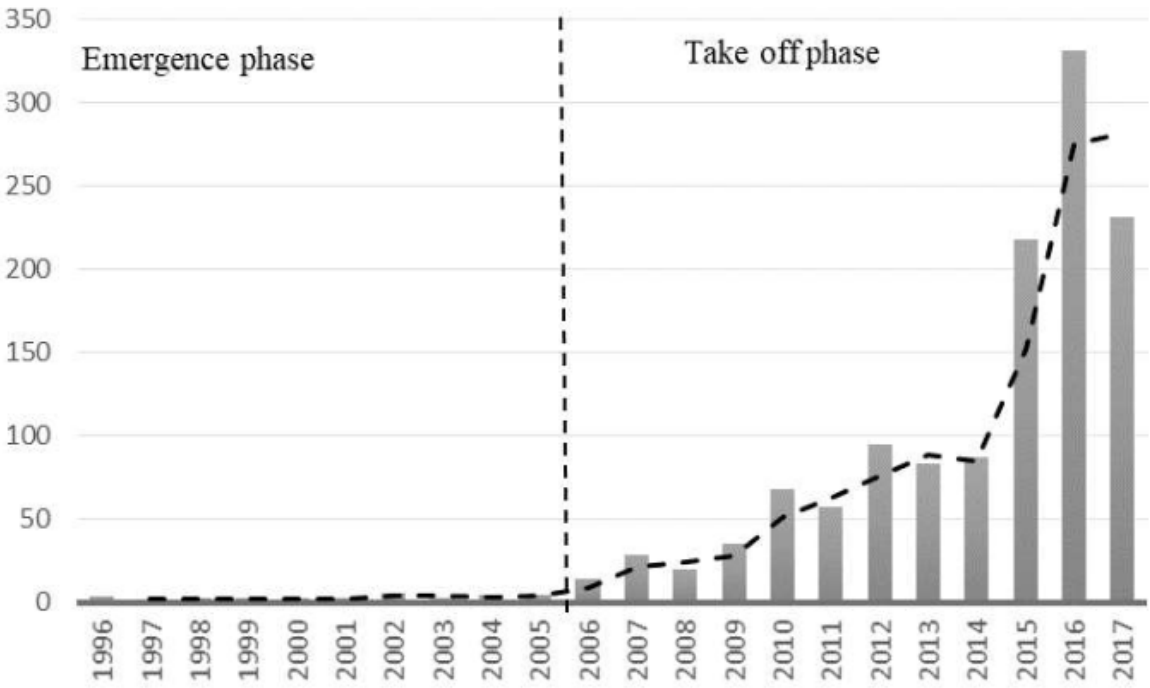


FIGURE 5 - NUMBER OF JOURNAL PUBLICATIONS ON SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP REFERENCED IN WEB OF SCIENCE DATABASE PUBLISHED BETWEEN 1996 AND 2017 (SOURCE : HOTA ET AL. 2020)



In their bibliometric study, Hota et al. identified several phase in social entrepreneurship research. Before 2006, research focused on the emergence of social entrepreneurship and the

characteristics of social entrepreneurs. Between 2006 and 2010, the field developed by relying on the seminal work of different sub-disciplines: entrepreneurship and institutional perspective in organisation theory. Scholars still discussed the definitions of social entrepreneurship, along with alternative concepts such as institutional entrepreneur, but started to build typologies and identifying different models of social enterprises. After 2010, the concept of hybridity gained strength in the social entrepreneurship field and scholars developed research to understand how social enterprises manage the challenge of pursuing social goals while staying financially sustainable. (Hota et al. 2020, pp. 31–33).

1.1.b. Defining social enterprises

The simpler way to describe social enterprises is to define them as organizations pursuing both social and economic goals. This apparently straightforward definition is however not so simple to operationalize when we try to define more exactly what these ‘economic’ and ‘social’ dimensions encompass. The entrepreneurial dimension of social enterprise is studied by the EMES network (research network on social enterprises) through indicators like the production of good/service, a high autonomy, the existence of economic risk taken by the organization and the presence of paid workers (Defourny and Nyssens 2010, p. 43). Other authors emphasizes other entrepreneurial elements such as profit-making, risk-taking and innovation (Nicholls and Cho 2008, p. 101), opportunity recognition and resourcefulness (Peredo and McLean 2006, p. 64).

The social dimension, although deemed essential to social ventures (Bacq and Janssen 2011), is not so easily defined. In some definitions, the ‘social’ orientation is defined negatively, in opposition to the profit motivation. Social entrepreneurs are then described as having an ‘ethical fiber’ or moral motivations (Bacq and Janssen 2011). Peredo and McLean define social enterprises by the fact that these enterprises aims at increasing ‘social value’ “i.e. to contribute to the welfare or wellbeing in a given human community” (Peredo and McLean 2006, p. 59). They situate different types of social enterprise on continuum, depending on the prominence of the social objective or profit motives. However, profit motives and social orientation are viewed as compatible elsewhere (M. T. Dacin et al. 2011). An enterprise can also be qualified as social on other criteria: because it provides goods and services addressing unmet needs, because it uses different method of organisation and creates different relationships between actors and because they defend particular values (Defourny and

Nyssens 2017, p. 2487). The social dimension can thus refer to the social sector (health, education, social care...), to decision-making by local groups trying to foster economic democracy, or to particular social problems like "unemployment, poverty, underdevelopment or handicaps of all kind, among other factors, which may cause marginalization or exclusion" (Defourny 2009, p. xiii).

1.1.c. Social enterprise schools of thought

Definition of SE concepts has been widely debated among researchers and practitioners alike (M. T. Dacin et al. 2011; Granados et al. 2011). In front of the diversity of definitions of social enterprises, scholars tried to identify different school of thought (Bacq and Janssen 2011; J. G. Dees and Anderson 2006; Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Galera and Borzaga 2009; Young and Lecy 2014). We present them in Table 2. First, the 'social innovation school' focuses on the figure of the entrepreneur and the innovation processes they develop in order to provoke social change (Bacq and Janssen 2011; J. G. Dees and Anderson 2006; Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Hoogendoorn et al. 2010). Secondly, the 'earned income' school describes social enterprises as the utilization of commercial and entrepreneurial strategies in support of non-profit activities (idem). Finally, the EMES network approach consider social enterprises as "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" (Defourny and Nyssens 2010, p. 43).

TABLE 2 - SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT ABOUT SOCIAL ENTERPRISES (SOURCE: AUTHOR)

Sources	Social innovation school	Social Enterprise or "Earned income" school	EMES approach
(J. G. Dees and Anderson 2006)	"... innovators pursuing social change" (p.7)	"... market-based solutions to social problems" (p.6)	
(Hoogendoorn et al. 2010)	"(1) the individual social entrepreneur who is assigned a series of exceptional qualities and (2) innovation in order to bring about structural social change." (p.30)	"(1) earned income strategies and (2) the non-distribution constraint" (p.31)	"... an initiative launched by a group of people; characterized by a high degree of autonomy or independence from public subsidies or other organisations; decision-making power not based on capital ownership; and involving various parties affected by the activities of the enterprise" (p.32)
(Bacq and Janssen 2011)	"... focuses on the social entrepreneur and his/her qualities, rather than on the organization and its specificities." (p.386)	"(1) a social objective, i.e. creating social value, with (2) an entrepreneurial strategy, i.e. applying business expertise and market-based skills to not-for-profit organizations" (p.386)	Indicators of the economic dimension: "(1) a continuous activity of goods and/or services production and sale; (2) a high degree of autonomy; (3) a significant level of economic risk; and (4) a minimum amount of paid work." Indicators of the social dimension: "(1) An explicit aim to benefit the community; (2) an initiative launched by a group of citizens; (3) a decisional power not based on capital ownership; (4) a participatory nature including all the activity's stakeholders; and (5) limited profit distribution." (p.385)
(Defourny and Nyssens 2010)	"... change makers as they carry out 'new combinations' in at least one the following areas: new services, new quality of services, new methods of production, new production factors, new forms of organizations or new markets" (p.42)	"... social enterprise mainly defined by earned-income strategies, refers to the use of commercial activities by non-profit organizations in support of their mission" (p.40)	Idem as above, "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.43)

1.1.d. Social enterprises typologies

In face of the various range of organisations under the label of social enterprises, scholars made considerable efforts to describe the diversity of SE and to build typologies (Alter 2007; Kerlin 2013; Defourny and Nyssens 2017; Mike Bull and Rory Ridley-Duff 2018). We summarize in the table below Table 3 the three typologies established by Alter (2007), Young and Lecy (2014) and Defourny and Nyssens (2017). Together they identify up to six categories of organisations that we may consider as social enterprises: **Corporate social responsibility** describe for-profit businesses engaging in environmental or philanthropic actions but maintaining financial objectives as primary objectives. **Social business or socially responsible business** encompass companies following some 'double bottom line' and aim to balance social and financial objectives. The idea of hybrid social enterprise focus on organisational forms combining practices from both private organisation and social sector. We group under the term of **trading non-profits** the types labelled 'non-profit with income generating activities' (Alter 2007), 'commercial non-profit' (Young and Lecy 2014) and 'entrepreneurial non-profit' (Defourny and Nyssens 2017). These organizations are typically non-profit entities with a primary social objective, but they engage in commercial activities to sustain their operations. This may come from the lowering of public funding, or their transformation into call for tenders that mechanically transform activities into competitive ones. **Social cooperatives** are new models of cooperatives. While classical cooperatives mainly address the needs of their members, social cooperatives have a broader vision of social change. They give themselves a mission of general interest that may benefit the public, beyond the strict interests of their members. Finally, **public social enterprises** represent the fact to transfer public services responsibilities to private organisations through public control, contracting or regulation. They result from "reconfiguration or externalization of public services" to improve the services, innovate or reduce public expenses (Defourny and Nyssens 2017, p. 2485), we also include in this category 'public-private partnerships' (Young and Lecy 2014).

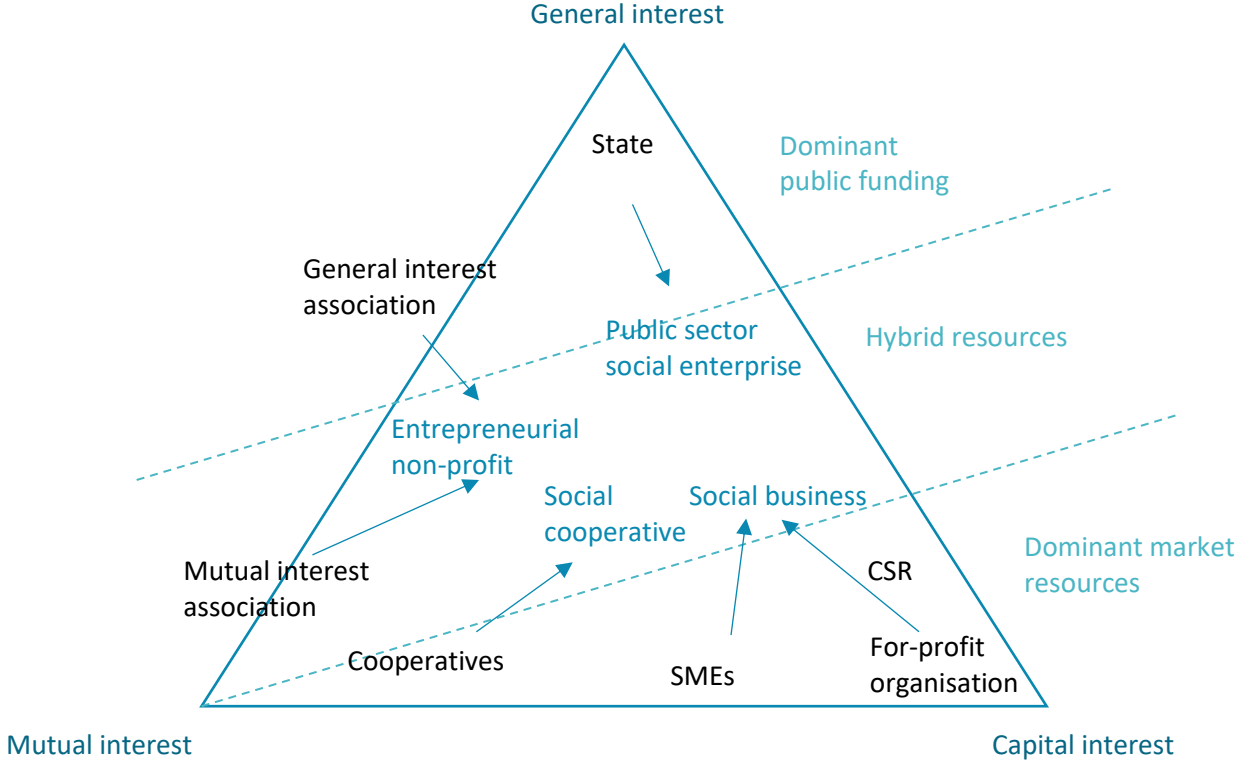
TABLE 3 - TYPOLOGIES OF SOCIAL ENTERPRISES (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK BASED ON (ALTER 2007; DEFOURNY AND NYSENS 2017; YOUNG AND LECY 2014)

Author	(Alter 2007)	(Young and Lecy 2014)	(Defourny and Nyssens 2017)
CSR	Corporation practicing social responsibility: "For-profit businesses whose motives are financially driven, but who engage in philanthropy." (p.29)	"For-profit business corporations explicitly engage in programs of corporate social responsibility , environmental sustainability, or corporate philanthropy for the overall purpose of maximizing long term profits for their private owners" (p.1320)	
Social business	Socially Responsible Business: "For-profit companies that operate with dual objectives-making profit for their shareholders and contributing to a broader social good." (p.28)	" Social businesses explicitly seek to balance profit-seeking with the achievement of a social mission." (p.1320)	Social business : "companies developing business activities for a social purpose or mission" (p.15)
Hybrid social enterprise	Social enterprise: "any business venture created for a social purpose mitigating/reducing a social problem or a market failure—and to generate social value while operating with the financial discipline, innovation and determination of a private sector business." (p.27)	" Hybrids constitute new forms that internalize the features of other forms of social enterprise by explicitly combining organizational components with commercial versus social goals" (p.1320)	
Trading non-profit	Non-profit with Income Generating Activities: "Non-profit organizations that incorporate some form of revenue generation through commercial means into their operations." (p.26)	" Commercial non-profit organizations are organized specifically to address some explicit social mission. Commercial goals are instrumental to the success of these organizations." (p.1320)	Entrepreneurial non-profit: "non-profit organizations developing any type of earned-income business in support of their social mission." (p. 12)

Social cooperatives	"Social cooperatives explicitly include some dimension of general public benefit in their missions in addition to benefits to their member" (p.1320)	Social cooperative : "move of mutual interest organizations (Coops or MI-Associations) towards a behaviour giving more importance to the general interest" (p.13)
Public social enterprise	"Public-private partnerships (PPPs) consist of contractual arrangements among for-profit, non-profit and governmental entities designed to address some designated public purpose such as community development or the needs of a particular groups" (p.1320)	Public-sector social enterprise: "public policies through which increased responsibilities are being transferred to private entities—among which social enterprises— although keeping these entities under public control or at least regulation." (p.16)

According to Defourny and Nyssens, the different ideal-types of social enterprises stem from different institutional trajectories. Established organisational forms and sectors (private, public, third sector) becomes progressively blurred as organisational goals evolve and become more or less oriented toward profit, member's interests or general interest, along with the resource mix of the organisations that include more or less market revenues or public funding. Private organizations primarily oriented toward profit and cooperatives primarily centred on members' interests are shifting their focus toward broader societal interests, giving rise to the emergence of 'social business' and 'social cooperative' models. Conversely, public bodies and associations, typically oriented toward the common good, are often transitioning towards more private organizational structures and market-oriented approaches (Defourny and Nyssens 2017). The figure below illustrates goals, resources, and institutional trajectories of each organisational type.

FIGURE 6 - INSTITUTIONAL TRAJECTORIES AND RESULTING SOCIAL ENTERPRISE MODELS (SOURCE: DEFOURNY AND NYSSSEN, 2017)



1.2. Conceptualizing values

In this section, we discuss the definition of values at the individual, organisational and institutional levels.

The most cited definitions of values in management research comes from social psychology. Rokeach define values as “enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (Rokeach 1973, p. 5). Similarly, Kluckhohn states that “A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable, which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action.” (Kluckhohn 2013, p. 395; cited by Hitlin and Piliavin 2004, p. 362)

Finally, Schwartz and Bilsky – who conducted extensive research to define basic human values – identified five parts summarizing the definitions present in the literature. Values are thus defined as “(a) concepts or beliefs, (b) about desirable end states or behaviours, (c) that transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behaviour and events, and

(e) are ordered by relative importance” (Schwartz and Bilsky 1987, p. 257; cited by Hitlin and Piliavin 2004, p. 362). For Schwartz and Bilsky the nature of values is cognitive. They define “a person’s value system as ‘a stable meaning-producing superordinate cognitive structure’ developed through learning and elaborated through experience” (Schwartz and Bilsky 1987, p. 257; cited by Bourne and Jenkins 2013, p. 19). As for their origin, values are seen as based on ‘universal human requirements’ including: “(a) biologically based organism needs, (b) social interactional requirements for interpersonal coordination, and (c) social institutional demands for group welfare and survival.” (Hitlin and Piliavin 2004, p. 362; discussing Schwartz 1992).

Because it is defined as a cognitive structure, we may see values as an individual-level construct. However, values are involved in multiple social processes and we can study them at various levels of analysis including individual, organisational, societal and global levels. (Agle and Caldwell 1999). In this thesis, we will explore individual, organisational and institutional levels. Research in organisation theory have opened the research on values at the organisational level, especially recently through questions of ethics, corporate social responsibility or social entrepreneurship. Scholars thus started to discuss what **organisational values** could be. For Bourne and Jenkins, “organizational values embody those general values that guide organizational members in their selection or evaluation of behaviour. They represent a form of consensus regarding the values that a social group or organization consider important for its aims and collective welfare” (Bourne and Jenkins 2013, p. 6). Research on organisational culture is one of the first stream of literature taking interest in values at the organisational level. In this perspective, values are an important component of a culture although they are not judged sufficient to define it (Agle and Caldwell 1999; Bourne and Jenkins 2013). Outside of cultural approaches, scholar have tried to answer to the question of whether organisations can have values, and how we can identify them. Bourne and Jenkins propose four forms of organisational values: “espoused, attributed, shared and aspirational” (Bourne and Jenkins 2013, p. 4). First, **espoused values** correspond to the values that top managers formally adopt through verbal and written statements. ‘Espoused values’ do not necessarily reflect the current practices of the organisation and are usually seen as ‘top down’ (Bourne and Jenkins 2013). Content analysis of official documents may be an accurate way to study espoused values. Then, **attributed values** are “collectively agreed upon social

structures, not necessarily shared, but established and accepted” (Bourne and Jenkins 2013, p. 20). It is the values that members attribute to the organisation based on the history of past decisions and realisations of the organisation (Bourne and Jenkins 2013). Moreover, Bourne and Jenkins define **shared values** as an aggregation of the values of individual members (Bourne and Jenkins 2013). Values can then be more or less homogeneous in a given organisation depending on various social processes such as selection, socialisation or proximity (Bourne and Jenkins 2013). Finally, **aspirational values** are “those that some individuals and groups believe to be desirable for the organization and as such, they are shared personal cognitive structures (Bourne and Jenkins 2013, p. 20).

Bourne and Jenkins distinguish ‘**embedded values**’ that are present in actual structures and practices of an organisation (reflected by shared and attributed values) from ‘**intended values**’ that are advocated for, but do not necessarily exist in the organisation at the time (reflected in espoused and aspirational values) (Bourne and Jenkins 2013, p. 18). They suggest that research could explore through longitudinal studies how these different manifestations of values interact.

Two stream of practice research may contribute to understand how ‘intended’ values may become ‘embedded’: value practices and ethic as practice. Gehman et al propose to define **value practices** as “sayings and doings in organizations to articulate and accomplish what is normatively right or wrong” (Gehman et al. 2013, p. 3). This approach relates to pragmatists who states that values are to be found in actions (Gehman et al. 2013). The **ethics as practice** approach holds a similar view and focuses on ethical subjectivity and experiences in order to discuss “what people actually do when they engage with ethics at work” (Clegg et al. 2007, p. 110). It calls for the analysis of “the precise points when a form of managing or acting becomes regarded as problematic” and “how organizations work in relation to ethics” (Clegg et al. 2007, p. 118). In this perspective, ethics is not something that is possessed but something that is done. Ethics practices are thus the “ongoing questioning of the adequacy of the organizations’ ethics in relation to the novel situations and contexts in which it finds itself.” (Clegg et al. 2007, p. 117)

This question of organisational context leads us to a third level of analysis, the institutional level. Institutional theory posits that organizations are subject to institutional pressures

stemming from their environment, and these pressures can be conflicting among themselves (Doherty et al. 2014). In the institutionalist perspective, values are part of the **'normative pillar' of institutions** (A. L. Wright et al. 2017, p. 9). Values are also considered as a part of 'institutional logics' (Thornton and Ocasio 2008) which have been used to describe principles guiding actions in social enterprises (e.g. Bruneel et al. 2016).

1.3. Values in social enterprise governance

In this thesis, we are interested in studying values in the context of social enterprises and especially in their governance. Organisational governance can be defined as **"the structures, systems and processes concerned with ensuring the overall direction, control and accountability of an organisation"** (Cornforth and Spear 2010, p. 3), including legal form, external accreditation, membership and board composition, control systems and performance management (Cornforth 2020). Governance studies thus examine the purpose of an organization, who decides its goals and what are the control mechanisms to make sure they are achieved (Kraatz and Block 2008).

Values can intervene in various steps and levels of governance processes. At the individual level, members, employees and other **stakeholders may hold different values** that influence their motivations, decisions and behaviours. At the organisational level, governance processes aims to decide on the goals and direction of the organisation, members may thus **refer to values to decide what is desirable for their organisation**. Difficulty may emerge in situation of scarcity when organisations have to prioritize among competing objectives (Spear et al. 2009) and allocate resources (Bruneel et al. 2016; Sacchetti and Tortia 2016), or when different stakeholders holds different values and defend diverging interests (Spear et al. 2009). **In processes of evaluation and control, people are also likely to refer to some forms of values as standards** to evaluate the rightness of actions and outcomes. In social enterprises, enacting values such as democracy may also be reflected in governance through the choice of an appropriate legal structure (Spear et al. 2009) and **rules of functioning**. Values can intervene in defining what decision-making procedures are legitimate, as it is reflected in the concept of procedural fairness (Hoffmann 2005; Simcock 2016). Finally, the environment of the organisation may generate different **institutional pressures** (Bruneel et al. 2016) that can

influence the values that an organisation adopt or have to respond to. We present the different way values may manifest in governance in the figure below.

FIGURE 7 - HOW VALUES INTERVENE IN GOVERNANCE (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



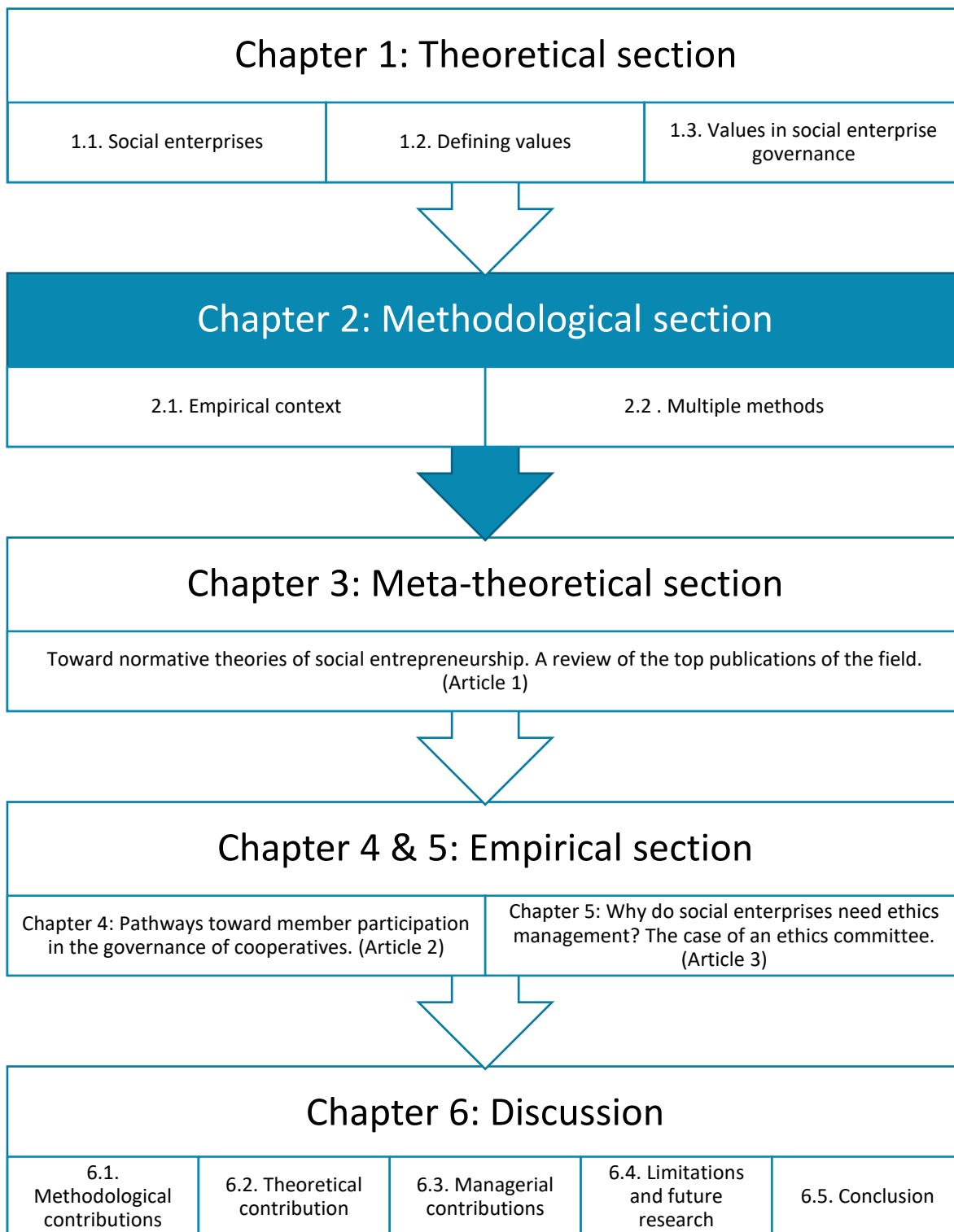
1.4. Summary of the theoretical framework

This dissertation examine the problem of how values intervene in “social enterprises” both as a concept and as an empirical object of study. We adopt the approach of social enterprises proposed by the EMES network, where the ideal type of social enterprises is a **“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”** (Defourny and Nyssens 2010, p. 43). We choose this approach because we conduct our research in the French context, which has a well-established tradition of social economy organisations including associations, foundations, mutual organisations and cooperatives. Historically, these organizations advocate for a particular form of (democratic) governance. The EMES approach is the one that aligns better with these features and offers a more comprehensive representation of social enterprise characteristics in the French context.

Moreover, we decided to adopt a simplified definition of **values as concepts or beliefs about desirable end states or behaviours** because we will study values in multiple ways. Each of our

study will propose more precise conceptualisation fitting the purpose of each research question. We may therefore refer to values as 'normative ideas' or 'normativity' because values involve ideas about desirable states (they are prescriptive and aims to describe what should be). We also use the terms 'ethics' and 'political ideas' because they respectively include ideas about desirable life, behaviours and states of society. We also use the concept of social norms because they represent standard of acceptable behaviours. Values can manifest at various levels of analysis. However, in this dissertation, we will concentrate on three specific domains where they play a significant role: **values in research, values in motivations, and values in practices.**

It was important for us at the beginning of our dissertation project to get a good conceptual understanding of social enterprises. However, as we explored the literature, it became important to us to tackle the issue of **how to deal with values in social enterprise research** before engaging in empirical fieldwork, this is why we discuss this question in Chapter 3. . Next, we explore the question of values in motivation through the study of the factors leading members to participate in the governance of their cooperative. We investigate **whether aligning with the cooperative's values is sufficient to motivate a member to engage in participatory behaviours.** Finally, we observed governance bodies in a cooperative in order to understand **how values are discussed and enacted in everyday practices.** In the following section, we will present the global the research methods we deployed to answer to each of these questions.



Chapter 2. Research design

In this chapter, we present the empirical context of our research and explain why we chose to study social enterprises in the energy sector. Then, we present the methodologies used in each of our studies.

2.1. Empirical context

In this section, we present how different types social enterprise manifest themselves in the French context. Then, we explain why the energy sector is an interesting setting to study social enterprises. Lastly, we present an overview of the 'citizen energy' movement in which social enterprises such as energy cooperatives take part.

2.1.a. Social enterprises in France

The study of social enterprises demands to take into account national specificities that shape these organisations (Defourny and Nyssens 2010, p. 49). This is why we want to present in this section a brief introduction to the French context. In France, the concept of social enterprise or social entrepreneurship is less popular than the one of 'social and solidarity economy' (Defourny and Nyssens 2008, p. 216). The concept of social economy was used in the 80' to gather organisations having a democratic governance structure embedded in their legal form: associations, mutual organisation and cooperatives. In another hand, the idea of solidarity economy focused rather on alternatives to the market system as well as organisations having political objectives aiming to change society. It included practices such as self-management or fair trade (Cary and Laville 2015). Around 2000, a coalition of actors developed the notion of 'social and solidarity economy' to combine social economy and solidarity economy into a common field. In 2014 this trend resulted in a law defining formally social and solidarity economy (Draperi 2014) and providing a framework for public policies.

From this first delimitation corresponding to a form of third sector, we can observe the different institutional trajectories identified by Defourny and Nyssens that lead to different forms of social enterprises in France. Evolutions of the regulation inform us about new organisational forms and practices being institutionalised. They allow us to identify how the types of social enterprises we listed in section 1.1. manifest themselves in France. We present each of these manifestations below and summarize them in Table 4 and Figure 8.

First, recent public debate about the social and environmental responsibilities of private actors led to the creation of the quality of **'purpose company'**. Purpose company adopt a mission (*raison d'être*) that has to be monitored by a dedicated committee and a third party organisation (PACTE law, 2018). This can correspond to the **social business or corporate social responsibility types** of social enterprises. Secondly, the 2014 law on social and solidarity economy included traditional social economy organisations defined by their legal form: association, cooperatives and mutual organisation, but created in fact a larger perimeter by including commercial companies respecting social economy principles without necessarily taking a specific legal forms (Hiez 2014). These organisations were named broadly **social and solidarity economy enterprise**. This form put less emphasis on governance and tend to match the idea of **hybrid social enterprise** and definitions of social entrepreneurship existing in other countries. On the other hand, for associations turning into **'trading non-profit'**, the change is more subtle to identify, as a shift toward commercial activities may not necessitate a change in legal status under French regulation. We can however observe in some cases associations creating **commercial subsidiaries**. The **'public social enterprise'** type can take the form of **semi-public companies**, private companies in which public authorities intervene. Finally, for the **'social cooperative'** type, a specific legal form was created in France: the **'collective interest cooperative society'** (*Société Coopérative d'Intérêt Collectif*). It was inspired by the model of Italian social cooperatives and reflexions of think tanks supported by the cooperative movement (Defourny and Nyssens 2008). The *'Société Coopérative d'Intérêt Collectif'* (SCIC) is a commercial cooperative with a 'social utility' objective. Law defines the scope of what is considered as 'social utility'. Its legal statutes are designed for a multi-stakeholder governance and at least three types of stakeholders has to be involved: employees, beneficiaries, and another type of stakeholder. Local authorities can be involved (which makes it also an interesting semi-public form), and the redistribution of profit is limited.

In the empirical part of this thesis, we decided to focus specifically on a case of social cooperative (SCIC). This choice was motivated by the fact that this form benefit from an identifiable legal framework and an explicitly multi-stakeholder governance that make it an interesting context to study how the values of different stakeholders are accounted for and enacted.

FIGURE 8 – LEGAL FRAMEWORKS FOR SOCIAL ENTERPRISES IN FRANCE (SOURCE: AUTHOR’S WORK)

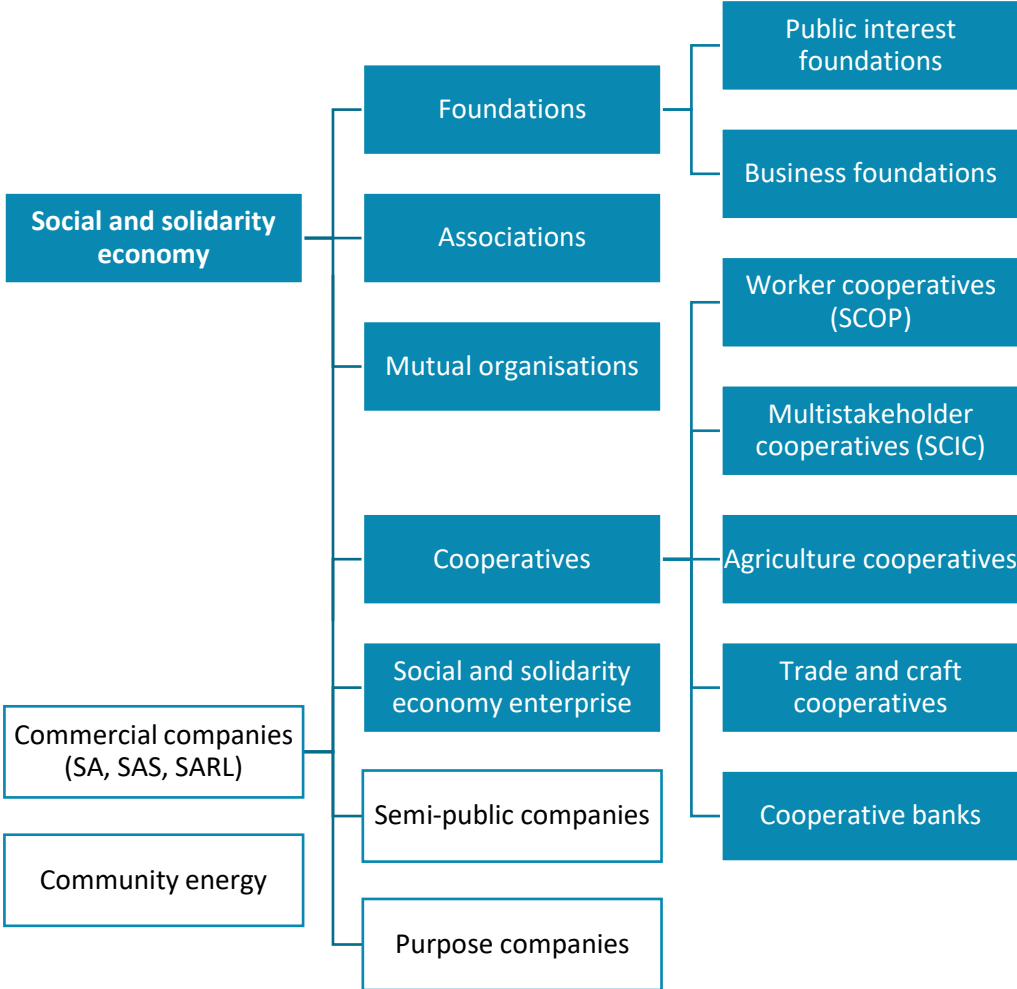


TABLE 4 – MANIFESTATIONS OF THE SOCIAL ENTERPRISE TYPES IN FRANCE (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)

Social enterprise type	Example of manifestations in the French legal framework
CSR	'Purpose company' (<i>Société à mission</i>): the company adopt a 'mission' (<i>raison d'être</i>) that will be monitored by a dedicated committee and a third party organisation.
Social business	
Hybrid social enterprise	Social and solidarity economy enterprise : no specific legal form but principles to follow including having a primary goal that is not profit, a democratic governance, and limited profit distribution.
Trading non-profit	Associations with commercial activities , associations with commercial subsidiaries.
Social cooperatives	'Collective interest cooperative society' (<i>Société Coopérative d'Intérêt Collectif, SCIC</i>): a commercial multi-stakeholder cooperative with a 'social utility' objective and limited profit distribution.
Public social enterprise	Semi-public companies (e.g. <i>société d'économie mixte</i>).

2.1.b. The energy sector: a new challenging field for social enterprises

We decided to study social enterprises in the energy sector for several reasons. First, they are rather new in this sector, part a movement initiated less than twenty years ago by a few pioneers that wanted citizens to take control back on energy-related decisions (Sebi and Vernay 2020). This movement of 'citizen energy' led to the creation of diverse initiatives aiming to provide organizational form for citizens to jointly finance, build and run renewable energy facilities, but also improve energy literacy and energy efficiency. These initiatives take various legal forms such as social cooperatives (*SCIC, société cooperative d'intérêt collectif*), simplified limited company (*SAS, société par action simplifiée*) sometime as Social and solidarity economy enterprise, associations, limited partnership with a share capital (*société en commandité par action*) and semi-public companies (*société d'économie mixte*).

Secondly, 'citizen energy' initiatives propose a new way of doing in the energy sector, at the opposite to the historical energy system. In France, the electricity production infrastructure was historically centralized - and state owned - because of political reasons of public service, but also for economic reasons of 'natural monopoly' and the technical choice of nuclear energy. Citizen energy projects are then about producing renewable energy (instead of largely nuclear power) and they are about placing citizens at the heart of the governance of these renewable energy production facilities at the local level. Giving citizens the possibility to take part in energy decision-making is especially innovative in a country where the electricity sector was historically developed in a very centralized and top-down manner. It is thus especially interesting to study their governance as they try to go against the tide and to enact a diversity of social and environmental values linked to local development, fair energy prices, low environmental impacts, citizen involvement or landscape integration.

Third, the field has reached a pivotal phase. Indeed, citizen energy are forced to scale up because of decreasing financial support from national policies and increased market competition. This is pushing actors in the field of citizen energy to evolve, rethink how they interact with already well-established actors while they try maintaining their key objectives and values.

This section is based on research we conducted as a research assistant within the European project SONNET (Social Innovation in Energy Transitions). SONNET brought diverse groups together to make sense of how social innovation can bring about a more sustainable energy sector in Europe. The project aimed to co-create a rich understanding of the diversity, processes, contributions, successes and potential of social innovation in the energy sector (SIE). For more information, please visit the project website: <https://sonnet-energy.eu>. We contributed to the SONNET project by mapping French social innovation initiatives and writing a detailed case study report on cooperative models in France: Ranville, A. Vernay, A.-L. (2020), Cooperative organisational models for renewable energy in France. Research Report, SONNET: EU Horizon 2020 Grant agreements no: 837498, <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.30446.74567>

2.1.c. Key actors and moments of the citizen energy movement

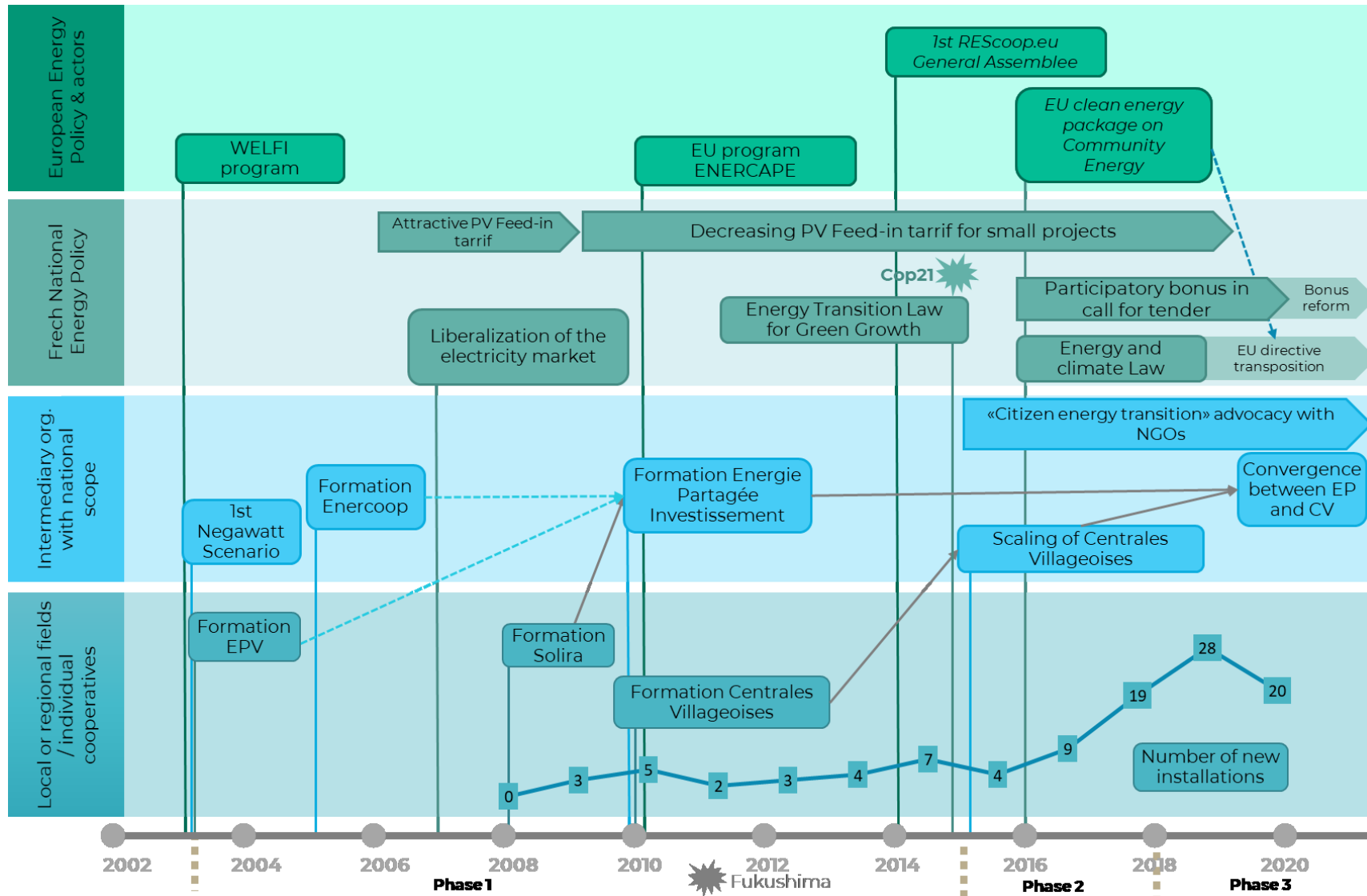
In this section, we introduce the main actors of the citizen energy movement in France and present a summary of the movement's history.

Despite the recent emergence of citizen projects during the 2000's, the citizen energy movement is already well organised around three key actors that support their emergence. First, we find ***Energie Partagée***. This organisation is the main network for citizen led renewable energy and is composed of two main legal entities. First, ***Energie Partagée Investissement***, a limited partnership with a shared capital (*Société en commandité par action*) that gathers investment and funds renewable energy projects. Second, ***Energie partagée Association***, a non-profit association subsidized by ADEME (national agency for the environment and energy) that federates citizen energy actors and facilitates exchange and training within the network. *Energie Partagée Association* is organized through regional networks whose structure may differ depending on the historical trajectories of the region. The second important actor is the ***Association des Centrales Villageoises***. It emerged in parallel to *Energie Partagée* association in the Rhône Alpes region. This network promotes and federates a specific type of project based on photovoltaic rooftops clusters, strong territorial anchorage, direct citizen governance and peer-to-peer mentoring between initiators of projects that share expertise and help one another. Pushed by ADEME, *Centrales Villageoise*

and *Energie Partagée* built a partnership to mutualise resources and present a single interlocutor to this national public partner. The third key actor is **Enercoop**. Enercoop is a multi-stakeholder cooperative created with the aim to be an alternative to incumbent energy suppliers and provide 100% green electricity. The cooperative started its energy supply activity in 2005. It marginally developed energy efficiency services and renewable energy production, but decided in 2020 to engage more strategically into energy production. Enercoop is also a founding member of *Energie Partagée* and contribute to manage the *Energie Partagée Investissement*. The figure below presents the main development phases of the citizen energy field in France. In the first phase, we observe the emergence of pioneering actors, supported by some European Union programs. The second phase shows a short period of development of citizen energy projects. The third phase initiates a phase of convergence of actors and the beginning of a public recognition of their action.

The French context was a priori unfavourable to citizen projects. Historically, the French energy system is centralised and based on nuclear energy. A system strongly defended by cohesive technocratic elites. The elaboration of an alternative technical narrative of energy transition based on 100% renewable energy by the association Negwatt in 2003 and the liberalisation of the electricity market around 2005 created the opportunity to imagine a new model to organize the energy system. Several initiatives emerged in parallel to create the first French citizen energy projects. These initiatives originated from militant citizens, NGOs or para-public organisations and emerged from the will to create alternatives to nuclear energy, or to private for-profit appropriation of renewable resources. EU programs played a key role in this emergence phase by funding pioneer actions and knowledge exchange events with other countries more advanced regarding citizen-led energy initiatives.

FIGURE 9 - TIMELINE OF THE EMERGENCE OF CITIZEN ENERGY IN FRANCE (SOURCE: RANVILLE AND VERNAY 2020)



In 2015, the Energy Transition Law for Green Growth created a more favourable context resulting in an acceleration of the projects and scaling through replication, especially small PV projects. The field developed around intermediary organisations stemming from pioneer's organization who formed networks to help new projects. In this period, different actors had different views about the involvement of citizens in energy projects. Public policies focused only financial participation while *Energie Partagée* emphasized participation of citizens in the governance of the projects and the *Centrales Villageoise* network advocated for more direct and local participation of inhabitants.

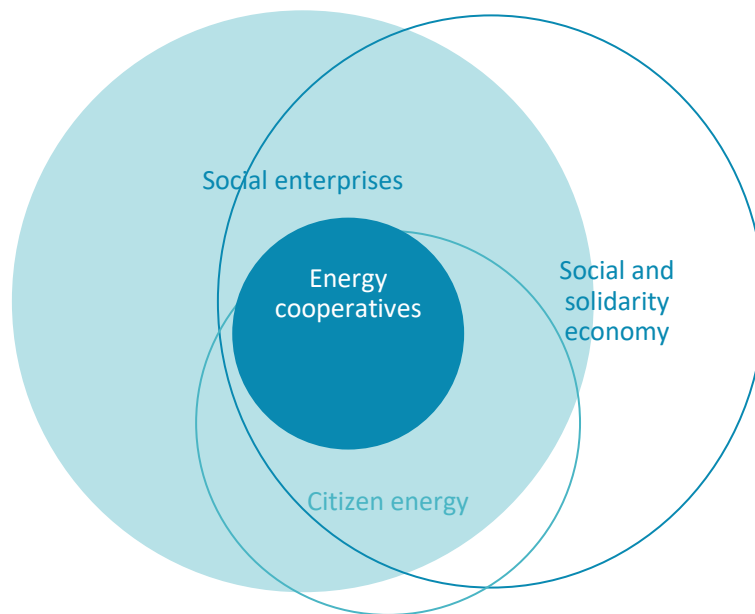
In 2017, fed-in tariffs for small PV project became less attractive and regulation pushed toward bigger installations, forcing citizen energy initiatives to move toward bigger projects. Creating new organisations became more challenging and existing ones started to question themselves about whether and how they should scale up. The risk and complexity of such projects led organisations to professionalize or build partnerships out of their known networks. In the meantime, the network actor *Energie Partagée* conducted some advocacy work to get its model recognized. In 2019, *Energie Partagée* and the citizen energy movement were officially recognized in an event organized by the national agency ADEME that allowed the actors to get a new legitimacy vis-à-vis big public funds. This recognition came however with the constraint to name a single head to represent the movement and receive ADEME fundings. This incentivized the two networks *Energie Partagée* and *Centrales Villageoise* to work together in order to converge towards a collectively agreed definition of the field and of what constituted a 'citizen' project. This convergence led to the creation of a 'label' certifying citizen energy projects.

In parallel, the advocacy of the European renewable energy cooperative movement (REScoop) led to the adoption of European directives recognizing 'community energy' (EU 2018, 2019), organisations that involve citizens and local actors into energy activities. These directives has then been transposed in the French laws (Légifrance 2023a, 2023b).

2.1.d. Summary of the empirical context

In the figure below, we summarize the institutional environment for social enterprises in the French energy sector. Social enterprises exist through a set of overlapping fields having more or less principles in common: social and solidarity economy, citizen energy and energy cooperatives. In this thesis, we focus on an energy cooperative who is situated at the intersection of these fields.

FIGURE 10 - OVERLAP BETWEEN THE PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL ENTERPRISE, SOCIAL AND SOLIDARITY ECONOMY, CITIZEN ENERGY AND ENERGY COOPERATIVE (SOURCE: AUTHOR)



EMES social enterprise ideal type	Social and solidarity economy	Citizen energy	Energy cooperatives (ICA principles)
Collective dynamics involving stakeholders in governing bodies	Democratic governance	Shared governance and local dynamic	Voluntary and Open Membership
			Democratic Member Control, Members' Economic Participation
High value placed on autonomy	Private organisations	-	Autonomy and Independence
Aim to benefit the community, Not-for-profit	Primary goal is not profit distribution	Local community development, ethical investment, ecology	Concern for Community
-	-	Information sharing with stakeholders	Education, Training and Information
-	-	Involve local networks of actors	Cooperation among Cooperatives

2.2. Multiple methods

This chapter presents the methodologies used in each of our research projects. Our first project use content analysis and a philosophy of science approach to explore the relations between values and social enterprise theory. Our second study use survey data and qualitative comparative analysis to investigate the influence of values on individual behaviours. Our third study examine how values manifest in practices at the organisational level through a thematic coding and process mapping of qualitative data collected in an energy cooperative.

TABLE 5 – SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH METHODS

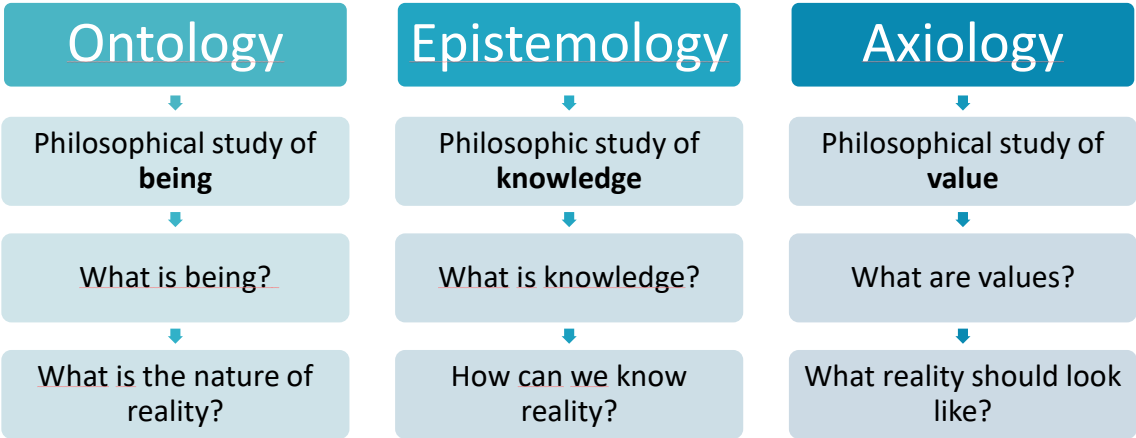
Main research question	Level of analysis	Research question	Data	Method
How normative principles intervene in 'social enterprises' both as a concept and as an empirical object of study?	Social enterprise theory	What are the normative assumptions in social entrepreneurship research?	100 most cited paper in SE research	Deductive content analysis
	Individual level	What conditions make members participate in cooperative governance?	395 survey responses	Qualitative comparative analysis
	Organisational level (practices)	How tensions emerge in the cooperative and how are they managed?	12 interviews, 4 years of archives (~170 p.), observation of 40 meetings	Thematic coding & process analysis

2.2.a. Values in research: content analysis and philosophy of science

In order to investigate the normative assumptions in social entrepreneurship research, we situated our study at the meta-theoretical (theories about theories) level. We followed Ezzamel and Willmott encouragement to consider “the ethical register as being of equivalent significance to the ontological and epistemological registers of knowledge production” (Ezzamel and Willmott 2014). Ontology is the philosophical study of being and question the nature of reality. Epistemology is the philosophy study of knowledge and question the strategies to access reality. We believe that we need a third pillar to have a philosophy of

science able to discuss to relevance of research for solving societal issues, this is what Ezzamel and Willmott refer to as the ‘ethical register’. We will rather call it ‘axiology’ as it is the term used to designate the philosophical study of value and it may avoid confusion with existing streams of research on ethics. Axiology is then concerned with the nature of values and the assessment of the value of things.

FIGURE 11 - THE THREE META-THEORETICAL REGISTERS (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



To study values in social entrepreneurship research, we chose to get a global overview of the field by reviewing the most influential social enterprise research. We used bibliometric methods to identify the 100 most-cited papers. Then we used eight schools of thought of western contemporary political philosophy as our main coding template: utilitarianism, liberal egalitarianism, libertarianism, Marxism, communitarianism, citizenship theory, multiculturalism, and feminism. This approach is in line with previous comparative methodologies such as Boltanski and Thevenot’s in *De la justification* (1991), in which they used political philosophies to build their model of different ‘worlds’ (inspired, domestic, fame, civic, market, and industrial). We used a combination of keyword-based automatic coding, qualitative reading and semantic networking of conceptual statements to identify the main normative ideas present in the social enterprise literature, point the ambiguity of some concepts, identify critical stances and underline the tensions across theories or between theories and practices.

2.2.b. Values in motivations: survey and large N comparative approach

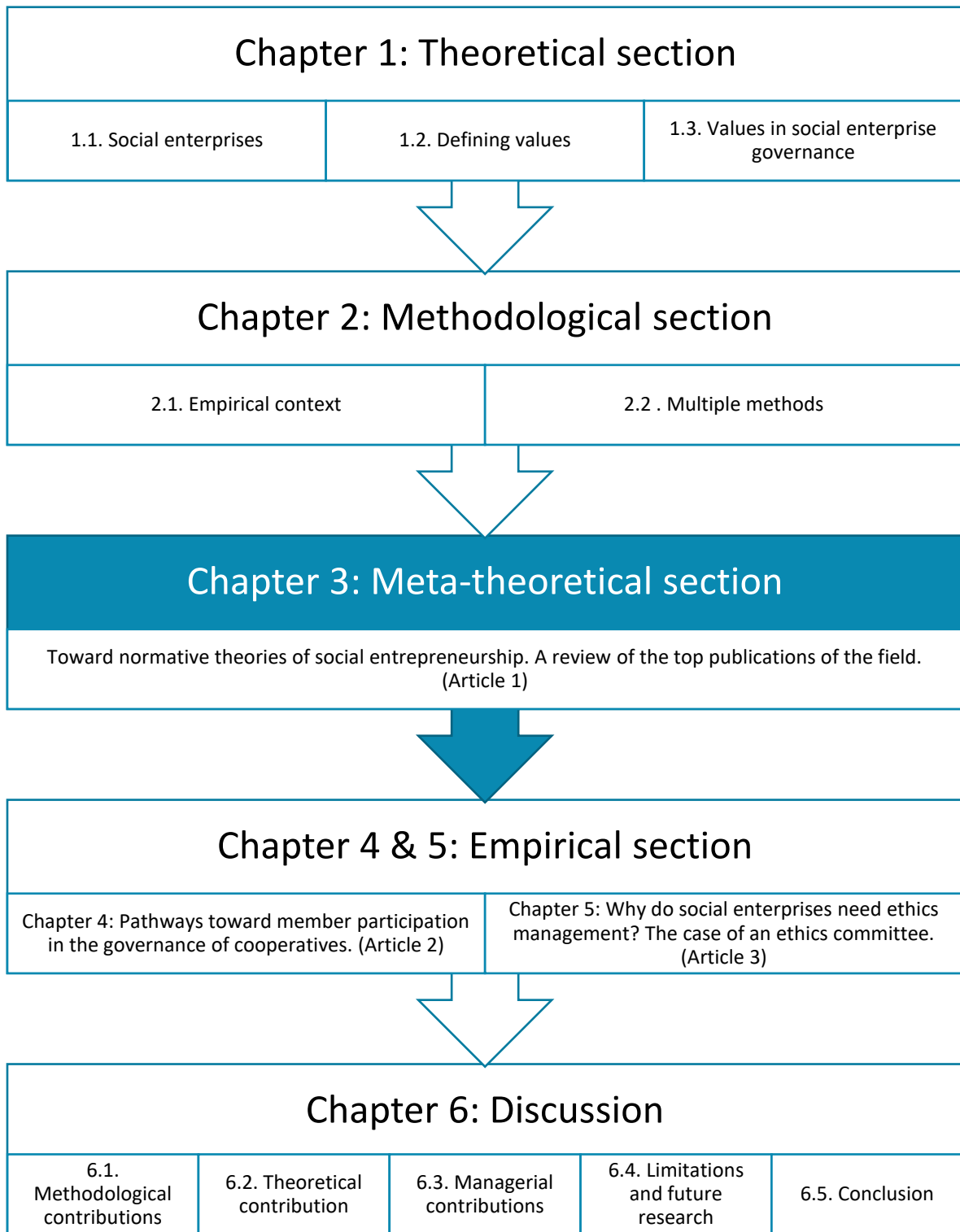
Our second study is situated at the empirical and individual level. We are interested in how values influence behaviours and we focus on a behaviour that is itself important to enact the democratic value in cooperatives: participation.

We expect values to influence behaviours (Hitlin and Piliavin 2004). However, values are not the only factor influencing behaviours (Ajzen 1991; Hitlin and Piliavin 2004). This is why we engaged more broadly in the study of the drivers of participation behaviours. We collected individual-level data through a questionnaire resulting in 395 valid responses. In this study, we propose to explain participation in a configurational way as the result of a conjunction of resources (time, skills, money, social capital etc.) and motivations (costs and benefits, social norms, social identity...). We posit that different combinations of motivations and resources could be equifinal, meaning that “alternative factors can produce the same outcome” (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 5). This is why we chose a qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) approach as it is suited to identifying equifinal causes (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 78). We assumed that having the resources to participate without the willingness to do so will not lead to action; and conversely, that being motivated to participate without the resources to do so will not be sufficient to lead to action. Our result shows that values are indeed necessary but not sufficient for participation.

2.2.c. Values in practices: observation, interviews and process mapping

In our second empirical study, we were interested in practices linked to values at the organisational level and investigated a multi-stakeholder cooperative as a non-participant observer. We first conducted exploratory fieldwork in order to identify where values were the most visible in the organisation: We observed annual meetings, board meetings and strategy seminars. During this phase, we learnt that the cooperative had an ethics committee and decided to investigate this specific group. One methodological reason for this was that the committee worked specifically on cases of dilemmas and controversies, ethical questions that board members and employees did not manage to solve by themselves. This is precisely interesting for studying values because situations of tension or conflict reveal more clearly ethical or political arguments (Boltanski and Thévenot 2006; Lemieux 2018). We decided to conduct a qualitative, longitudinal approach and collected data through 12 interviews, 3 years

of archives, and the observation of 40 meetings. The richness of our data will probably lead to more than one type of analysis, but the analysis presented in this dissertation focuses on the role the committee played in the management of the tensions encountered in the organisation. We used thematic coding (Corley and Gioia 2004) as well as chronological visual mapping (Langley 1999) to structure our data. Our results shows the different pressures the organisation encountered and the resulting ethical dilemmas and describe the role the ethics committee took in an effort to solve them.



Chapter 3. Toward normative theories of social entrepreneurship. A review of the top publications of the field.

Article 1

This chapter is a reproduction of the publication: Ranville, A., & Barros, M. (2021). Towards Normative Theories of Social Entrepreneurship. A Review of the Top Publications of the Field. *Journal of Business Ethics*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-021-04867-4>

3.1. Introduction

The theme of social entrepreneurship (SE) has drawn increasing attention from researchers in recent decades, and its definition has been widely debated among researchers and practitioners alike (Granados et al. 2011). Conceptual debate occupies considerable space in the literature (M. T. Dacin et al. 2011), and different schools of thought on SE have been identified (Bacq and Janssen 2011; J. G. Dees and Anderson 2006; Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Galera and Borzaga 2009; Young and Lecy 2014). The field has now moved beyond narrow definitions (Doherty et al. 2014), and made considerable efforts to describe the diversity of SE and to build typologies for the range of organisations within this label (Alter 2007; Kerlin 2013; Defourny and Nyssens 2017; Mike Bull and Rory Ridley-Duff 2018). The field of social entrepreneurship (henceforth SE) has been steadily growing in the last few decades (P. A. Dacin et al. 2010). However, according to some scholars, the boundaries of the field remain blurred (F. M. Santos 2012), without reaching a consensus on what makes SE different from regular businesses. We argue that defining SE (as opposed to classical business) is difficult because “social” is a value-loaded concept (Choi and Majumdar 2014) and its normative basis is unclear (Bruder 2020). This is problematic because if SE scholars ambition to provide practitioners with useful knowledge to help them progress, they will need theories that are explicit regarding the type of goals SEs are supposed to achieve. Following this idea, our research explores the normative assumptions behind SE scholarship through political philosophy theories, which provide coherent logical frameworks to classify normative ideas.

This paper explores the normative basis of SE research through a deductive content analysis of the top 100 publications in the domain. Using eight contemporary schools of thought in political philosophy as a template for analysis, our goal was to identify the main normative

assumptions and principles sustaining SE investigation. In our analysis, we have identified the philosophies underlying SE literature, and the important consequences of their (often ignored) underlying normative assumptions. More specifically, we identified the presence of normatively ambiguous concepts, fundamental justifications, and critiques around some central philosophies' normative assumptions, and important central normative contradictions.

Our paper contributes to the literature on SE in three distinct ways. First, by we propose that political philosophy can help to identify what counts as 'social' in SE. Next, we show some of the inherent normative tensions that could dampen its impact. Finally, we propose ways in which a normative awareness would help to establish the basis upon which to evaluate and demonstrate the social, economic, and cultural impact of SE.

3.1.a. The need for normative theories of social enterprise

We have found diverse answers in the literature on "which objectives can legitimately be considered social" (Nicholls and Cho 2008, p. 101), as well as which means (Miller et al. 2012). SE scholars sometimes define the 'social' orientation in opposition to the profit motive. Peredo and McLean (2006) define SE by stating that these enterprises aim at increasing 'social value'; that is, their intention is "to contribute to the welfare or wellbeing in a given human community" (Peredo and McLean 2006, p. 59). They situate different types of SE on a continuum according to the prominence of the social objective or profit motives. The literature on hybridity similarly suggests that business or commercial objectives are in tension with social ends (Doherty et al. 2014). On the other hand, the social mission can also be defined as providing goods and services that address unmet needs (Defourny and Nyssens 2017, p. 2487), foster economic democracy, or address particular social problems like "unemployment, poverty, underdevelopment or handicaps of all kind, among other factors, which may cause marginalization or exclusion" (Defourny 2009, p. xiii). For other authors, SE intervenes to create positive externalities (F. M. Santos 2012) or responds to market failures (Austin et al. 2006).

Regarding means, some SE authors defend the idea of internal democratic participation (Domenico et al. 2010) as essential to the work of organisations, "which involves various parties affected by the activity" (Defourny and Nyssens 2010, p.43). Others suggest that ethics

of care (Mort et al. 2003; W. K. Smith et al. 2012) are needed to sustain the empathy needed for social initiatives. Finally, studies have also explored existing shortcomings in working conditions inside SEs (Jones et al. 2008), revealing ““problematic account[s] of work/life balance centred on extreme self-sacrifice” (Dempsey and Sanders 2010, p. 439).

How might this diversity of social goal and means definitions be explained? We argue in this paper that behind any definition of ‘social’ there is an implicit normative criterion. The word ‘social’ has a positive connotation, and several authors have noted the normative implications behind the definition of SE. For Cho, defining ‘social’ is equivalent to defining what is in the interests of society, which is a political task (Cho 2006, p. 36). Choi and Majumdar similarly highlight that the concept of SE generates value-laden debates (Choi and Majumdar 2014, p. 365). Bull and Ridley-Duff (2018) note that diverse conceptualisations of SE imply various, and under-theorised, political foundations, while Boddice (2011) points to the ideological foundations of the SE movement. Lyon and Sepulveda (2009) also propose that mapping SE empirically requires political choices in interpreting SE. Therefore, to define and discuss SE, we must first build understanding of what these political stances are.

3.1.b. The relevance of political philosophy to the understanding of SE

Moral philosophy focuses on what people may or may not do, while political philosophy debates which of the obligations we have to each other should be enforced through the state (Kymlicka 2002). Consideration of the normative dimension of SE has recently been encouraged in the field of business ethics (Chell et al. 2016), and some attempts made to apply moral theories to SE. For example, André and Pache (2016) make prescriptions about how social entrepreneurs can apply ethics of care. Using moral philosophy concepts to define SE, Tan, Williams and Tan (2005) define the ‘social’ dimensions of SE through the altruistic orientation of the social entrepreneur. Their definition of a social entrepreneur, thus, is a “legal person engaged in the process of entrepreneurship that involve a segment of society with the altruist objective that benefits accrue to that segment of society” (Tan et al. 2005, p. 360).

This kind of definition, based on the intentions of actors and moral principles (altruism, egoism, sense of justice, etc.), is interesting in its identification of different behaviours within SE. However, it is also problematic. First, it is difficult to transpose moral concepts to the

organisational level. We can define what counts as an altruistic individual, but identifying an altruistic organisation is trickier due to difficulty in specifying its 'personal interest'. Second, individual intention is insufficient to judge the rightness of an action or its consequences.

Imagine two fictional cases: in the first, a group of poor cocoa producers start a collective SE to increase their income; and in the second, a student starts an SE and works voluntarily to allow business school students to enjoy car racing. We may describe the intention as collective self-interest in the first case and altruism in the second. However, to judge which organisation has a superior normative value and thus a greater claim to the adjective 'social', a theory of justice is needed. For example, from an egalitarian perspective, the first organisation may be judged as more "social" because its goal is to satisfy the basic needs of poor people, while the second case seeks to satisfy a group's leisure preferences. Furthermore, we have to determine what the person/group is entitled to, in order to distinguish whether giving it away is altruist.

Focusing solely on individual morality leaves key normative questions unanswered: Which segment of society deserves help? How do we know that the actions directed at others are 'good' for them? When is self-interested behaviour legitimate? Political philosophy can provide conceptual tools to answer these kinds of questions. Additionally, political philosophy is needed because SE is supposed to transform the world (Sen 2007) or change social structures (J. Mair and Marti 2006). If we state that SE aims to improve society, we need to know what standard is used. That is why we choose political philosophy here, which focuses on the societal level, rather than moral philosophy.

Political philosophy may also be more able than other approaches like discourse analysis to provide solid theoretical grounds and articulate normative concerns and descriptive theories. Indeed, discourse analysis usually focus on "naturally occurring" normative discourses. These kind of discourses are not always internally coherent because of the complexity of the social life, and do not necessarily include clear justifications for the prescribed behaviours. On the other hand, political philosophy allows discussing deeply the logical coherence of different normative justifications of human institutions. As such, it could provide more solid ground to build rigorous theories of SE.

In our analysis, we use eight schools of thought of western contemporary political philosophy: utilitarianism, liberal egalitarianism, libertarianism, Marxism, communitarianism, citizenship

theory, multiculturalism, and feminism, briefly described in the Appendix A. This typology is based on Will Kymlicka's (2002) book *Contemporary Political Philosophy: An Introduction*, a widely-cited reference in the field. Kymlicka (2002) presents the philosophies underpinning established schools of thought, rather than key debates (Christiano and Christman 2009; Matravers and Pike 2005), subjects (Graham 1982; Solomon and Murphy 1999), or canonical texts or authors (Carter et al. 2007; Goodin and Pettit 2006). Kymlicka focuses on Anglo-Saxon streams of thought which, we suggest, fit with the similar tradition that fuels SE literature (Granados et al. 2011). However, his work is mostly silent on recent moral debates around the environment, the protection of which has increasingly been studied as an important 'social goal'.

3.2. Methodology

In this section, we outline how we used the above philosophies as templates for a content analysis (Seuring and Gold 2012) of the top 100 influential articles on SE. The goal of this research was not to conduct a systematic literature review and compare empirical or theoretical results, as has been done elsewhere (W. Phillips et al. 2015). Our aim was rather to identify the implicit normative assumptions present in the most influential SE research, i.e., our goal is to analyse the SE literature, and not its practice. This approach is in line with previous comparative methodologies such as Boltanski and Thevenot's in *De la justification* (1991), in which they used political philosophies to build their model of different 'worlds' (inspired, domestic, fame, civic, market, and industrial). We first present the data collection process with the database used and the selection criteria, before turning to the coding process and the analysis of our sample of documents.

3.2.a. Database choice

Various database sources that can be used to perform bibliographic analyses: Web of Science, Scopus, Google Scholar, Microsoft Academics, Dimensions, Crossref, COCI, etc. (Harzing 2019; Martín-Martín et al. 2020). Since our study focuses on influential articles, the most important identification criteria were the database's scope and ability to count citations. The databases with broadest coverage are Google Scholar and Microsoft Academics; Web of Science, Scopus, and Dimension have lower coverage of citations, and are quite similar (Martín-Martín et al. 2020).

The second criteria was the accessibility of the database. Extracting data from Google Scholar is difficult (Martín-Martín et al. 2020), Microsoft Academics requires a programming interface, and Web of Science and Scopus require subscriptions, while the basic functions of Dimensions are free. We initially used the WOS database in our first analysis. However, WOS aims specifically to index “high quality” journals, and in the SE field, specialised journals may be excluded from it because of lower impact factors, while they are influential in this emergent field. We thus performed an additional search in the Dimension database.

3.2.b. Sample constitution

The main keywords used in existing literature reviews are “social entrepreneurship”, “social entrepreneur”, “social enterprise”, and “social venture” (Dionisio 2019; Gonçalves et al. 2016; Granados et al. 2011; Hill et al. 2010). We searched the databases using only the keywords “social entrepreneurship” or “social entrepreneur” to focus on the core literature. These keywords were entered in the Institute for Scientific Information Web of Science (ISI WOS) and Dimension databases, and publications were searched for all available years: 1934-2020 for Dimension, and 1975-2020 for WOS. Search characteristics are summarised in Table 6.

TABLE 6 – SAMPLE SELECTION CRITERIA

Database	Web of Science (ISI), all databases	Dimension
Keywords	“social entrepreneurship” OR “social entrepreneur”	
Date of search	October 2020	
Search in	Topic (Title, Abstract, Author Keywords, Keywords Plus®)	Title and abstract
Available years	1975-2020	1934-2020

We exported the top 500 most-cited documents for each database and merged the items present in Dimension, WOS, or both databases into a single excel file. We considered citations as an indicator of a paper’s influence and likelihood of representing some foundations and inspiration for the field. To reliably identify which papers were the most cited, for each paper we added the number of citations calculated by Google Scholar, the database with highest citation coverage (Martín-Martín et al. 2020). We recorded the highest number of citations identified by Dimension, WOS or Google Scholar, and ranked the articles accordingly.

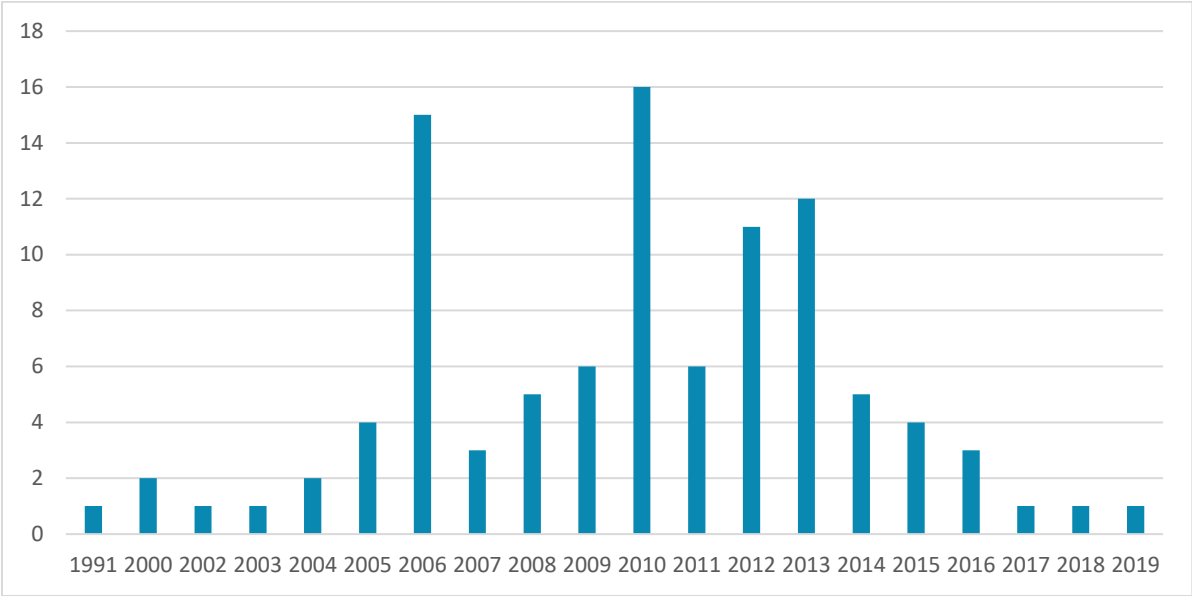
Then, we read the abstracts for the 130 most-cited documents to check their relevance to the SE literature. Both authors discussed doubtful cases, and we made sampling decisions together. We included book chapters, editorial pieces, introductions to special issues, and literature reviews, as these are likely to frame the field and its concepts. Conversely, we excluded articles whose focus was not on SE. For example, the topic was broader (CSR) or narrower (cooperatives). Although papers on teaching SE can be influential, we also considered that their central contribution was on education rather than SE and did not include them. We excluded practitioner-oriented articles because they are more likely to summarise existing ideas than develop new ones.

After excluding irrelevant items, our sample was established with the Top 100 most-cited papers. This final sample contains 93 articles and 7 book chapters (references are available in Appendix B). The most represented outlets are *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practices*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Journal of Business Venturing*, and *Journal of World Business*. The publication dates range from 1991 to 2019.

FIGURE 12 - JOURNALS REPRESENTED IN REVIEWED PUBLICATIONS



FIGURE 13 - NUMBER OF ARTICLES PER YEAR



3.2.c. Data analysis

Our data analysis had three phases. First, we performed a deductive content analysis based on keywords related to the eight philosophies informed by the literature, followed by a qualitative reading of the coded excerpts to confirm the latent coded content. Finally, we conducted an individual document analysis to understand each author’s use of the identified philosophies in their research.

3.2.d. Deductive data coding

The sample documents were listed in the reference management software Zotero and exported with their metadata into the qualitative data analysis software Atlas.Ti 8. Their software readability was verified. We then used a two-step approach to conduct the content analysis, following Seuring and Gold (2012): a deductive coding anchored in theory (here, philosophies) followed by iterative cycles of inductive refinement of the resulting categories. The first step thus aimed to build a coding template based on Kymlicka (2002). For each of the above-detailed political philosophies, we listed all the key ideas and concepts with which they were associated. Then, we selected the more specific ones that were less likely to overlap across different streams. This step was mainly based on our qualitative understanding of the different philosophies. Appendix C presents the initial keywords list.

Next, we used semi-automatic coding based on these keywords (Atlas.Ti 8 auto-coding function). Each time the software identified a keyword in an article, it linked the sentence in which the word was present to the corresponding philosophy. A preliminary reading of the results of the automatic coding led us to refine the keywords by suppressing terms or adding synonyms. For example, the term 'contract' was too general, as it could refer to legal contracts as well as to the philosophical idea of a social contract, thus we kept only the term 'social contract'.

We also split each philosophy into categories of keywords. For example, we iteratively refined the utilitarian category because the keywords 'maximisation' and 'efficiency' present in the utilitarian codes covered multiple ideas. To deepen the validity of our philosophical keywords, we engaged two experts in political philosophy to confirm the soundness of our choice of philosophical schools. Appendix D lists the final automatic coding request entered into the software for each philosophy.

3.2.e. Qualitative reading

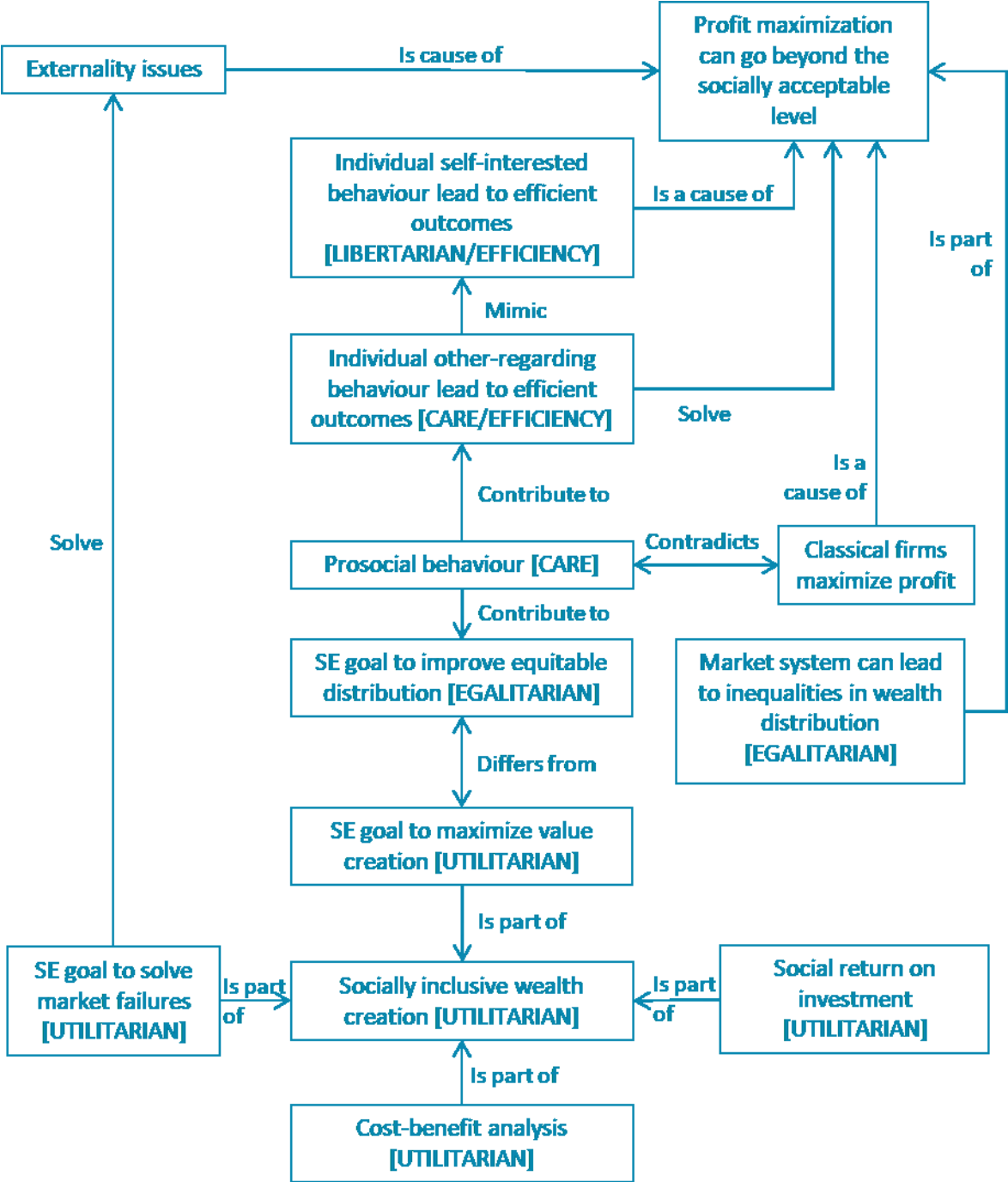
For each automatic coding, we then conducted a qualitative analysis of the content of the coded sentences, because the philosophical ideas in the papers constitute latent content (Potter and Levine-Donnerstein 1999) requiring interpretation. The keyword search was useful for identifying relevant fragments of text, but a qualitative reading was necessary to confirm correspondence to a particular philosophy.

To increase the consistency of the results, both authors undertook independent coding on 10% of the coded sentences, compared findings, and discussed divergences. We read every code, referring to the full text when context was necessary, and split each category into themes using Atlas.Ti. We excluded quotations unrelated to philosophical concepts (e.g., energy efficiency in the theme of efficiency), and sentences not directly concerning SE (e.g., participatory municipal budgets in the citizenship category, gender control variables for the feminist category). We also recoded some sentences into more appropriate categories; for example, the idea of social ownership initially appeared in the libertarian category 'property rights', but was a closer match for the democratic philosophy category, as collective ownership is a tool for democratic governance.

3.2.f. Document analysis

The coding process took ideas as units of analysis and linked them to different philosophies. However, the coded fragment of text may not represent the author's own views. For instance, fragments may be sentences presenting another scholar's ideas, empirical results, or critiques. We thus conducted an additional step of analysis to study how different philosophies coexist within the same piece of research, using Atlas.Ti 9's semantic network function. A network was built for each document to map the codes present and their relationship (see, for example the figure below). Based on the semantic networks, we coded each paper depending on the presence/absence of each idea as "pro", "cons", "neutral", "instrumental" or "empirical". When the paper argument was critical, for example defending a certain vision of SE against another, we coded the opposed ideas as "pro" and "cons". For example, the sentence "[SE] are more than just tools for achieving the most efficient and effective mode of service delivery; they are also important vehicles for creating and maintaining a strong civil society." (Eikenberry and Kluver 2004, p. 136) led to code "cons/efficiency" and "pro/citizenship" because it criticizes what is judged as an excessive focus on efficiency. Similarly, when something was presented as good, useful, or efficient it was coded as "pro". For example, the sentence "market orientation can imply the employment of commercial activities directly linked to the social mission to ensure the most effective and efficient distribution of social services and products" (Choi and Majumdar 2014, p. 368) led to codes "pro/libertarian" (pro market) and "neutral/efficiency". Occurrences of case descriptions or informant quotes were coded as "empirical". Finally, we coded ideas presented as just a mean to get resources (e.g. democratic organising being a way to gain legitimacy) as "instrumental". In case of *a priori* contradictory ideas within the same text, the final coding was based on a deeper analysis of the main paper's arguments, identified through its semantic network. This coding allowed us to build a table summarising the global presence/absence of different philosophies in each document, and to establish a global overview of the ideas present in the literature. With this table, we identified philosophical tensions within each document and across the sample in general.

FIGURE 14 - EXCERPT OF SEMANTIC NETWORK BASED ON SANTOS 2012 (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



3.3. Findings: normative debates, contradictions, and ambiguity

Our results enabled the identification of the presence or absence of keys ideas from different political philosophies in the reviewed articles. Most papers do not take a clear normative stance, but many use ideas that can be linked to specific philosophies. In this section, we first present the philosophies underlying SE literature and their respective normative ideas in order of representation. Next, we introduce the normatively ambiguous concepts that are transversally employed by authors from different philosophical perspectives in the literature. Then, we explore the justifications and critiques around some central philosophies identified in the reviewed papers. Finally, we underline the central normative contradictions found in the literature.

3.3.a. Main philosophy-related themes

The most represented philosophies in the SE literature are Libertarianism, Citizenship/democracy, Egalitarianism, Communitarianism, and Utilitarianism. Table 7 below summarises the different implicit philosophies in the social enterprise literature and associated verbatim, and Figure 15 shows the number of papers presenting at least one occurrence of a theme.

TABLE 7 – UNDERLYING PHILOSOPHIES IN THE SOCIAL ENTERPRISE LITERATURE

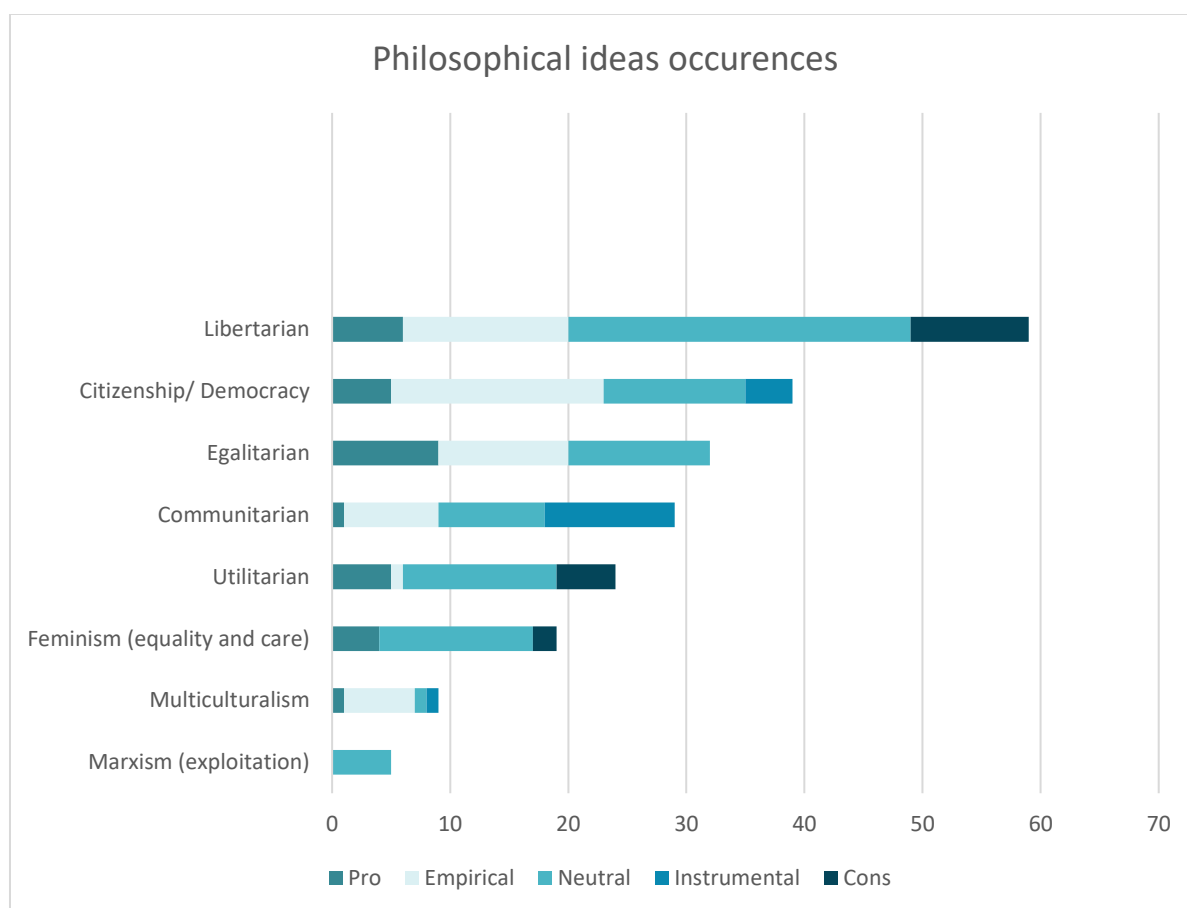
	Philosophical ideas	Application to social enterprises	Quotation
Libertarianism	Favour free market against state intervention and welfare programs	Welfare state withdrawal and marketisation trend	[Right-wing think tanks] goal was based on making the world free for unfettered global capitalism, dismantling public services and welfare states (Fowler 2000, p.643)
	Value property rights	Lacking property rights prevents market participation	"What we observe in developing countries is that institutional arrangements that support markets are either absent or weak and often the pervasiveness of constraining institutions impedes full market participation" (Mair 2009, p.420)

	Property rights are favourable to entrepreneurship	Strong property rights promote commercial entrepreneurial entry [...], enabling predictable and fair exchange and permitting the appropriation of the economic value created. But individual agency lies at the heart of all entrepreneurship, so social as well as commercial entrepreneurship are hampered by lack of predictability or even intimidation by those in power. (Estrin 2012, p.483)
Citizenship	SE has democracy goals	"a democratic control and/or a participatory involvement of stakeholders reflect the quest for more economic democracy, in the tradition of cooperatives." (Defourny 2010, p.49)
	Improve democracy	"[SE] adoption of "social ownership" structures implies that the process of entrepreneurship may be motivated by different factors and organized in structures which challenge and question the position, ownership and authority of a lead entrepreneur." (Shaw and Carter 2007, p.421)
	The "virtues" of citizens should be enhanced	SE aim to improve "citizenship" behaviours
Liberal egalitarianism	Focus on primary goods and rights like liberty, opportunity, income, wealth...	"Green Belt Movement : Build local capacity: Use tree-planting and civic education programs to build local skills and organization for self-help activities." (Alvord 2004, p.268)
	These goods and rights should be distributed equally	SE adress basic social needs and rights
Communitarianism	Inequalities should be adressed	"most social missions are focused on basic and long-standing societal problems and needs such as poverty, hunger, unclean water, unemployment, transportation, education, human rights, etc." (Lumpkin et Al 2011, p.764)
	Social unity is necessary to realize solidary and act collectively	SE rely on social capital, cooperation and collective action
		[SE] may privilege addressing symptoms over resolving more fundamental root causes, such as social inequality, political exclusion and cultural marginalization. (Cho 2006, p.51)
		"The presence of such bounded solidarity in a community is likely to influence SEOs to adopt a collective action approach." (Seelos et Al 2011, p.12)

Utilitarianism	Human welfare is the aggregation of utilities (peoples' pleasure or preferences).	SE contribute to improvement in social welfare	"To us, "total wealth," has tangible (e.g., products, clients served, or funds generated) and intangible outcomes such as wealth, happiness and general well-being. Thus, Total Wealth (TW)=Economic Wealth (EW)+Social Wealth (SW)." (Zahra et Al 2009, p.522)
	The "rightness" is judged by the consequences in terms of human welfare improvement	The success of SE is judged by its "impact" on society	"Social value maximization as a motivational goal implies the social entrepreneur attempts to maximize the social welfare of others without diminishing any individual's utility" (Townsend and Hart 2008, p.688)
	Consequences are evaluated with cost/benefit calculation	SE impacts are evaluated with cost/benefit analysis	"If we take seriously the notion that there is no dichotomy between social and economic value, then we need reliable ways of measuring the value to society created by different economic activities. Although this may seem a challenging task, it is not much different from the need to build detailed actuarial tables [...] or detailed methodologies for cost/benefit analysis for public investment projects." (Santos 2012, p.349)
Feminism	Consideration of women's interests and gender equality	SE targeting women and working for gender equality	"Further comparative studies are needed on how the organizational structures of women-founded enterprises are influenced by the gender-focused objectives of the organization" (Datta and Gailey 2012, p.578)
	The ethic of care focuses on the development of moral qualities	Study of empathy and prosocial reasoning as antecedents of SE	"The emotional connection of compassion can result in a moral outrage that facilitates a goal of removing sources of suffering that are judged to be unfair, and it motivates commitment until the problem is resolved" (Miller et al 2012, p.622)
Multiculturalism	Minorities should be protected from external cultural domination	SE contribute to preserve indigenous cultures and values	"It is these ends that make their activities social entrepreneurship. Some of these ends included the creation of employment with characteristics that 'fit' the interest, capabilities, and preferred lifestyles of community members." (Anderson et al, p.46)
	Individuals should be protected from their social groups if the group restrain individual's rights	SE can disrupt existing social norms to improve the condition of specific populations (notably women)	"Recent studies detail how BRAC's engagement with poor women in local communities in rural Bangladesh helped to overcome traditional stifling norms that prevented women's participation in economic life" (Seelos et al, p.8)

Marxism	SE can lead to the self-sacrifice of the entrepreneurs	"Although many individuals find nonprofit work liberating, there exists a need to explore how and when nonprofit work might be oppressive, including how the language of the calling naturalizes long hours and low wages." (Dempsey and Sanders 2010, p.440)
	People should self-realize at work	
	Worker being beneficiaries of social enterprises can also feel/be exploited	"When Digital Divide Data emphasized its social mission in marketing materials on the company website, employees, who are the main beneficiaries of this mission, responded with accusations of exploitation." (Smith et al 2013, p.413)

FIGURE 15 – NUMBER OF PAPERS CONTAINING AT LEAST ONE OCCURRENCE OF A GIVEN PHILOSOPHICAL THEME



Reading: 39 paper mentioned at least once democracy-related ideas, 5 did it in a positive way, 18 through empirical examples, 12 in neutral terms and 4 in an instrumental way. (A paper can discuss several ideas but each paper is counted once for each philosophy, depending the main stance it take on it).

Libertarianism: market and property rights

Libertarianism is associated with a defence of free market and limited state intervention. These ideas represent the socioeconomic context of SE well. Several authors note that the emergence of social enterprises is linked to a marketisation trend in the social sector. In several states there has been a shift in funding from subsidies to procurement contracts (Bull 2008; Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Miller et al. 2012; Nicholls 2009), and/or welfare state withdrawal (Eikenberry and Kluver 2004; Lehner 2013; Mort et al. 2003; Roper and Cheney 2005).

Different manifestations of SE reflect variations in welfare states' situations (Chell et al. 2010), and the diversity of national contexts have led SE scholars to study how configurations of government (in)action and institutional infrastructure influence engagement in SE (Estrin et al. 2013; Stephan et al. 2015). In government action, the enforcement of contracts and property rights is the minimal state intervention, as accepted by libertarians. Several SE scholar mention these functions (Santos 2012; Stephan et al. 2015), that are deemed necessary for the emergence of classical enterprise as well as SE (Estrin et al. 2013).

Weak property rights enforcement can be seen as detrimental to innovation in the case of intellectual property (Bradley et al. 2012; Desa 2012), or as aggravating the conditions of poor populations. Weak property rights can, for example, prevent people from making use of their capital – for instance, by using their home as collateral for a loan (Bradley et al. 2012). Mair and Marti (2009) examine how these “institutional voids” prevent participation in markets, and how SEs evolve in this context. As libertarians defend the rightful acquisition of property rights, indigenous claims to ownership of colonized land (Anderson et al. 2006) may also be compatible with this philosophy.

Citizenship: democratic goals and means

A first view of citizenship is to conceptualise it as comprising rights (civil rights, political rights, social rights, etc.) (Kymlicka 2002, p. 287). We will see in the Egalitarianism section that SE can aim to improve these rights. But, citizenship theory also focuses on the more active roles that citizens should take in order to maintain a functioning democracy, and there are examples of SE contributing to civic education and emancipation (Alvord et al. 2004; Parkinson and Howorth 2008; F. M. Santos 2012). One virtue or responsibility of citizens as defined in

citizenship theories is to monitor elected officials (Kymlicka 2002, p. 289). Non-profit organisations are considered to be important vehicles for this type of civic participation by facilitating the expression its constituencies' voices (Eikenberry and Kluver 2004), and the ability of SEs to take similar roles is discussed.

Citizenship theories consider that state democratic structures alone are not sufficient for an active democracy, and more deliberative forms of democracy are needed where voting is not the only way for citizens to participate (Kymlicka 2002, p. 292). Establishing democratic structures in the economic sphere - where they are not the norm - can be an objective for a social enterprise. Indeed, some definitions of SE include this notion of participative and democratic structures (Anderson et al. 2006; Bull 2008; Chell et al. 2010; Hockerts 2017; Parkinson and Howorth 2008; Perrini and Vurro 2006; Roper and Cheney 2005), and emphasise the inclusion of various stakeholders in SE governance or other participation channels (Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Di Domenico et al. 2010; Hill et al. 2010). Democracy is also seen as a source of legitimacy (Smith, Gonin, & Besharov, 2013).

Democratic governance can be transposed into particular legal statutes, leading to property rights structures other than investor-owned firms. Empirically, this "social ownership" (Shaw and Carter 2007) notably takes the form of cooperatives (Corner and Ho 2010; Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Spear 2006; Thompson and Doherty 2006). The goal of building alternative democratic structures like cooperatives is thus associated with the broader aim to improve economic democracy (Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Parkinson and Howorth 2008).

In this context, the "monitoring" role of citizens can apply at the social enterprise level rather than the state level: democratic governance and members' participation can be understood as a mode of control and accountability (Nicholls 2010a). Some SE scholars show concern for deliberative democracy. Because the "social goals" of social enterprises are value-laden and potentially contested (Choi and Majumdar 2014; Sharir and Lerner 2006; Sud et al. 2009), they argue that their definition should remain eclectic (Dey and Steyaert 2010) and be subject to deliberation (Cho 2006).

Liberal egalitarianism: basic rights and needs

Egalitarian philosophies use concepts like *primary goods*, rights, or capabilities. Many SE scholars echo this, arguing that the goal of SE is to satisfy unmet social, basic, or human needs

(Bacq and Janssen 2011; Haugh 2005; Lepoutre et al. 2013, 2013; J. Mair and Marti 2006; Nga and Shamuganathan 2010; Weerawardena and Mort 2006). Basic needs include, for example, freedom, equality, tolerance, and quality of life (Murphy and Coombes 2009), and food, water, shelter, education, and medical services (F. M. Santos 2012). Several researchers give examples of social enterprises supporting civil rights groups (Alvord et al. 2004), or developing human rights programs (Desa 2012; Johanna Mair and Marti 2009; Meyskens et al. 2010; Sharir and Lerner 2006). The explicitly egalitarian capability approach put forth by Amartya Sen is also directly referenced in some articles (Ansari et al. 2012; Bradley et al. 2012). Egalitarians also argue that *primary goods*, rights, or capabilities should be distributed equally, and similar concern for (in)equality of opportunities or wealth distribution was found (Cho 2006; Kraus et al. 2014; Shaw and de Bruin 2013) in our sample publications.

Communitarianism: solidarity and social capital

Communitarian philosophy argues for greater focus on communities. It explores the shared identity, trust, and solidarity among people that is necessary to form a legitimate and stable “ethical community” in which collective decisions are accepted (Kymlicka 2002, p. 257). In the SE context, communities can be included as partners (Ansari et al. 2012), target constituencies (Johanna Mair et al. 2012), or can themselves be entrepreneurial (Hall et al. 2012).

Some authors explore the collective action dynamics within and around SE to solve social problems (Dorado and Ventresca 2013; Fowler 2000; Waddock and Post 1991). They explore how close networks, shared identity (Dorado and Ventresca 2013; Seelos et al. 2011), common interests, and shared goals (Bacq and Janssen 2011; Dorado and Ventresca 2013; Waddock and Post 1991) can be necessary for the emergence of SE through collective action processes within communities.

Nicholls identified among social entrepreneurs an institutional logic focusing on community, networks, and cooperative action (Nicholls 2010a) in line with communitarianism. Mair et al. (2012) also noted that in relying on social capital, SEs tend to follow Boltanski and Thevenot’s “civic” order of worth, suggesting some links between communitarian and citizenship themes. Indeed, some authors note that non-profit organisations contribute to generating the social capital needed in democratic societies (Eikenberry and Kluver 2004), and boost community cohesion (Di Domenico et al. 2010; F. M. Santos 2012). Other scholars explore the role of

communities from a more instrumental perspective by studying how SE uses social networks to gain advantages such as bargaining power (Perrini et al. 2010), resources (Di Domenico et al. 2010; Moore and Westley 2011; B. R. Smith and Stevens 2010), capabilities (Nga and Shamuganathan 2010), or legitimacy and reputation (Nga and Shamuganathan 2010).

Utilitarianism: maximisation of human welfare

The main idea of utilitarianism is to maximise human welfare, which it conceptualises as the aggregation of utilities (peoples' pleasure or preferences). Zahra et al. rely implicitly on utilitarianism by proposing to evaluate social ventures' performance according to the 'total wealth' they create (Zahra, et al., 2009, p. 522). Santos defines social welfare by the aggregation of individual utility (F. M. Santos 2012, p. 337). Townsend and Hart also offer a Paretian¹ definition of the 'social goal' of SE : the maximisation of social welfare without diminishing any individual's utility (2008, p. 688).

Some argue that SE focuses on value creation over value capture (Mair & Marti, 2006; Santos, 2012). The 'value' here may imply 'utility'. As mentioned by Zahra, classical economic approaches use profit as a proxy for utility creation, but it is difficult to use this metric to measure the utility created by non-profit social enterprises (Zahra et al. 2008). Some methodologies have, however, been proposed to evaluate the "value" (utility) created by social enterprises; these include cost-benefit analyses assessing the efficiency of social value creation (Santos 2012), and the Social Return on Investment (SROI) (Nicholls 2009). By summing the costs and benefits created by SE, these methods typically adopt a utilitarian approach.

¹A Pareto optimal allocation of resources is one in which it is impossible to reallocate resources to make someone better off without making someone else worse off, where 'better off' means gaining utility or satisfying more preferences. Pareto optimality is a necessary (but not sufficient) condition of a utilitarian criterion. Since Paretianism focuses on utility rather than rights or freedom (Sen 1979), we categorise references to market (Pareto) efficiency as a utilitarian idea.

Feminism: gender equality and care

Feminist perspectives are diverse, but all focus on women's interests, which have often been overlooked by mainstream political philosophies. Empirically, gender equality programs are a well-represented example of SE action. Social enterprises can aim to address gender inequalities (Kistruck and Beamish 2010; Murphy and Coombes 2009; Seelos et al. 2011; Zahra et al. 2009), improve women's rights (Johanna Mair and Marti 2009), empower women (Datta and Gailey 2012; Hayhurst 2014; Saebi et al. 2019), or target them specifically (Littlewood and Holt 2018; Johanna Mair et al. 2012; Sharir and Lerner 2006; Short et al. 2009).

Feminist approaches also led to the formulation of ethics of care by taking inspiration from "feminine" moral reasoning. The ethics of care is concerned with what qualities people should have to act morally, rather than by defining the best moral principles. This approach echoes that of SE scholars investigating the qualities of SE founders. Authors note that social entrepreneurs should show virtues such as "love, integrity, honesty and empathy," (Mort et al. 2003, p. 83), have an ethics of care (Smith et al., 2013), or be altruist (Dempsey and Sanders 2010; Tan et al. 2005). In the study of SE's antecedents, scholars cite moral qualities such as compassion, emotions, and prosocial motivations (Miller et al. 2012), empathy and moral judgement (Bradley et al. 2012; Hockerts 2017; Johanna Mair and Noboa 2006; Saebi et al. 2019; Zahra et al. 2008), and prosocial identity and personality (Miller et al. 2012; Saebi et al. 2019).

Multiculturalism: cultural preservation and norms

Multiculturalism has common ground with communitarianism, with a focus on cultural injustice. Multiculturalism questions how cultural minorities can be protected from external pressures of wider society to preserve their way of life, and asks how far a community can constrain its members to follow specific rules. These two questions are present in SE literature.

First, we find examples of SE aiming to preserve specific cultures and ways of life. For example, socially responsible tourism is described as a way to preserve cultural diversity in the world (Hall et al. 2012). Additionally, Anderson et al. (2006) describe SE by indigenous people as a way to improve their socioeconomic conditions while maintaining their traditional values.

On another hand, the tension between community rules and individual freedoms also exists in the SE context (B. R. Smith and Stevens 2010). SE actions can disrupt existing social

structures and norms; some authors see this as negative (Ansari et al. 2012) because it can disrupt the bonds of solidarity within existing communities (Dey and Steyaert 2010), and give primacy to indigenous values (Anderson et al. 2006; Fowler 2000). Others see the disruption of some social norms as positive; for example, when the change enables the participation of women (Alvord et al. 2004; Johanna Mair and Marti 2009; Seelos et al. 2011). In this context, multiculturalist philosophies help to discuss which cultural norms should or should not be preserved.

Marxism: exploitation and self-realisation

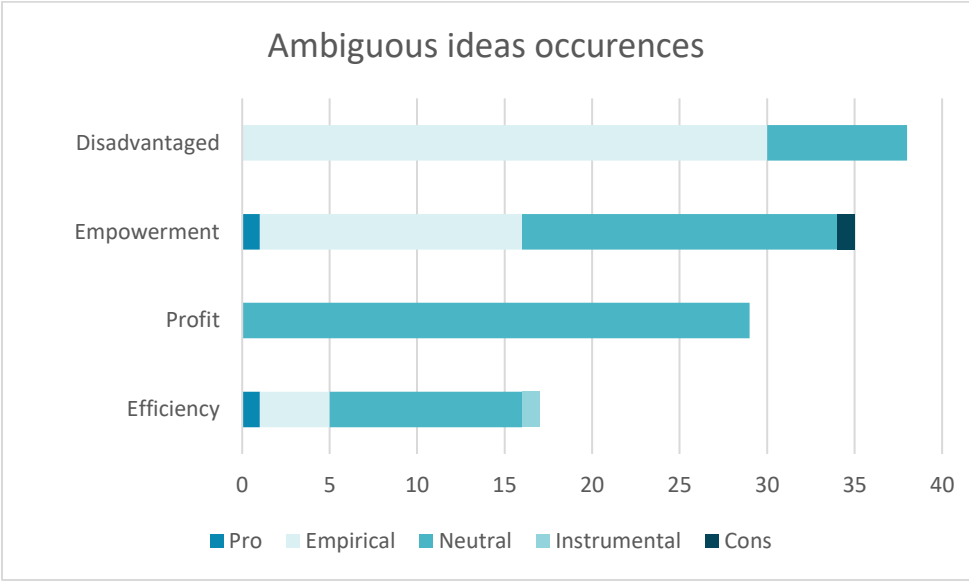
Marxists denounce exploitation and alienation, and value self-realisation in work as a goal. One study presents an example of a social entrepreneur being explicitly informed about Marxism (Jones et al. 2008), but globally, few articles in the present sample expound Marxist ideas, and those which do mainly discuss questions of working conditions within SEs.

Dempsey and Sanders (2010) note that people working in non-profits have high life satisfaction, but question “how and when non-profit work might be oppressive” (Dempsey and Sanders 2010, p. 440). Work in social organisations is associated with low pay (Dempsey and Sanders 2010; Jones et al. 2008), which can either be criticised, or justified as an expression of solidarity with the beneficiaries (J. Dees 2012). However, beneficiaries can also be employed themselves, and social enterprises may face tensions between improving their workers’ wellbeing or meeting other, conflicting goals (W. K. Smith et al. 2013). As a consequence, the literature contains examples of SE exploiting its workers (Littlewood and Holt 2018; W. K. Smith et al. 2013) or participants in ‘Bottom of the Pyramid’ programs expressing feeling like “guinea pigs” for big companies (Ansari et al. 2012).

3.3.b. Normatively ambiguous ideas

In our analysis, we have identified the concepts that permeate various different philosophies in the SE literature. Therefore, their use creates ambiguity since they are attributed with different, sometimes contradictory, normative perspectives. While the ambiguous use of concepts might not be clear in every paper, our work has allowed us to unravel the issue at the SE domain level, and to identify the central controverted elements of disadvantagedness, empowerment, profit, and efficiency.

FIGURE 16 – NUMBER OF PAPERS CONTAINING AT LEAST ONE OCCURRENCE OF A GIVEN PHILOSOPHICAL THEME.



Reading: 39 paper mentioned at least once “empowerment”, 1 did it in a positive way, 15 through empirical examples, 18 in neutral terms and 1 in a critical way. (A paper can discuss several ideas but each paper is counted once for each category of idea, depending the main stance it take on it).

Disadvantagedness

We found many definitions or empirical examples describing SE as helping disadvantaged people (Di Domenico et al. 2010; Nicholls 2010b; Seelos et al. 2011; W. K. Smith et al. 2013; Stephan et al. 2015; Tracey et al. 2011; Waddock and Post 1991; Weerawardena et al. 2010; Weerawardena and Mort 2006). More specifically, this can concern disabled people or groups (Desa and Basu 2013; Hockerts 2006; Littlewood and Holt 2018; Nicholls 2010b; Sharir and Lerner 2006; Tan et al. 2005; Weerawardena et al. 2010), or poor populations (Corner and Ho 2010; Saebi et al. 2019; Shaw and Carter 2007; W. K. Smith et al. 2012, 2013). Disadvantaged target populations also include minorities (Robinson 2006; Sharir and Lerner 2006) such as migrants (Meyskens et al. 2010; W. K. Smith et al. 2013; Townsend and Hart 2008) and refugees (Corner and Ho 2010).

The moral justification for why disadvantaged people deserve attention from SE, or the empirical explanation for why they get more attention, is ambiguous in the literature. The question of disadvantage originally comes from our egalitarian keywords, associated with Rawls’ principles arguing that natural and social inequalities are undeserved, and that the disadvantaged should thus be compensated (Kymlicka 2002, p. 72). But, other justifications

are possible. From an ethics of care perspective, disadvantaged people's suffering may generate more caring responses because vulnerable populations generate empathy (J. Dees 2012).

From a utilitarian perspective, Santo argues that helping the disadvantaged is not the only role of SE: "efforts to help advantaged populations may also constitute SE, as long as it involves addressing problems with positive externalities with a dominant goal of value creation" (F. M. Santos 2012, p. 343). This is consistent with a goal to maximise aggregated utility. However, focusing on disadvantaged people can also be justified from a utilitarian perspective via the assumption of decreasing marginal utility. "People who lack resources will, in general, get more utility out of each additional resource than those who already have many resources" (Kymlicka 2002, p. 40), so serving disadvantaged people may increase total utility more than serving more affluent customers.

Empowerment

Some scholars describe individual or collective entrepreneurship as a means of empowerment (Datta and Gailey 2012; Sharir and Lerner 2006). The concept of empowerment can be interpreted in different ways. The (contested) libertarian interpretation focuses on market participation. Hayhurst (2014) criticises the neoliberal empowerment narrative in which empowerment is market-based, and which sees individuals as responsible for being good wealth producers. Similarly, Ansari et al. (2012) mention that 'Bottom of the Pyramid' literature is focused on employment and consumption as an empowerment solution, but argue instead for a capability-based approach to empowerment.

The empowerment process may include improving one's economic situation (Datta and Gailey 2012; Hayhurst 2014), accessing resources (Datta and Gailey 2012) or mobilise underused ones (F. M. Santos 2012), and improving assets and/or capabilities (Johanna Mair and Marti 2009; F. M. Santos 2012), skills, and confidence (Estrin et al. 2013; Hayhurst 2014). Empowerment also includes some citizenship and democracy themes such as gaining political capital (Johanna Mair et al. 2012), giving a voice to people (Johanna Mair and Marti 2009), enabling participation in the public sphere (Cho 2006; Datta and Gailey 2012), and boosting the capacity to face powerful adversaries (Alvord et al. 2004) and elites (Johanna Mair and Marti 2009). From a feminist perspective, it is also important to note that empowerment may

include the ability to contribute to the family and to make decisions in the household (Datta and Gailey 2012).

Ultimately, empowerment is also described as the ability to make choices and transform action in outcomes (F. M. Santos 2012). This includes agency and control over one's decision (Datta and Gailey 2012) and/or responsibility for, and control over, one's life (Hayhurst 2014; Thompson et al. 2000). This question of agency is associated with entrepreneurial behaviour itself (Datta and Gailey 2012) and the process of turning ideas into reality (Bacq and Janssen 2011). Some authors therefore describe empowerment as the involvement of stakeholders, communities, and beneficiaries in the process of solving their own problems (Chell et al. 2010; F. M. Santos 2012; Zahra et al. 2014).

Profit

The literature suggests a continuum in engagement in profit maximisation versus social goals (Stevens et al. 2015). Many definitions of SE mention that its goal is not to maximise profit (Bacq and Janssen 2011; M. T. Dacin et al. 2011; P. A. Dacin et al. 2010; Dempsey and Sanders 2010; Littlewood and Holt 2018; Rivera-Santos et al. 2015; Shaw and Carter 2007; W. K. Smith et al. 2013; Tan et al. 2005; Townsend and Hart 2008; Zahra et al. 2009), as per the UK government's definition (Bull 2008; Chell 2007; Nicholls 2010b; Tracey et al. 2011). A similar but more nuanced perspective suggests that there is simply no overemphasis on shareholders' wealth maximisation (Nga and Shamuganathan 2010), that profit and wealth are means rather than ends (Perrini and Vurro 2006), and that SE aims to survive in the market without maximising economic value (W. K. Smith et al. 2012; Wilson and Post 2013).

At the other end of the spectrum, SE scholars discuss the full compatibility between "social" and profit objectives. Some suggest that business revenue generation methods can be used for social purposes (Peredo and McLean 2006), while others discuss double/triple bottom line and 'win-win' arguments regarding the compatibility between social and profit objectives (Hill et al. 2010; Lepoutre et al. 2013; F. M. Santos 2012; Townsend and Hart 2008), and entrepreneurs trying to maximise both profit and social change (M. T. Dacin et al. 2011). The 'Bottom of the Pyramid' approach reflects this stance by arguing that poverty eradication is reconcilable with a profit-maximising objective within an enterprise-based market system (Ansari et al. 2012).

These divergent perspectives on profit can be explained by their different philosophical foundations. From a libertarian view, the profit-making goal is legitimate in a stakeholder-owned firm since the owners should be free to use their property as they wish (this is in essence Milton Friedman's oft-cited argument about firms' responsibility to make profits). From a utilitarian perspective this can be legitimate too as long as it also supports global wealth improvement (this may, for example, fit the 'inclusive growth' paradigm). However, perspectives advocating using profits to benefit the disadvantaged (Calic and Mosakowski 2016) may instead fit the egalitarian perspective where profit distribution to stockholders may be seen as illegitimate. Indeed, if stockholders are already wealthier than the targeted beneficiaries, dividend distribution may increase inequality.

Efficiency

The efficiency principle, present in SE discourses, has been studied through Boltanski and Thevenot industrial order of worth (Johanna Mair et al. 2012), the "business" meta-narrative used in SE rhetorical strategies (Ruebottom 2013), and the semantic repertoire of social entrepreneurs (Dey and Steyaert 2010; Jones et al. 2008). Moreover, some SE scholars worry that efficiency discourses disarm radical and critical approaches (Cho 2006; Parkinson and Howorth 2008). In our analysis, the question of efficiency was originally included in the utilitarian category; however, utilitarianism is not the only philosophy with concern for efficiency (A. Sen 2001), and this theme remains ambiguous in the SE literature in terms of normative anchorage.

SE scholars discuss the divergence of views about the most efficient means to solve social problems (Miller et al. 2012) and which organisational form is the most efficient (Kistruck and Beamish 2010; Wilson and Post 2013). But, we may ask: efficient to do what? In our sample, authors discuss how social enterprise can be sufficiently effective and efficient to serve basic needs (Austin et al. 2006; Seelos and Mair 2005), solve market failures (B. R. Smith and Stevens 2010), deliver services and products (Choi and Majumdar 2014; Miller et al. 2012), and increase global sustainable well-being (Zahra et al. 2014).

As we have seen in the previous sections, different finalities can be related to different philosophies, and efficiency in solving market failures may differ from efficiency in catering for basic needs, or improving equality or democracy. Regardless of the philosophical anchorage,

efficiency arguments should also be supported by causal connections (A. Sen 2001, p. 147). In facing the efficiency question, SE scholars should be more precise about the targeted outcomes, and look for empirical evidence supporting efficiency claims.

3.3.c. Justifications and critique

Through the qualitative analysis of the normative basis of the reviewed papers, we could establish how different philosophies were evaluated by the scholars, and by looking at pro/cons analysis in each paper, we identified debates in the field of SE around some philosophical normative perspectives. In this sub-section, we delineate the main arguments around each of the most criticised philosophies - libertarianism, utilitarianism, and feminism (ethics of care) – as found in the SE literature.

... of Libertarianism

As has been discussed, libertarianism is in favour of free markets. The SE literature is controversial regarding market solutions. Being commercial, trading, contracting or market-oriented is in some cases part of the very definition of SE (Choi and Majumdar 2014; Haugh 2005), or among the empirical examples (Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Di Domenico et al. 2010). We found some justifications of commercial solutions, as making people pay may “empower them to complain” (J. Dees 2012), decentralised commercial action may be an efficient solution to social problems (Estrin et al. 2013; F. M. Santos 2012), and the presence of social enterprises in the market may pressure classical businesses to change practices (Wilson and Post 2013).

As a result, some argue it is possible to achieve ‘positive social impact’ and profit at the same time in a market system (Wilson and Post 2013, p. 729). The general idea is well summarised by Kofi Annan, quoted at the end of Wilson and Post’s article:

“Let us choose to unite the power of markets with the strength of universal ideals. Let us choose to reconcile the creative forces of private entrepreneurship with the needs of the disadvantaged and the requirements of future generations.” (Kofi Annan, cited by Wilson and Post 2013, p. 730)

Within classical firm theory, utilitarian philosophy usually fits well with market solutions (and thus libertarian ideas) because classical economics predicts that perfect market competition

and its 'invisible hand' will lead to efficient outcomes and maximal social welfare (Nga and Shamuganathan 2010; F. M. Santos 2012). However, market failures can occur in cases of public goods provision (Nga and Shamuganathan 2010), externalities, information asymmetries, principal-agent problems, etc. For some authors, solving market failures (Austin et al. 2006, p. 2; Desa and Basu 2013, p. 27) or producing positive externalities (F. M. Santos 2012) is thus the distinctive domain of SE.

However, the market orientation seems in tension with the "social" goals of SE (W. K. Smith et al. 2013), and several papers are overtly critical of market-based solutions. Political philosophy can help in understanding the standpoints of these critiques. First, in the democracy critique, marketisation is described as threatening civil society and democracy (Eikenberry and Kluver 2004; Fowler 2000). Second, from the utilitarian perspective, it is paradoxical to "solve market failures" with market-based solutions. As Santos (2012) notes, if SE "are indeed tackling areas of neglected externalities, market-based mechanisms may not be the most efficient form of economic organization to address them." (p. 345). Finally, from the egalitarian standpoint, market competition does not solve inequalities (Hall et al. 2012; F. M. Santos 2012), and neoliberal approaches focusing on individual responsibility do not fix the structure of society, thus creating marginalisation (Hayhurst 2014).

... of Utilitarianism

While we showed in the previous sections that some authors endorse a utilitarian approach to SE, others define social enterprises in opposition to it. For example, Cho (2006) argues that the social dimension of SE cannot fit a utilitarian framework because SE is opposed to the for-profit model, thus implying a definition of the social good "irreducible to and greater than the sum total of individual welfare functions" (Cho 2006, p. 37). Stevens et al. (2015) also oppose the "utilitarian" organisational identity of SE – including economic rationality, maximisation of profits, and self-interest – with the "normative" identity associated with social mission, traditions and symbols, ideology, and altruism (Stevens et al. 2015).

Others also criticise the discursive shift "from democratic structures to a focus on social purpose" (Parkinson and Howorth 2008, p. 291). This shift pushes policymakers to assess social enterprises on their results rather than on their operating methods (Eikenberry and

Kluver 2004). Furthermore, this shift could be interpreted as a transition from democratic concerns towards more utilitarian judgements.

... of Feminism (ethics of care)

In the sample papers, discussions around caring behaviours mainly concern efficiency issues. SE scholars worry that compassion and empathy may prevent entrepreneurs from identifying the right social problems (J. Dees 2012) or its solutions (Miller et al. 2012), and that affective commitment may be detrimental to the start-up process (Renko 2013). Others wonder what would happen if the social entrepreneur is not virtuous enough (Zahra et al. 2009). Dees (2012) also mentions that, since charities are led by compassion, they may worry less about being efficient. Austin et al. (2006) declare that SE can survive without being efficient in the absence of market forces sanctioning or rewarding performance

In response, we find an emerging composite argument associating ideas of efficient markets (utilitarian-libertarian), and philanthropy (care) through 'philanthropic markets' (Austin et al. 2006) and 'social return on investment'.. Financial investors might trade some profit for social value creation (Nga and Shamuganathan 2010) or respect for social norms (Townsend and Hart 2008). Social impact measurement and reporting may thus help to build an "information rich" market (Nicholls 2009, p. 766) in which the "invisible hand of distributed other-regarding action" can generate efficient outcomes (F. M. Santos 2012). This emerging argument making the case for philanthropic efficiency is, however, incomplete without clarity on which social outcomes these markets are aiming for, and stronger theoretical arguments explain how this could work.

3.3.d. Tensions and contradictions

Our in-depth qualitative analysis also focused on the ways in which these philosophies were applied in the SE literature. Consequently, we could pinpoint inconsistencies not only in their use in the overall domain, but also in specific studies. Below, we delineate contradictions between macro discourses and micro practices as well as theoretical issues and empirical arguments which could dampen the impact of the studies.

Macro-micro

Notably, although libertarian and utilitarian ideas mainly concern macro-level discourses and institutions such as state policies, market systems and funding institutions, few examples of

social enterprises defending such ideas were found. Empirical examples focus on egalitarian, democracy, or other goals (helping the disadvantaged, fulfilling basic needs, improving civil rights, preserving cultures, etc.). Thus, our analysis agrees that “discursive shifts, driven by policy-makers, funders, the sector and academics alike, do not necessarily infiltrate ideology at the level where the action is located” (Parkinson and Howorth 2008, p. 305).

Starting from this point, political philosophy can help us build more precise research questions regarding the paradoxes within SE, which may be the product of the tension between SEs and their environment. For example, rather than asking how SEs manage “social-business tensions” (Smith et al. 2013), we can ask “how SEs manage the pursuit of egalitarian goals in a market-based environment”. Such investigations may lead to identifying more precise SE strategic responses, e.g. how fair trade develops based on the cooperative organisation of a value chain.

Empirical-theoretical

Some of the clearest theoretical propositions around social enterprises are rooted in economic theories (F. M. Santos 2012; Zahra et al. 2009) and aspire to positivism (Nicholls 2009; F. M. Santos 2012). However while economic theories tend to appear “objective”, they also tend to be rooted in utilitarianism (Myrdal 1969, p. 44, 1990). We find this tendency reflected in that Stevens et al. (2015) oppose “utilitarian” and “normative” organisational identity, as though utilitarianism had no normative content.

Relying on utility-oriented (economic) theories may lead to discrepancies between the philosophy behind the theoretical framing and the philosophy adopted by on-the-ground actors. For example, Santos (2012) frame SE in utilitarian terms but cite the example of Uniscité, which aims to foster civic education and social cohesion - citizenship concerns. Philosophical tensions can also emerge in the choice of key variables. For example, in their study of the organisation BRAC, Mair et Marti (2009) choose to study market participation as the main outcome even though BRAC frames its objectives as poverty reduction. Given the value-laden nature of SE, researchers should be conscious of whether they adopt the organisational perspective (emic) or judge which outcomes are valuable (etic).

3.4. Discussion

Social entrepreneurship research is a growing field containing divergences and debates. Previous researchers have identified different schools of thought on SE (Bacq and Janssen 2011; J. G. Dees and Anderson 2006; Defourny and Nyssens 2010; Galera and Borzaga 2009; Young and Lecy 2014). Starting from the assumption that SE research contains implicit normative concerns, our paper presents a complementary lens based on political philosophy, shows how different normative anchorages are linked to different theoretical approaches, and identifies points of divergence in the literature. In this section, we elaborate on the implications for SE research in developing more reflexive research and building normative theories.

3.4.a. Identifying contradictory and ambiguous contours

Our paper has traced contours of the SE field based on the dominant political philosophies, namely Libertarianism, Citizenship/democracy, Feminism, Egalitarianism, Communitarianism, and Utilitarianism, with a smaller presence of both Multiculturalism and Marxism. Our results indicate prior researchers' main implicit normative assumptions (maximisation, rights, democracy, care, solidarity, etc.) that represent the original debates on SE. We also identify less well represented ideas (cultural preservation, exploitation, etc.) that address more specific normative concerns.

Our paper contributes to the SE literature by showing how this multiplicity of normative assumptions can lead to contradictory and ambiguous arguments within a single piece of research, as well as across the SE field. We add to the discussion by Heath and colleagues (2010) who, from a similar political philosophy perspective, identify inconsistency in the use of distinct normative theories at different levels of analysis in business ethics research. While we identify a similar issue regarding macro and micro levels, our analysis also finds contradictions between theoretical and empirical elements within studies which undermine their robustness, and a conceptual ambiguity in the SE literature as a whole which calls into question the clarity and consistency of its research object.

3.4.b. Acknowledging normativity

Given the diversity of possible philosophical stances regarding SE, we believe it is essential that SE researchers are reflexive regarding normativity in their research. Although some

theories aspire to be 'positive' (Nicholls 2009; F. M. Santos 2012), we agree with Myrdal (1969) that "the only way in which we can strive for 'objectivity' in theoretical analysis is to expose the valuations to full light, make them conscious, specific, and explicit, and permit them to determine the theoretical research" (p. 56). SE research, like business research in general (Taylor et al. 2015) may therefore benefit from more explicit "value premises" (Myrdal 1969), whether these stem from current public policies, social enterprises, or the researcher herself. Normative philosophies can thus act as meta-theories, along with other philosophical assumptions regarding ontology and epistemology (Pittaway 2005).

As different normative anchorages will lead to different approaches to defining and evaluating the 'success' or 'impact' of SEs, political philosophy can aid coherent choices about tools and methods for evaluating SE. It can help in defining value-laden concepts (e.g., if an externality is positive or negative, or what we mean by empowerment), and purposefully decide what should be measured and how. To take one example, Social Return On Investment (SROI), inspired by cost-benefit analysis (Millar and Hall 2013), may be coherent with utilitarian reasoning, but will likely be a poor match for egalitarian philosophies since cost-benefit analysis usually neglect the fulfilment or violation of rights, improvements in liberty (Sen 2000, p. 944), and the distribution of the value created (inequalities). For this reason, some measurement tools can conflict with an organisation's values (Millar and Hall 2013), and choosing a universal or standardised tool to measure SE 'performance' can be problematic.

3.4.c. Building normative social entrepreneurship theories

Because the adjective "social" in SE is a value-laden concept (Choi and Majumdar 2014), conceptual definitions of SE may also contain normative implications, and deciding which organisations to include under the "SE" umbrella therefore becomes a political decision (Lyon and Sepulveda 2009). Various fields of study like corporate social responsibility or stakeholder theory encounter a similar issue and thus develop both normative theories and descriptive studies. SE, however, lacks a well-defined normative logic (Nicholls 2010a, p. 617), and future research should develop more explicit normative theories. This would correspond to what Dey and Steyaert (2012) call a normative critique: being "explicit about the kind of trajectory social entrepreneurship must endorse" (p.97). Normative theories can inspire practitioners and aid policy makers in clarifying their political choice when adopting a definition of SE.

The results we present here constitute a basis for such a task, but the issue remain complex. Coherent normative theories at the organisational level are lacking, and this problem is not limited to social enterprises. Organisations are not “citizens”, nor “mini-states” (Heath et al. 2010), so “classical political theory and individual moral theory are inadequate for dealing with the moral problems that arise in the context of the modern corporation” (R. Phillips 2003, p. 41). As a response to this problem, Heath and colleagues (2010) call for a ‘unified theory’ bridging business ethics and political philosophy, which would justify various institutions like markets and their regulation, corporate governance, and business norms with consistent normative concepts.

The question is relevant for SE since “what seem really at stake beyond conceptual debates are the place and the role of social enterprise within the overall economy and its interaction with the market, the civil society and public policies” (Defourny and Nyssens 2010, p. 33). We have also seen that the normative debates around SE not only concern social enterprises, but question the articulation of different levels in society: individual and collective behaviour, forms of organisations, inter-organisational relationships, markets, state policy, etc. We thus believe that the construction of ‘unified theories’, and exploration of the causal mechanisms supporting the efficiency claims they may contain, are important avenues of future research for SE and business ethics in general.

3.5. Conclusion

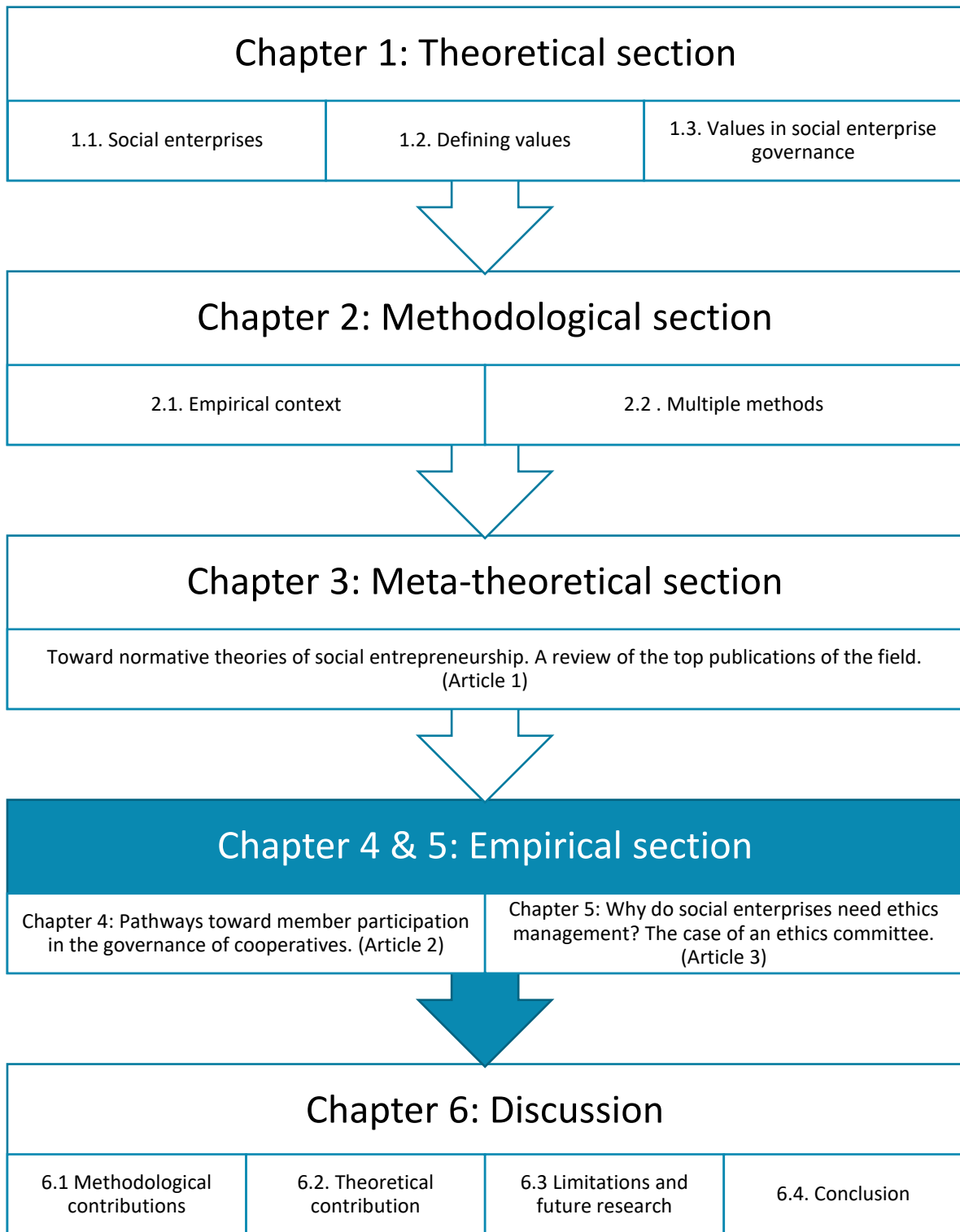
The past research has shown that defining social enterprises or their social goal is a political task involving value-laden debates (Boddice 2011; Cho 2006; Choi and Majumdar 2014; Lyon and Sepulveda 2009). We have extended this work by exploring the political ideas at stake behind the question of social entrepreneurship. Our paper shows the diversity of perspectives in SE, and clarifies the goals and means SE can adopt within society according to different philosophical lenses. Political philosophy provides a coherent framework for conceptualising SE definitions, goals, and impacts, both in normative theories and in describing the political projects that social enterprises themselves can defend.

Furthermore, our analysis is also relevant from an institutional perspective of SE research. First, it can help scholars in understanding their own normative ideas about social enterprise, and making them explicit. This process will provide a solid basis for critical approaches, helping

scholars to define what is criticised and from which standpoint. Then, political philosophy can inform the choice of theories, conceptualisations, and measurement tools to use. Different measurement tools and different conceptualisations reflect different types of political impacts (creating more utility, fulfilling rights, fostering democracy, etc.). Thus, scholars and practitioners should pay attention to the alignment between their values and the measurement tools or theories they choose to use.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available in the Zenodo repository. The paper sample database is available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4767012>. The Atlas.TI coding file is available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4767088>. The paper's final coding is available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4767203>.



Chapter 4. Pathways toward member participation in the governance of cooperatives. Conjunction of motivations and resources in the case of French community energy

Article 2

4.1. Introduction

Building sustainable energy systems is a current major challenge in Europe (Pfenninger et al. 2014). Ongoing geopolitical conflicts are putting pressure on energy supplies across the continent (Steffen and Patt 2022). At the same time, there is a growing need to accelerate the transition to a low carbon energy system to address climate change (Creutzig et al. 2014). While global agreements are needed to solve global environmental problems, there is also a consensus that action at other scales is also necessary to confront the crisis (Ostrom 2012).

In the field of renewable energy, a recent European directive has given institutional recognition to the relevance of local community action. This directive adopted the concept of the “renewable energy community” (EU 2018) and encourages the implementation of policies dedicated to these communities. Researchers have suggested that “renewable energy communities”, that is, “autonomous entities based on the open and voluntary participation of community members in creating local environmental benefits”, offer great potential in contributing to energy transition (Soeiro and Dias 2020). Central to this contribution (Goedkoop et al. 2021) is the empowerment of citizens through the appropriation of the debate on alternative energy, particularly within organised groups such as energy cooperatives.

Energy cooperatives are defined as “formal or informal citizen-led initiatives which propose collaborative solutions on a local basis to facilitate the development of sustainable energy technologies and practices” (Bauwens 2016, p. 279). They adhere to the basic tenants of consumer cooperatives, such as being member-owned, member-controlled and member-benefitting (Zeuli et al. 2004), as established by the International Cooperative Alliance. However, they are distinguished from other cooperatives by their focus on contributing to renewable energy production (Punt et al. 2022) through the collective participation of members.

Open participation and effective control by members are key cooperative principles (ICA 1995), and are also crucial elements of the democratic model promoted by energy cooperatives (Punt et al. 2022; REScoop 2015). Cooperatives are managed by boards, with board members elected from the wider membership, and this democratic governance would falter without the active participation of members (Barros and Michaud 2020). Furthermore, participation is particularly vital in cooperatives – such as energy cooperatives – whose goal entails collaborative solutions and the active empowerment of its members (Bauwens and Defourny 2017). Therefore, understanding participative behaviour is crucial to strengthening the “raison d’être” of energy cooperatives (Fischer et al. 2021).

Despite this recognition, previous research has identified a divergent range of factors leading to participation (Birchall 1999). While there seems to be a general agreement about the central importance of the motivations and socio-economic resources of participants (Bauwens, 2016; Fraune, 2015; Kalkbrenner & Roosen, 2016; Radtke, 2014), no integrative theories have been tested to explain how their interplay helps to foster cooperative members’ participation. Our study builds on the participation chain model proposed by Birchall and Simmons (2004a), which bring together previous research findings, to fill this gap and improve our understanding of the conditions leading to members participating in the governance of cooperatives. Our research question is as follows: *How do members’ motivations and socio-economic resources interact to influence participation in the governance of cooperatives?*

We focus on participation in the governance of cooperatives since that is where the collaborative solutions expected from energy cooperatives (Bauwens 2016) are normally proposed, discussed and decided (Höfer and Rommel 2015). Participation in cooperative governance includes joining in deliberations and decision-making, voting to elect board representatives and running for these positions.

Our empirical study investigates member participation by customers of one of the largest energy cooperatives in France, and a pioneer in its field. We used an exploratory approach to research how the resources available to an individual interact with their motivations to influence participative behaviour. Given the heterogeneity of members identified in the literature, we hypothesise that these interactions may vary and that different configurations can lead to participation in an equifinal way, with different combinations of factors producing

the same outcome (Schneider and Wagemann 2012). To study such configurations, we rely on fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA), an approach suited to identifying equifinal causes (Greckhamer et al. 2013).

We add to the literature on cooperative participation by developing a general theoretical framework and conducting qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) that shows that different paths can lead to participation in an equifinal way. Moreover, our study also provides an understanding of the interaction between different factors in explaining participation. Finally, we include individual resources as factors influencing participation in our theoretical framework and show that one type of resource can be a substitute for another.

4.2. Analytical framework

Energy cooperatives have been heralded as essential local community actors in addressing the challenge of energy transition (Bauwens 2016). Most importantly, because such organisations are based on the cooperative principles of member-ownership, member-control, and member-benefit (Zeuli et al. 2004), they offer an important space where the goal of collaborative solutions and citizenship empowerment, central to renewable energy efforts, can be combined (Goedkoop et al. 2021). However, for this to take place, cooperatives need to understand why and how members engage in participation (Bauwens and Defourny 2017; Fischer et al. 2021).

Research investigating participation in the governance of cooperatives is relatively scarce, especially in the management field. The existing literature shows heterogeneous results suggesting great diversity among cooperatives (Birchall 1999) and their members (Bauwens 2016; Fraune 2015; Kalkbrenner and Roosen 2016; Radtke 2014). For instance, different types of cooperatives (consumer cooperatives, worker cooperatives, farmer cooperatives, etc.) have different goals and give control to different stakeholders (users, workers, suppliers, etc.) who may participate in the organisation's governance in different ways (Barros and Michaud 2020).

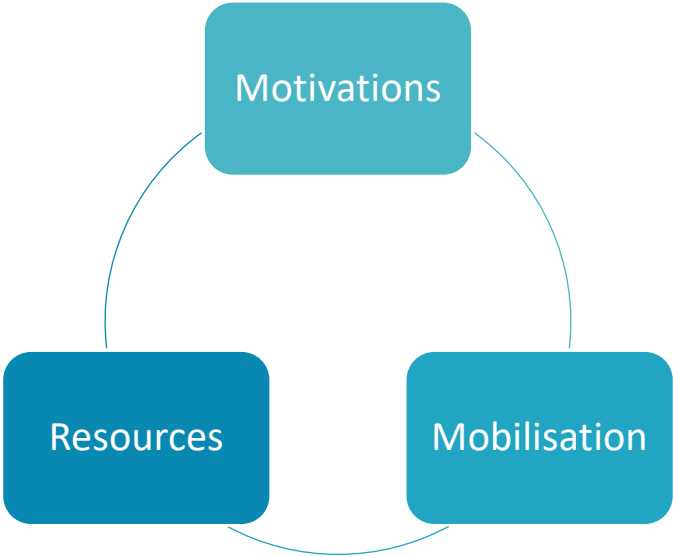
Members might have different motivations that will influence participation. Bauwens (2016), for instance, identified that different cohorts of members may join an energy cooperatives at different stages for different reasons. Radtke (2014) found various motivations related to environmental goals, independent energy production, professional management of the

organisation, financial interest, or to participation as a goal in itself. Authors have also suggested that the demographic characteristics of members might be a key influencing factor in participation (Höhler and Kühl 2018). According to Radtke (2014), in the context of community energy, active participants have a relatively high socio-economic status, that is, they tend to be well educated, wealthy, and knowledgeable, suggesting that “not every citizen is equipped with the requisite socio-economic resources for access to energy initiatives” (p. 243).

In the apparent absence of an existing convergent theoretical framework to study member participation in cooperatives, we build on the participation chain model (Birchall and Simmons 2004a; Simmons and Birchall 2005) to develop an integrative theory of participation. Our framework organises previous insights from the literature in line with the three “links” in Birchall and Simmons’s participation chain: “mobilisation”, “motivations” and “resources” – see Figure 17. For Birchall and Simmons (2004a, p. 488) fostering participation is about “getting the right combination of the above factors” as each factor is insufficient on its own.

The first “link”, mobilisation, covers organisational aspects that influence participation like the presence of controversial issues, the quality of the opportunities to participate, and the recruitment efforts of the cooperative. The second “link”, motivations, relates to individual-level motivations including individualistic incentives such as costs and benefits, and collectivistic incentives such as sense of community, shared values and shared goals. The final “link”, resources, incorporates the means that people can dedicate to participation such as time, money and skills.

FIGURE 17 – THE PARTICIPATION CHAIN (SOURCE: BIRCHALL & SIMMONS, 2004A; SIMMONS & BIRCHALL, 2005)



We believe the participation chain model is particularly relevant to the study of participation in cooperatives because it combines factors such as motivation, which has received attention in previous research (Bauwens 2016; Bomberg and McEwen 2012; Hoffman and High-Pippert 2010; Kalkbrenner and Roosen 2016; Radtke 2014) with less explored factors such as resources. Birchall and Simons have borrowed the resource factor from other established participation models in political science and sociology such as civic voluntarism (Verba et al. 1995) and resource mobilisation theory (McCarthy and Zald 1977) that recognise the importance of personal resources in political and social movement participation. Recently, a review on social enterprise suggested to investigate the resource constraints on community participation (Klarin and Suseno 2022, p. 20). Furthermore, an approach including both motivations and resources is coherent with psychological theories such as the theory of planned behaviour which includes “the idea that behavioural achievement depends jointly on motivation (intention) and ability (behavioural control)” (Ajzen 1991, p. 182) since the resources available to an individual determine the control they have over their behaviour.

Despite this, there has been little exploration of the resource factor in the context of participation in cooperatives, and there have been very few empirical applications of the participation chain model. Moreover, despite the fact that Birchall & Simmons (2004a) expect participation to depend on a combination of factors, conjunction or interaction effects between different motivations and resources have not been tested in the literature, as far as

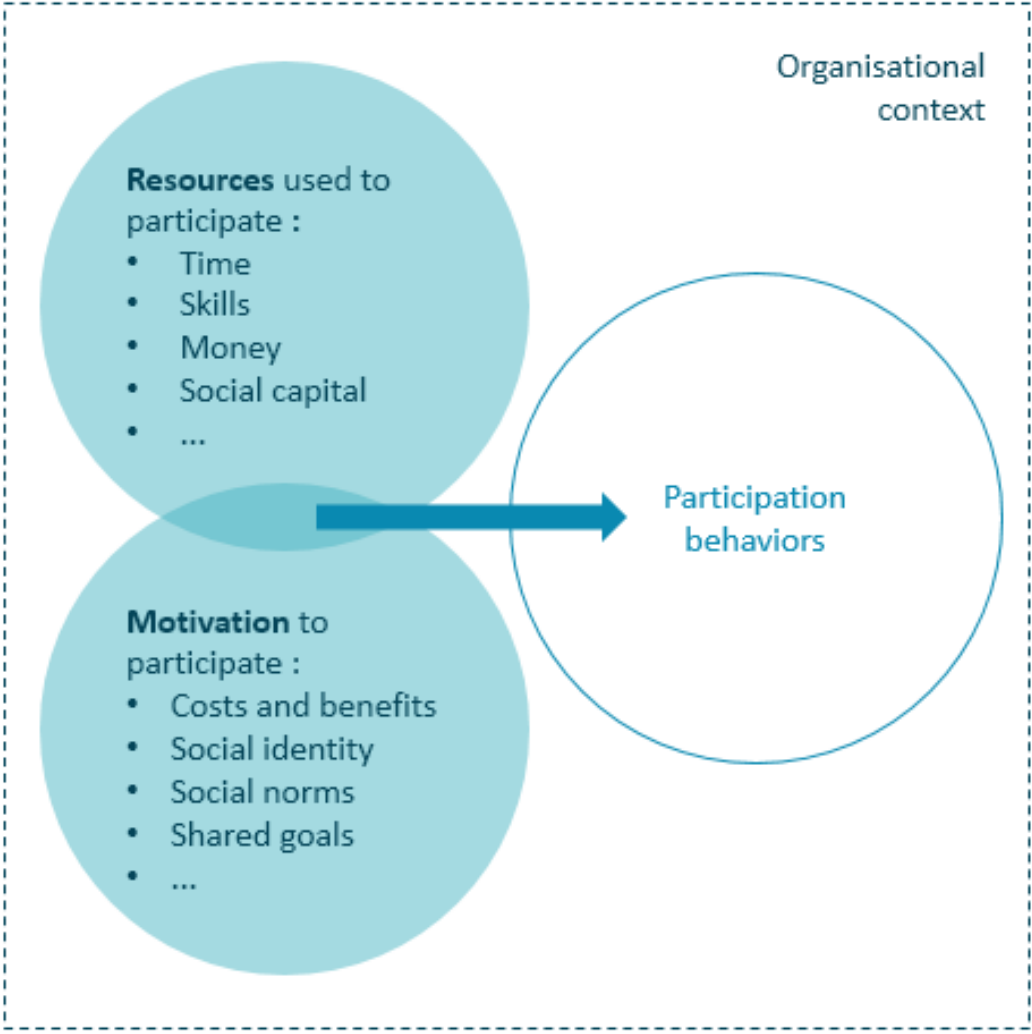
we know. We therefore propose refining the participation chain model to explore the interaction between mobilisation, motivation and resource.

For our study's purpose and design, we treat mobilisation factors as part of the organisational context of our research because we study a single cooperative. Mobilisation factors vary across different organisations, but members of the same cooperative will experience similar participation opportunities. Therefore, "mobilisation" will not be an explanatory factor in our study.

Next, we use "motivation" and "resources" as categories to organise the relevant factors identified in the literature. According to previous studies, motivation includes social identity (Bauwens 2016; Birchall and Simmons 2004a; Bomberg and McEwen 2012; Hoffman and High-Pippert 2010) and social norms such as pro-environmental attitude (Bauwens 2016; Bomberg and McEwen 2012; Hoffman and High-Pippert 2010; Radtke 2014). Resources in previous work has included social capital (Bauwens and Defourny 2017; Degli Antoni and Sabatini 2017), and the personal assets of participants (Fraune 2015; Radtke 2014).

Finally, we focus the nature of the interaction between motivations and resources. We propose to explain participation in a configurational way as the result of a conjunction of resources (time, skills, money, social capital etc.) and motivations (costs and benefits, social norms, social identity etc.) as represented in the figure below. We assume that having the resources to participate without the willingness to do so will not lead to action. Conversely, being motivated to participate without the resources to doing so will not be sufficient to lead to action. The objective of this paper is thus to explore empirically which configurations of motivations and resources can lead to the participation of members in the governance of an energy cooperative.

FIGURE 18 – CONCEPTUAL MODEL: PARTICIPATION AS THE RESULT OF A CONFIGURATION OF RESOURCES AND MOTIVATIONS WITHIN A GIVEN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT



4.3. Methodology

Our study relies on original survey data collected from members of a French energy cooperative. This organisation was selected because it is one of the largest energy cooperatives in France and a pioneer in its field. It is also an empirical example of stakeholder democracy (Moriarty 2014) implementing a multi-stakeholder governance. Members include employees, producers, local authorities and partners as well as consumers and project leaders (founders and co-opted active members). We chose to study a single cooperative in order to hold the organisational factors constant and limit the complexity of the factors involved in the analysis. The characteristics of the cooperative represent the organisational context and constitute the boundary conditions (Busse et al. 2017) of the present study.

Since members of a cooperative can be heterogeneous in their motivations and resources (Bauwens 2016; Dóci and Vasileiadou 2015; Höhler and Kühl 2018; Radtke 2014), we posit that different combinations of motivations and resources could be equifinal, meaning that “alternative factors can produce the same outcome” (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 5). We chose a QCA approach as it is suited to identifying equifinal causes (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 78) and provides bundles of causes that reveal the interaction between factors at the heart of the participation chain model (Birchall and Simmons 2004a; Simmons and Birchall 2005).

4.3.a. Data Collection

A questionnaire was sent electronically to all members (3823) of our selected cooperative via the mailing system of the cooperative. A total of 427 questionnaires were returned. We removed incomplete responses and identical responses (same IP address and same answers), resulting in 395 valid responses. See Table 8.

TABLE 8 – MEMBERSHIP OF THE COOPERATIVE AND RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY

Member type	Members (2018)	Valid responses	% of responses
Energy producers	10	2	20%
Employees	12	2	17%
Local authorities	6	0	0%
Partners	6	2	33%
Consumers	3774	383	10%
Project leaders	15	6	40%
Selected responses	3789	389	10%
Total	3823	395	10%

We removed responses from employees, producers, local authorities and partners because they are likely to behave differently from other cooperative members and retained responses from consumers and project leaders. Our final sample comprised 389 responses, made up largely of consumers, and representing roughly 10 % of all members.

In order to test potential bias in the sample, the survey data were compared with data available for the whole population on voting at the cooperative's most recent annual general meeting, which was used as a proxy for “active participation”. The data show that active

members are overrepresented in our sample. In the total population 57% of members voted, compared to around 83% of sample members. See Table 9. This may be considered as a non-response bias, with more active members logically showing more willingness to participate in a survey. We did not have sufficient data to explore sample representativeness related to other characteristics.

TABLE 9 – VOTING BEHAVIOUR OF ALL COOPERATIVE MEMBERS AND SAMPLE MEMBERS

Voted at the annual general meeting	All cooperative members		Sample members	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No	1633	42.7%	67	17.2%
Yes	2190	57.3%	322	82.8%
Total	3823	100%	389	100%

It is important for QCA to select a sample representing a population’s diversity of cases (Greckhamer et al. 2013, p. 59) and our sample may not well represent non-participants (members who did not actively participate in cooperative governance). This is less important for necessity analysis as “when investigating a statement of necessity, one has to focus on cases for which the outcome is known to be present” (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 70). However, this may be a limitation of our sufficiency analysis (see section 0). Since negative cases (non-participants) are underrepresented, an analysis of the absence of participation to the governance using our dataset would also lead to inaccurate results, and we do not, therefore, perform this analysis.

4.3.b. The QCA approach

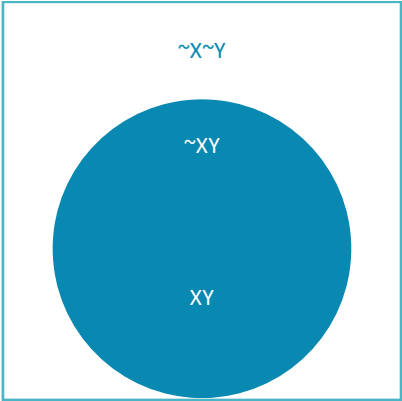
Our study starts from the assumption that the motivations behind members’ participation in community energy are diverse, and participants can form heterogeneous groups (Bauwens 2016; Radtke 2014). The paper aims to propose a method for accounting for this complexity using QCA. This method can account for equifinality and thus allow the researcher to identify multiple “paths” or “recipes” (or, in our study, different participant profiles) leading to the same outcome (in our study, participation). This methodological choice was also guided by the hypothesis that factors like motivation, social interactions and participants’ resources would interact in combination, given that QCA is an efficient way to identify the complex interactions between factors.

QCA is based on sets (or conditions) rather than on variables. A set is a group of cases rather than a property of a case. A set can be “crisp”, meaning that cases can be either member (1) or non-member (0) of a set, or “fuzzy” meaning that cases can have different degrees of set membership. In QCA, measurement has to be calibrated to indicate when a case is more out or more in a set. For a fuzzy set, a score of 0.5 acts as a threshold to indicate if a case is more out or in a set. It is not a problem to include crisp-set conditions as well as fuzzy-set conditions in fuzzy-set analysis (Ragin 2008, p. 34) as we do in our later calibration (Table 11).

QCA is good at identifying specific types of causal complexity “defined by three characteristics: equifinality, conjunctural causations and causal asymmetry” (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 78). Equifinality is the assumption that “alternative factors can produce the same outcome” (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 5). Conjunctural causation refers to conditions operating in combination with each other: thus, we are interested in these interactions rather than in the net effect of a variable. Finally, causal asymmetry refers to the relationship between sets. In QCA, causal relations between conditions and outcomes are conceptualised in terms of subset/superset relationships corresponding to sufficient or necessary conditions.

These relationships are asymmetrical. If set X is a subset of Y, X is a sufficient condition for Y to occur. But cases that are not member of set X (noted $\sim X$) can still be members of Y (Ragin 2008, p. 15). In the Venn diagram below, these cases would be situated in the set $\sim XY$ (not members of X, members of Y). This asymmetrical relationship is different from a correlational relationship. The goal of QCA is to identify conditions that are necessary for a specific outcome, and the combinations of conditions that are jointly sufficient for this outcome.

FIGURE 19 – VENN DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING RELATIONSHIPS OF SUFFICIENCY FOR SETS X AND Y, WHERE X (DARK BLUE) IS A SUBSET OF Y (LIGHT BLUE)



With a sample of more than 50 cases, the present analysis constitutes a large-N QCA. As QCA relies on a back and forth iteration between ideas and cases rather than strict hypothesis testing (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 296), it requires some familiarity with the cases being studied. But the relationship with cases is necessarily more distant in a large-N study. The researcher should thus gain familiarity with the types of cases included in the study through factor or cluster analysis (Schneider and Wagemann 2010), in order to establish an appropriate calibration (Greckhamer et al. 2013). For this study, we thus explored the data through descriptive statistics, cluster analysis and correlation analysis, going back and forth between the data and the literature to choose relevant conditions and iteratively refine the calibration of the conditions. The next section presents the chosen conditions and their calibration.

4.4. The influence of organisational factors on participation behaviour

The characteristics of a cooperative organisation can help explain the level and type of participation of its members (Birchall and Simmons 2004a). This section discusses the main organisational-level factors that influences participation and presents the characteristics of the cooperative in which the study was conducted.

Organisational goals matter as the behaviour of members may differ based on the objectives of the cooperative. We can distinguish member-focused cooperatives (Hatak et al. 2016) which generate economic benefits for their members and may attract members who are motivated by economic rewards (Bauwens 2016), and third party-focused cooperatives which provide services for a broader community beyond their members (Hatak et al. 2016) or are oriented toward more general interest goals such as energy transition in the case of energy cooperatives (Huybrechts and Mertens 2014, p. 195).

In the context of this study, the cooperative's main goal is to contribute to an energy transition scenario based on renewable energy and the economic incentives to becoming a member or client (high prices and no dividend) are weak. We thus assume that economic incentives will not be key to explaining the participation of members in this case. Our study therefore focuses on the pro-environmental orientation of members which corresponds to the energy transition goals of the cooperative.

Governance rules and participation opportunities influence participation behaviours (Birchall 1999). A member cannot participate in a meeting if there is no meeting organised. Similarly, governance rules will define who is allowed to vote and what the voting rules are (Kyriakopoulos et al. 2004). Our study focused on a multi-stakeholder cooperative with six voting colleges: energy producers, employees, local authorities, partners, consumers and project leaders. All cooperative members can vote at the annual general meeting, either in person or remotely. Following discussion with the cooperative's employees, we identified existing participation opportunities for members (voting, reading documents, going to meetings, etc.), and used these opportunities to design survey items to measure participation in governance.

Cooperative life cycle stage and size have been found to be factors in participation. In a young cooperative, participation is expected to be high and value driven (Bauwens 2016; Birchall 1999; Pestoff et al. 2016). In older cooperatives, members may be more passive and have more material motivations as the organisation professionalises and develops a more commercial orientation (Bauwens 2016; Birchall 1999). Cooperative growth over time may also lead to a dilution of social capital due to greater geographical distance, member heterogeneity and increased organisational complexity (Bauwens and Defourny 2017; Feng et al. 2016).

The cooperative under study was founded in 2010 and had thus been in existence for less than 10 years at the time of data collection. It is at the beginning of its life cycle and can be categorised as a young cooperative. As of 2018, it had around 10,000 clients, 3800 members and 12 employees (which correspond to a small company according to EU standards), but is part of a national cooperative group with 56,000 clients, 30,000 members and 170 employees (a medium-sized company). Given the relatively small size and young age of the cooperative in our study, we expect a dynamic and norm-driven membership. The characteristics of the cooperative under study are summarised in the table below.

TABLE 10 – CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COOPERATIVE IN 2018

Number of employees	12
Age	8 years
Number of members	3800
Number of clients	10,000
Total capital	2,200,000€
Price of a share	100€

4.5. Choice of conditions and calibration

Building on the literature, we consider six conditions that might explain the outcome of active participation in cooperative governance. Greckhamer et al. recommend a maximum of seven or eight conditions (Greckhamer et al. 2013) for large-N QCA but we chose a lower number to avoid having too many logical remainders. The chosen conditions are: working full time; perceiving oneself as skilled; having training or experience; having another member in one’s social network; strongly identifying with the cooperative; and having a strong ecological orientation. This section discusses the relevance, measurement and calibration for the outcome and each conditions. Calibration is a procedure that aims to assign to each case a membership score for each set/condition, with the degree of membership represented by a number between 0 and 1. Table 11 below presents a summary of the calibration of all the conditions chosen for the analysis.

TABLE 11 – SUMMARY OF CONDITION CALIBRATIONS

Condition	Measure	Membership score
Working full time	Socio-professional status or situation	1 = Working full time OR multiple part-time jobs 0.67 = Working part time 0 = Unemployed OR unable to work OR retired OR homemaker OR student
Having training or experience	Experience	1 = Training or experience (professional or voluntary) in an activity close to the cooperative’s activity 0 = No training/experience
Perceiving oneself as skilled	Perceived skills in cooperatives, management, energy,	1 = Graded at least one skill 5/5 0.67 = Graded at least one skill 4/5 0.33 = Graded at least one skill 3/5 OR 2/5

	communication, sales and decision-making	0 = Graded all skills 1/5 or less
Having another member in one's social network	Contact with other members	1 = Family, friends or neighbours who are members OR joined the cooperative on a member advice 0 = No other members in social network
Strongly identifying with the cooperative	Social identification scale	1 = Scale mean above 4 0.67 = Scale mean between 3 and 4 0.33 = Scale mean between 2 and 3 0 = Scale mean below 2
Having a strong ecological orientation	Pro-environmental orientation scale	1 = Scale mean above 4 0.67 = Scale mean between 3 and 4 0.33 = Scale mean between 2 and 3 0 = Scale mean below 2

4.5.a. Outcome: active participants in governance

The outcome investigated in the present analysis is active participation in governance. Participation in the governance of a cooperative can be measured through various behaviours and different levels of involvement (Cechin et al. 2013; Nilsson and Svendsen 2011). We thus defined different degrees of participation based on increasingly demanding behaviours: passively receiving information, voting at the annual general meeting, reading annual general meeting documents, and applying to be a board member. Voting is the most emblematic behaviour concerning participation in governance and thus is key in our definition of the 0.5 calibration threshold. However, as voting can be done in a rather mechanical way, we chose to add an additional criterion to the requirement to have voted. Thus, in order to be considered an “active participant in governance”, members had to also show interest in the governance of the cooperative by reading meeting documents.

We chose to use behavioural measures based on self-reported actions. In order to minimise bias, survey respondents were asked about their actions within the past six months (the questionnaire was sent shortly after the annual general meeting of the cooperative).

Different calibrations were tested for the selected outcome as shown in Table 12. Calibration number 4 was then selected because according to the robustness checks we conducted (see The outcome was set to zero for rows 15 and 17 because they are showing logical paradox,

that is, higher or similar consistency score for the outcome and negation of the outcome (in bold).

Row number	Conditions					Working full time	Number of cases	Outcome			Negation of outcome		
	Strongly identifying with the cooperative	Having another member in one's social network	Having training or experience	Perceiving oneself as skilled	Active participants in governance			Raw consist.	PRI consist.	SYM consist	Raw consist.	PRI consist.	SYM consist
1	1	1	0	1	1	43	0	0.84	0.53	0.67	0.75	0.26	0.33
2	1	0	0	1	1	37	0	0.74	0.39	0.47	0.76	0.44	0.53
3	1	1	1	1	1	36	0	0.81	0.61	0.78	0.59	0.17	0.22
4	1	1	0	1	0	27	1	0.85	0.52	0.71	0.75	0.21	0.29
5	1	1	0	0	1	26	1	0.86	0.50	0.59	0.81	0.34	0.41
6	1	0	1	1	1	23	0	0.75	0.46	0.64	0.66	0.26	0.36
7	1	1	0	0	0	21	1	0.87	0.53	0.69	0.79	0.24	0.31
8	1	0	0	0	1	21	0	0.77	0.36	0.40	0.83	0.53	0.60
9	0	0	0	1	1	18	0	0.75	0.27	0.29	0.88	0.65	0.71
10	0	0	0	0	1	16	0	0.80	0.43	0.51	0.80	0.41	0.49
11	1	0	0	1	0	14	0	0.83	0.54	0.70	0.71	0.23	0.30
12	0	1	0	1	1	14	1	0.89	0.47	0.58	0.86	0.33	0.42
13	1	1	1	1	0	12	0	0.82	0.59	0.88	0.58	0.08	0.12
14	0	1	1	1	1	12	0	0.78	0.40	0.43	0.83	0.54	0.57
15	0	1	0	0	1	11	0	0.86	0.34	0.38	0.91	0.56	0.62
16	1	1	1	0	1	6	0	0.83	0.44	0.49	0.84	0.47	0.51
17	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	0.90	0.46	0.50	0.90	0.45	0.50
18	0	0	1	1	1	6	1	0.91	0.64	0.73	0.80	0.23	0.27
19	1	0	0	0	0	5	1	0.88	0.50	0.57	0.85	0.38	0.43
20	0	1	0	1	0	5	1	0.91	0.45	0.57	0.89	0.33	0.43
21	1	0	1	1	0	4	?	0.83	0.58	1.00	0.59	0.00	0.00
22	0	0	0	1	0	4	?	0.79	0.26	0.26	0.92	0.72	0.74
23	1	0	1	0	1	3	?	0.93	0.56	0.70	0.87	0.24	0.30
24	0	1	1	1	0	3	?	0.81	0.43	0.48	0.82	0.46	0.52
25	0	0	0	0	0	3	?	0.83	0.29	0.31	0.92	0.65	0.69
26	1	1	1	0	0	2	?	0.90	0.58	0.67	0.83	0.29	0.33
27	1	0	1	0	0	1	?	0.97	0.83	1.00	0.83	0.00	0.00
28	0	1	1	0	1	1	?	0.85	0.35	0.36	0.91	0.61	0.64
29	0	1	1	0	0	1	?	0.76	0.35	0.37	0.85	0.60	0.63
30	0	0	1	1	0	1	?	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.64	0.00	0.00
31	0	0	1	0	1	1	?	0.93	0.38	0.43	0.95	0.49	0.57
32	0	0	1	0	0	0	?	-	-	-	-	-	-

Appendix F), this offered a good balance between consistency and coverage. This was also the case for calibration number 2, but we preferred calibration number 4 that resulted in more respondents included in the “active participants” set. With calibration number 4, around 80% of survey respondents were considered as actively participating in the cooperative’s governance as they achieved a score of over 0.5, with 283 respondents obtaining a score of 0.6, 31 obtaining 0.8 and 3 obtaining a score of 1.

TABLE 12 - CALIBRATION OF ACTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN GOVERNANCE

Calibration number	Membership score
1	0 = No action 0.2 = Read information sent by the cooperative 0.4 = Intended to participate in a meeting in the future 0.6 = Voted at the annual general meeting 0.8 = Voted at the annual general meeting AND read at least quickly the meeting documents OR went to a meeting OR to the annual general meeting 1 = Voted in the annual general meeting AND went to a meeting AND applied to be a board member
2	0 = No action 0.2 = Read information sent by the cooperative OR intended to participate in a meeting in the future 0.4 = Voted at the annual general meeting 0.6 = Previous condition AND read at least quickly the meeting documents 0.8 = Previous condition AND went to a meeting OR to the annual general meeting 1 = Previous condition AND applied to be a board member
3	0 = No action 0.2 = Read information sent by the cooperative OR intended to participate in a meeting in the future 0.4 = Voted at the annual general meeting 0.6 = Previous condition AND fully read the meeting documents 0.8 = Previous condition AND went to a meeting OR to the annual general meeting 1 = Previous condition AND applied to be a board member
4	0 = No action 0.2 = Read information sent by the cooperative OR intended to participate in a meeting in the future 0.4 = Voted at the annual general meeting 0.6 = Voted at the annual general meeting AND fully read the meeting documents 0.8 = Voted at the annual general meeting AND went to a meeting OR to the annual general meeting 1 = Voted at the annual general meeting AND applied to be a board member

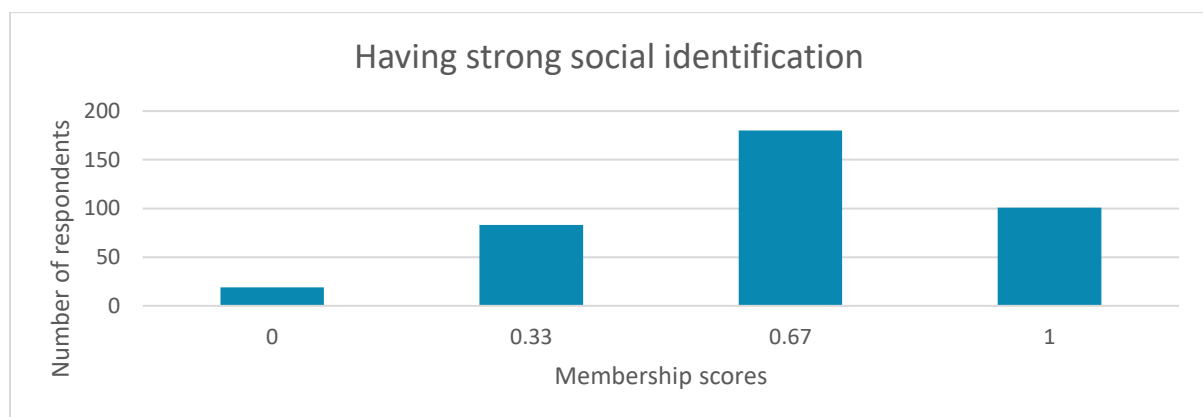
4.5.b. Motivations

Motivation to participate in a cooperative is often the result of a mix of personal and pro-social motivations. To explain participation in cooperatives, Birchall and Simmons proposed a framework including individualistic and collectivistic incentives (Birchall 1999; Birchall and Simmons 2004a, 2004b). Similarly, students of community energy have found a mix of self-interested and norm-driven motivations among members (Bauwens 2016; Hoffman and High-Pippert 2010). However, in our case, the cooperative offers low individual incentives. That is why we focus on social and norm-based motivations. The two relevant conditions in our study are “having strong social identification with the cooperative” and “having a strong pro-environmental orientation”.

Social identification: Having strong social identification with the cooperative

Social identity theory states that “identification with an organisation enhances support for and commitment to it”. (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 26). In the community energy literature, it has been found that identifying with the energy cooperative fosters participation in annual general meetings (Bauwens and Defourny 2017). To measure social identification, we borrowed the scale created by Bauwens (Bauwens 2016, 2017). Figure 20 shows the distribution of members’ responses.

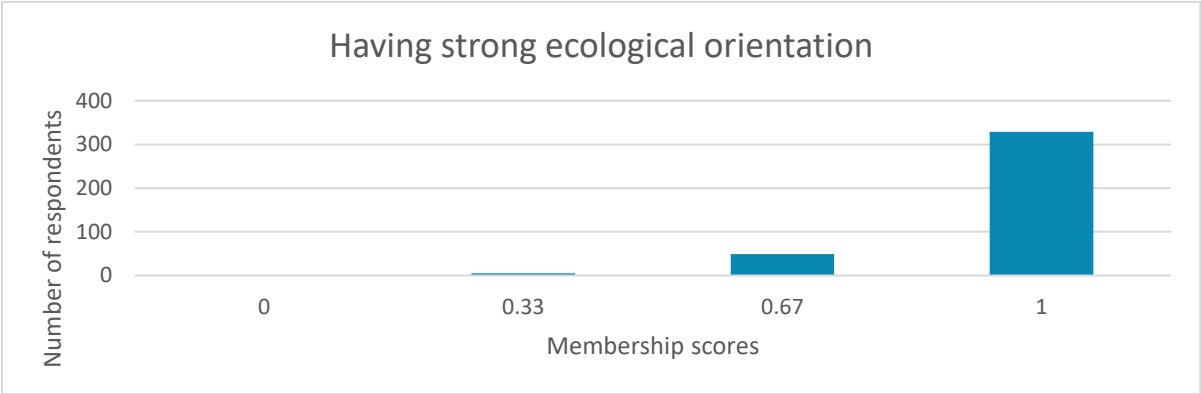
FIGURE 20 – NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP SCORES OF PERSONS ENTERING THE SET OF MEMBERS HAVING STRONG SOCIAL IDENTIFICATION WITH THE COOPERATIVE



Social norms: Having a strong pro-environmental orientation

Social norms and especially pro-environmental orientation have been found to be a significant driver of participation in community energy initiatives (Bauwens 2016; Bomberg and McEwen 2012; Hoffman and High-Pippert 2010; Kalkbrenner and Roosen 2016; Radtke 2014). This is not surprising as the primary goal of community energy is to contribute to energy transition. We thus choose to use a pro-environmental orientation scale (Bauwens, 2016, 2017) to measure norm-based motivation. Figure 21 shows the distribution of members’ responses.

FIGURE 21 – NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP SCORES OF PERSONS ENTERING THE SET OF MEMBERS HAVING STRONG ECOLOGICAL ORIENTATION



Scales validation and calibration

Table 13 shows item-total correlations and Cronbach’s alpha for both conditions of pro-environmental orientation and social identification. It indicates an acceptable level of reliability for each scale with Cronbach’s alpha close to 0.8 (Nunnally 1994).

TABLE 13 – ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATION AND CRONBACH’S ALPHA FOR THE PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL ORIENTATION SCALE AND SOCIAL IDENTIFICATION SCALE (SOURCE OF ITEMS: BAUWENS, 2016)

	Item-total correlation and Cronbach’s alpha
<i>Pro-environmental orientation</i>	
1. I feel concerned about climate change.	0.50
2. I think that human activities are one of the main causes of climate change.	0.33
3. I am the type of person who cares about ecology.	0.62
4. I think of myself as an eco-responsible consumer.	0.54
5. I want to feel that I personally contribute to the protection of the environment.	0.62

6. I like that my family or my friends think of me as someone concerned about the environment.	0.52
Cronbach's alpha	0.77
<i>Social identification</i>	
1. I am proud to be part of the cooperative.	0.54
2. I have a lot in common with the other members of the cooperative.	0.61
3. Being a member of the cooperative is an important part of who I am.	0.66
4. I feel attached to the other cooperative members.	0.56
Cronbach's alpha	0.78

The same calibration approach was used for each condition. In order to transform scale scores into membership scores, we used the scale mean. Averaging item scores may appear in opposition to the set logic of QCA. However this logic – similar to linear-additive multivariate models – corresponds in QCA to a logic of compensation that can also intervene in the development of constructs (Ragin 2000, p. 326). A set membership score of 1 corresponds to a mean of more than 4, a membership score of 0.67 corresponds to a mean between 4 and 3, a membership score of 0.33 corresponds to a mean between 2 and 3, and a membership score of 0 corresponds to a mean between of less than 2. This calibration is summarised in Table 11.

4.5.c. Resources

The “resource model” of participation advances the theory that people with higher socio-economic status have a surplus of time, wealth and expertise, and are thus more likely to share these resources (Hustinx et al. 2010, p. 422) and participate in civic life. We hypothesise that this theory holds for participation in cooperatives and community energy organisations. Fraune found, for example, that participation can be influenced by cultural, social and political structures and hypothesises that having business or technical skills is a precondition to taking part in executive boards (Fraune 2015, p. 62). The sections below consider the resources – time, skills, experience and social capital – that individuals may need to be active participants in the governance of a cooperative. Since we did not study financial participation, such as level of investment, we do not include monetary resources.

Time: The constraint of working full time

Having time available is a resource for participation since reading documents or going to meetings takes time. Brousse (2015) found that, in France, people working full time have less free time than people who are not in paid employment, homemakers, students or retired. We thus use occupational status as a proxy to evaluate the time members could dedicate to participation in the governance of the cooperative. For the calibration of this set, people working full time or having multiple part-time jobs obtained a score of 1 (we posit that managing multiple jobs may be time consuming even if the total hours worked is fewer than would be the case for a full-time job). People working part time were scored 0.67, while people who reported being unemployed, unable to work, retired, homemaker or students obtained a score of 0. Description of responses of members are shown in Figure 22.

FIGURE 22 – NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP SCORES OF PERSONS ENTERING THE SET OF MEMBERS WORKING FULL TIME



Skills: Perceiving oneself as skilled

Participation in governance may also require skills, for example, financial skills to read a balance sheet, communication skills for applying to become a board member (e.g. writing a cover letter and speaking in public). Understanding the issues faced by the cooperative may also require knowledge of the energy market and the governance of a multi-stakeholder cooperative which are both complex.

We choose to evaluate *perceived* skills rather than *actual* skills since feeling skilled may be more important to having the confidence to participate. Respondents were asked to rate their skills in six domains (cooperatives, management, energy, communication, sales and decision-making) from not at all skilled (1) to fully skilled (5). These self-assessed ratings were transformed into set membership scores. The rationale for the calibration was that members

needed to rate themselves as fully skilled or almost fully skilled to be part of the set of “members perceiving themselves as skilled”. We considered all skills to be relevant since participants could find self-confidence and legitimacy in a range of skills. Thus, a member rating 5 on at least one skill obtained a membership score of 1. Members scored 0.67 if s/he had at least one skill rated 4, 0.33 if at least one skill is rated 3 or 2 and 0 if all skills were rated 1.

FIGURE 23 – NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP SCORES OF PERSONS ENTERING THE SET OF MEMBERS PERCEIVING THEMSELVES AS SKILLED



Experience: Having training or experience

Radtke (2014) noted that participants in community energy initiatives tend to have previous experience in the domain. We hypothesise that member with previous experience in the field of cooperatives/social economy or in the energy sector may participate more easily as they may have developed a “habit” of participation. To measure experience, members were asked if they had any training or experience (in a voluntary or professional role) in domains relevant to the cooperative in the study (i.e. cooperatives/social economy or the energy sector). Members scored 1 for yes and 0 for no (see Figure 24).

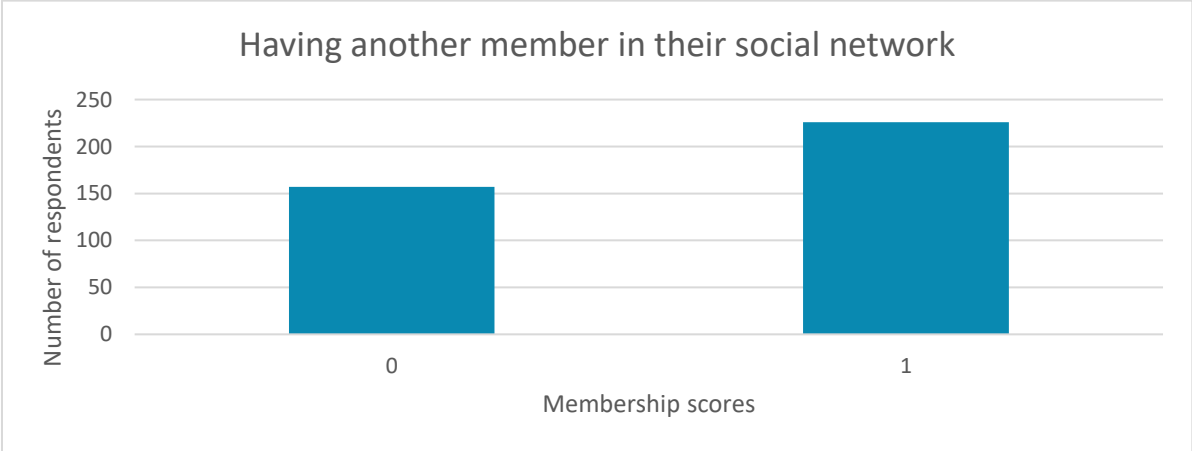
FIGURE 24 – NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP SCORES OF PERSONS ENTERING THE SET OF MEMBERS HAVING EXPERIENCE OR TRAINING



Social capital: Having another member in one’s social network

Several studies note that community energy initiative relies on social capital (Radtke 2014). More generally, proximity and interaction with other members have been found to be important (Bauwens 2016). This condition was measured by asking respondents whether they had friends, family or neighbours among the members of the cooperative, and whether they had joined the cooperative on the advice of another member. Members scored 1 if at least one condition was satisfied and 0 if neither condition was satisfied (see Figure 25).

FIGURE 25 – NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP SCORES OF PERSONS ENTERING THE SET OF MEMBERS HAVING ANOTHER MEMBER IN THEIR SOCIAL NETWORK



4.6. Analysis

Following the calibration process our analysis then involved (i) analysis of necessity and (ii) analysis of sufficiency.

4.6.a. Analysis of necessity

Before analysing sufficiency of conditions, a researcher needs to determine whether a condition or its negation is a necessary condition for the identified outcome (Schneider and Wagemann 2012). We tested all conditions using fsQCA. Consistency indicates “the proportion of the set Y that is included in the set X” (Duşa 2018, p. 105).

The results of our analysis are shown in Table 14. With a consistency score of 0.99, the condition of having a strong ecological orientation is a necessary condition for active participation in cooperative governance. This means that 99% of members who actively participate in the governance of the cooperative have a strong ecological orientation. Coverage is a measure of how trivial, or relevant a necessary condition X is for an outcome Y (Duşa 2018, p. 110). With a coverage score of 0.57, the condition of strong ecological orientation covers a significant number of cases showing the outcome under investigation: that is, 57% of members with a strong ecological orientation actively participate in the governance of the cooperative. This result is not surprising given that most survey respondents (86%) had a strong ecological orientation.

TABLE 14 – NECESSITY ANALYSIS

Condition	Consistency	Coverage
Having strong ecological orientation	0.99	0.57
Strongly identifying with the cooperative	0.86	0.72
Having another member in social network	0.61	0.56
Having training or experience	0.31	0.57
Perceiving oneself as skilled	0.83	0.71
Working full time	0.69	0.56

4.6.b. Analysis of sufficiency

We then analysed the conditions for sufficiency. A truth table presents all possible combinations of conditions. Each row presents a combination of conditions, the number of cases showing this configuration, and a consistency score. In our study, the truth table (Appendix E) contains 32 rows. The researcher may choose a frequency threshold to decide whether the number of cases in a row is enough to constitute viable empirical evidence. The minimum frequency for large-N studies should be higher than 1 or 2 cases per combination of conditions, while also ensuring that at least 80% of the cases are covered by the analysis (Greckhamer et al. 2013, p. 66). We chose a frequency threshold of 5 after experimenting with various thresholds (resulting solutions are presented in Appendix F).

The consistency score in the truth table expresses “the degree to which the empirical information deviates from a perfect subset relation” (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 129). It expresses the contradictions occurring within a row. Consistency will be low if, within a row, some cases show the outcome and others do not. Large-N QCA is less likely than small-N QCA to show perfect consistency; however, the minimum threshold should stay above 0.8 (Greckhamer et al. 2013). For this study, we choose a row consistency threshold of 0.85, although we also investigated stricter thresholds to test the robustness of the analysis (Appendix F).

Truth tables rows showing low empirical evidence are referred to as “logical remainders”. In our truth table (Appendix E) we observe clustered remainders (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 154). The rows concerned are hypothetical cases of individuals with experience but not perceiving themselves as skilled. If this type of case is not fully impossible (like, for example, a pregnant man) (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 155), it is nevertheless not very plausible. We therefore considered these cases as “implausible counterfactuals” (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 199) that should not be considered sufficient for the outcome. Given these implausible remainders and the absence of strong theoretical reasons to make some directional assumptions about the other remainders, we chose to use the complex solution (Schneider and Wagemann 2012, p. 162) included in the standard analysis in fsQCA software. Using the complex (or conservative) solution means that all remainders are set to false and are not used in the simplification algorithm to produce the solution.

To assess the reliability of our analysis, we checked the proportional reduction of inconsistency (PRI). A problem that can arise with QCA is a paradoxical situation in which a case is sufficient both for the outcome and its negation. PRI measures the difference between the consistency scores for the outcome and its negation (Schneider & Wagemann, 2012, p. 240–242). There are no standard thresholds for PRI. However, following Cooper & Glaesser, (2016) recommendations, we report the consistency measures for the negation of the outcome in our truth table. Comparing PRI scores for the presence of the outcome and its negation allowed us to identify one row showing logical paradox with a higher consistency score for the negation of the outcome, and one ambiguous row (highlighted in dark grey in the truth table, see Appendix E). Table 15 shows the QCA solutions without these problematic rows.

TABLE 15 – QCA SOLUTIONS FOR SUFFICIENCY FOLLOWING REMOVAL OF ROWS SHOWING LOGICAL PARADOXES

● Condition present ⊗ Condition absent

Conditions	Solutions			
	1	2	3	4
Having another member in one’s social network	●	●		⊗
Having training or experience	⊗	⊗	⊗	●
Perceiving oneself as skilled	●	⊗	⊗	●
Strongly identifying with the cooperative	⊗	●	●	⊗
Working full time			⊗	●
Raw coverage	0.18	0.23	0.18	0.05
Unique coverage	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.05
Consistency	0.90	0.86	0.88	0.91
Overall solution consistency	0.86			
Overall solution coverage	0.38			

The coverage score indicates the empirical importance of a sufficient condition (Schneider and Wagemann 2012), that is the number of cases it explains. Ideally, all cases should be covered by the solutions. This may, however, be a difficult objective to attain with a large number of cases. Geckamer et al. (2013, p. 65) note that “imperfect solution coverage indicates incomplete causal evidence that leaves some paths to the outcome unaccounted for”, but also underline that, similarly, in a regression analysis the variation of the dependent variable is rarely fully explained. Our solutions present fair coverage of around 0.38. However, the unique coverage of the solutions is quite low.

4.7. Results

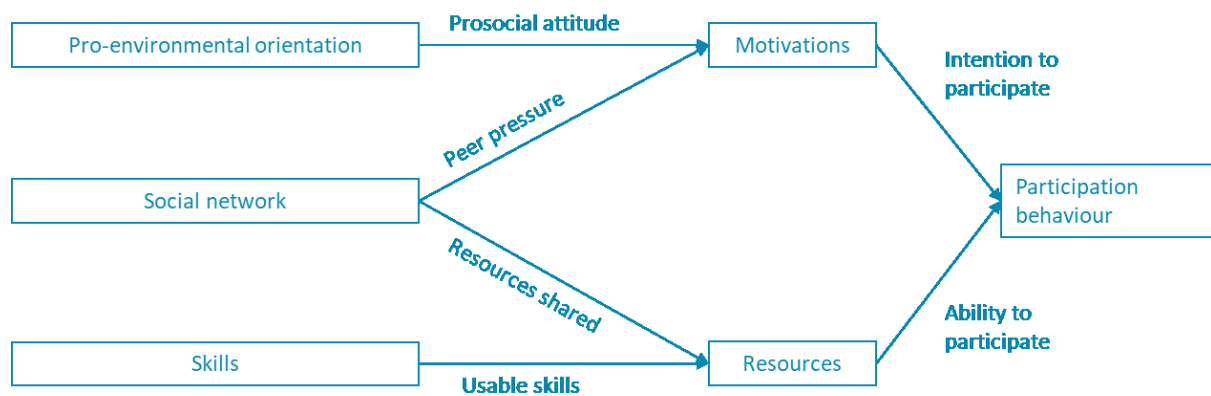
In this section, we present our analysis and discuss the theories that can explain the configurations presented in Table 15. Based on our study of a French energy cooperative, we identify four solutions, or pathways, linked to participation in the governance of the cooperative. They illustrate how different combinations of motivations and resources can lead to the same outcome of participation. Each of these is discussed below, while a final section presents a summary of the pathways to participation.

As shown in our necessity analysis, 99% of members who actively participate in the cooperative’s governance have a strong pro-environmental orientation. This result is consistent with previous studies that found pro-environmentalism to be a significant driver of participation in community energy initiative (Bauwens 2016; Bomberg and McEwen 2012; Hoffman and High-Pippert 2010; Radtke 2014). A pro-environmental orientation indicates pro-social attitudes and the holding of environmental values shared with the cooperative. Since we found pro-environmental orientation to be a necessary condition, we include it in each of the solutions described in the following paragraphs.

4.7.a. Solution 1

Solution 1 of our sufficiency analysis corresponds to a pathway to participation for individuals who feel skilled and have other cooperative members in their social network, but do not have specific experience related to the cooperative’s activity and do not strongly identify with the cooperative. The figure below shows our theoretical interpretation of QCA Solution 1.

FIGURE 26 – PROPOSITION OF UNDERLYING CAUSAL MECHANISMS FOR QCA SOLUTION 1



Knowing other cooperative members can foster participation in two ways, as social connections can be both a source of motivation and a resource.

First, close social networks helps to enforce norms (Coleman 1988), and can contribute to internalising participation as an expected and desirable behaviour (Campbell 2013; McClurg 2003). Peer pressure among members of the cooperative may thus foster motivation to participate.

Second, social networks can be a resource because they provide structures for facilitating flows of information between individuals, and people are more likely to act on information received from people they know (Granovetter 1973). Having members in one’s social network may help one stay aware of ongoing debates in the cooperative. When people are connected in several different contexts, resources can also be transferred from one context to another (Coleman 1988). For example, two cooperative members who are also colleagues could carpool when they go to work and help each other understand the cooperative annual reports.

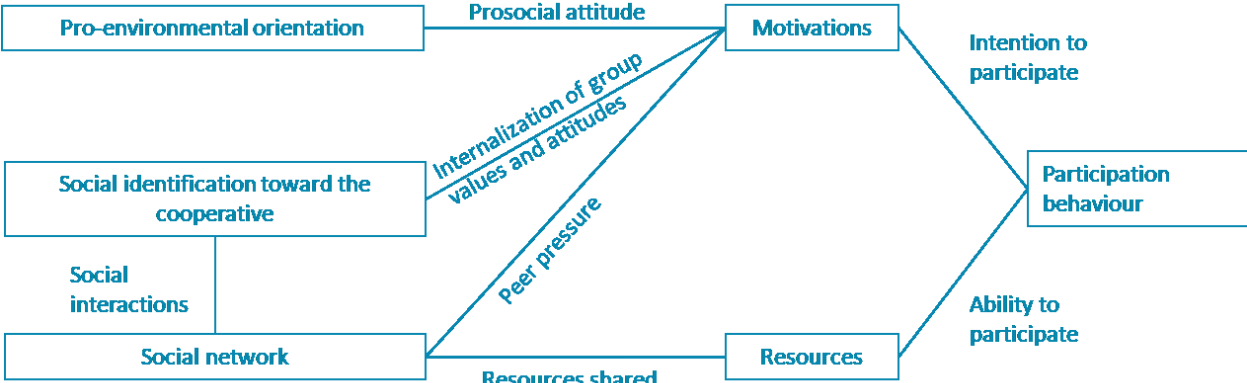
Having perceived skills is also a sign of available resource. Participation in governance (voting, reading annual reports, participating in meetings and applying to be a board member, etc.) requires various skills such as understanding the governance system of the cooperative, its activities and its financial reporting, and can require some skills in oral and written communication. Having perceived skills may also help members feel confident about their ability and legitimacy to participate. Ultimately, social networks and skills could have a beneficial mutual influence, since close relations might help transfer specific skills and

knowledge between individuals, and being known for certain abilities might increase social links.

4.7.b. Solution 2

In Solution 2, individuals have other members in their social network but do not have relevant skills or experiences. However, they identify strongly with the cooperative. Identification with the cooperative can foster motivation to participate because identification tends to increase adherence to the values of a group (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 26). In the specific case of cooperative values, this will encourage valued behaviour such as participation (Bauwens 2016; Birchall and Simmons 2004a).

FIGURE 27 – PROPOSITION OF UNDERLYING CAUSAL MECHANISMS FOR QCA SOLUTION 2

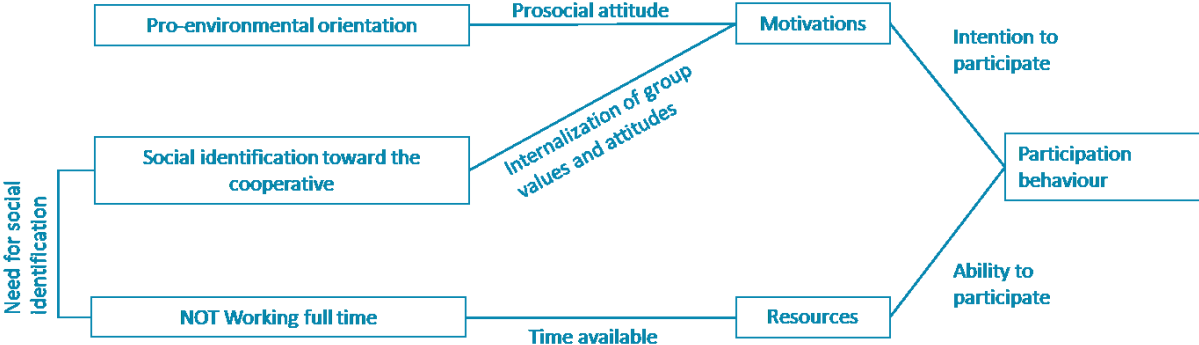


The effect of social networks as a source of motivation and resource may be the same as in Solution 2. However, social interactions among members may also have an indirect effect as this can help develop social identification (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Bauwens 2016). This may explain why we observe a conjunction of “having a member in one’s social network” and “strongly identifying with the cooperative” in Solution 2, as we show in Figure 27.

4.7.c. Solution 3

Solution 3 shows strong social identification with the cooperative combined with the absence of full-time work, perceiving oneself as skilled and having training or experience. See figure below.

FIGURE 28 – PROPOSITION OF UNDERLYING CAUSAL MECHANISMS FOR QCA SOLUTION 3



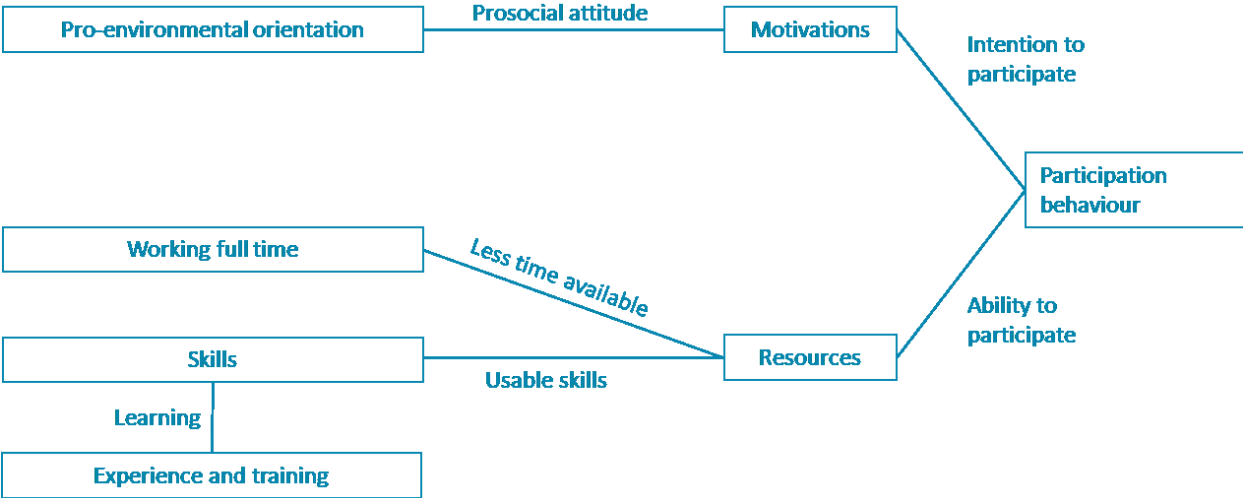
Respondents in Solution 3 do not work full time. From our analysis, we can hypothesise that since they are not in the labour market, they have more time to participate in the cooperative. In such cases, having more time available for other pursuits may help to compensate for lower skill levels.

This type of member also identifies strongly with the cooperative. Social identification plays a role in shaping positive self-image (Tyler and Blader 2001) and, in the absence of identification with a professional occupation, participating in the cooperative may be an alternative source of social identity. For example, retirement can imply a loss of occupational identity and retired people may seek personal identity in new roles (Atchley 1971).

4.7.d. Solution 4

Solution 4, see Figure 29, shows a profile of full-time workers with experience and perceived skills but without other members in their social networks or strong identification with the cooperative. This solution may encompass “experts”. These individuals may be motivated by bringing their expertise and learning to their participation rather than by developing social relations.

FIGURE 29 – PROPOSITION OF UNDERLYING CAUSAL MECHANISMS QCA SOLUTION 4

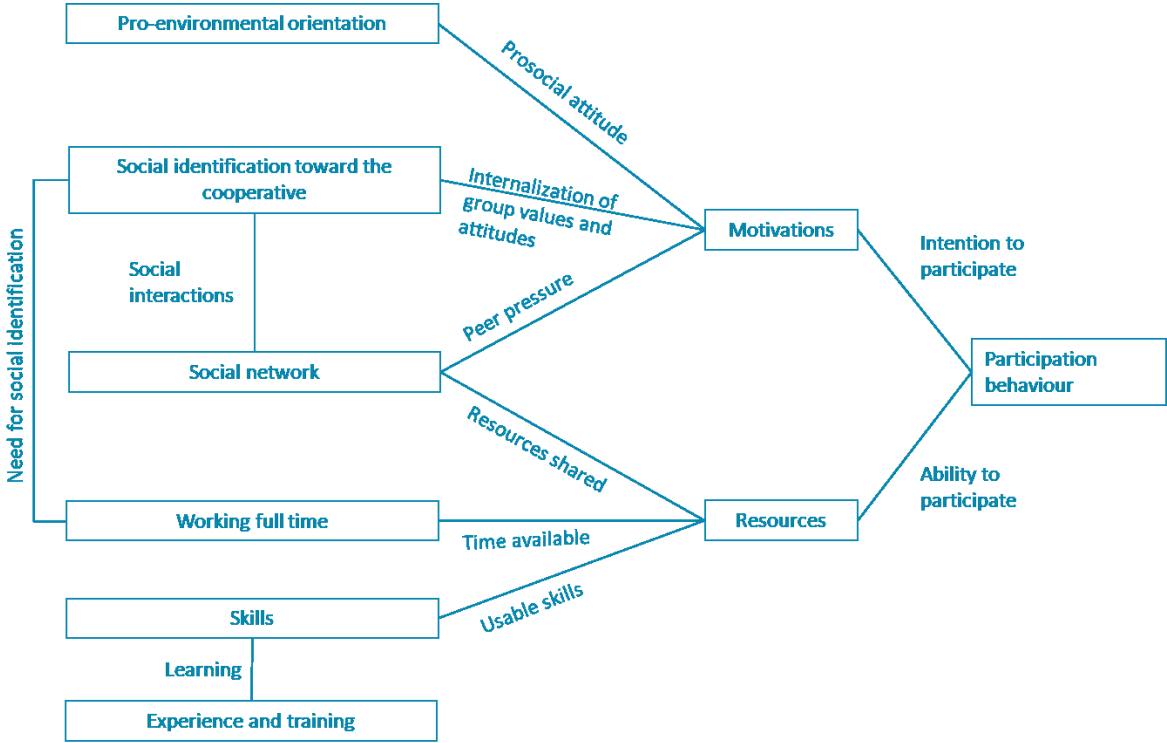


Having relevant skills helps in performing participative behaviour and fosters feelings as a legitimate participant. As discussed in section 0, we observed very few cases of experienced members who do not feel skilled. This may suggest that experience matters because it provides relevant skills for participation, rather than because it creates a “habit” of participation.

4.7.e. Summary of pathways toward participation

Figure 30 below summarises all the pathways (i.e. solutions 1 to 4 above) toward participation discussed in this section.

FIGURE 30 – PROPOSED CAUSAL PATHWAYS TOWARD PARTICIPATION



4.8. Discussion

Our results are consistent with those of previous studies² but our approach allows us to propose a more detailed interpretation of the social mechanisms behind the different configurations of factors. We next discuss our three main contributions to the literature on cooperatives and community energy, before suggesting some managerial implications of our study.

² Some QCA methodologists argue that it is difficult to compare QCA results with regression results because regression methods and QCA methods are suited to answering fundamentally different types of questions (Tatarczyk 2018; Thiem et al. 2016). However, mean causal effects identified through regression analysis (Mahoney 2008) and conditions of a QCA solutions for sufficiency (Schneider and Wagemann 2012) can both be interpreted as a sign of INUS cause.

4.8.a. Academic contribution

First, previous studies on participation in (energy) cooperatives (Bauwens 2016; Bauwens and Defourny 2017; Birchall and Simmons 2004a; Bomberg and McEwen 2012; Degli Antoni and Sabatini 2017; Fraune 2015; Hoffman and High-Pippert 2010; Radtke 2014) have focused on individual sources of explanation for the phenomenon or have looked at different factors but in isolation. They provide important but somehow divergent, insights into the reasons behind participation. We therefore suggest that there has been a lack of systematic exploration to support the development of a general theoretical framework of the phenomenon of participation in cooperatives.

We drew on the participation chain model (Birchall and Simmons 2004a) to develop the QCA used in this study to show that different pathways can lead to participation (equifinality). Different types of members may exhibit the same participation behaviours for different reasons. For example, retired members have more available time and may find that participation in a cooperative provides a source of social identification, while full-time workers with less spare time may have more expertise to facilitate active participation. Moreover, our study also provides an understanding of the interaction between different factors in explaining participation.

Second, as a further addition to the literature on participation to cooperatives, we have included individual resource factors in our theoretical framework, something which has been mostly absent from previous studies (Birchall and Simmons 2004a) despite their centrality in related literature on political organising and social movements (McCarthy and Zald 1977; Verba et al. 1995). Moreover, our work extends the analysis of the influence of resources on participation by showing that one type of resource can be a substitute for another. Our analysis suggests, for example, that social interactions with other members or extra free time can compensate for inexperience. Future research could explore how different member profiles are associated with various motivations for participation such as learning skills or developing new social relationships.

4.8.b. Managerial implications

The configurational nature of QCA allows the identification of relevant categories of people (Ragin 2008, p. 181). The four pathways discussed in this paper may correspond to different

member profiles requiring different recruitment strategies. In this section, we return to organisational factors and discuss how cooperatives can foster participation.

When a cooperative provides weak material incentives, norm-driven members may not participate if they think the cooperative fails to respect its principles or to achieve its normative goals (Birchall, 1999, p. 11–12). It may be important for such cooperatives to be transparent and accountable in the fulfilment of their objective and the respect of their principles.

Developing face-to-face interaction is important for mobilising members (Birchall and Simmons 2004b, p. 486). It is possible to rely on existing employee–member interactions (e.g. customer service calls) to communicate the importance of participation to members, but member–member interactions also matter. Relying on existing social relations (family, neighbourhood etc.) can be a way to convey a cooperative’s values and identity. As a cooperative grows, managers wishing to maintain a close social network structure among members may want to consider establishing and fostering small human-sized groups within the membership (Birchall and Simmons 2004b). Social identification can be developed through social interactions but also through symbolic interactions between members and their organisation (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 27). We have shown that social identification fosters participation only for some types of individuals, notably those who may not have other social groups to identify with, such as the retired or the unemployed.

Different types of members have different types of resource they can dedicate to participation. Students, unemployed people or retired people may have fewer skills but more time, while people working full time may have less time but more experience and skills. However, it is possible to reduce the barriers to participation by making governance processes easier to understand or improving the resources available to members, for example, by offering training to members who have more time but less skills. It is important to note that the resources available to individuals are shaped by the broader societal context and may reflect structural inequalities. Community energy scholars note, for example, that the lower rates of participation for women in energy cooperatives may be attributed to broader gender inequalities or occupational segregation (Fraune 2015; Łapniewska 2019). Cooperative managers seeking to achieve greater diversity in membership may thus need to find a balance

between attracting members who can offer resources to the organisation and helping more disadvantaged members to access the resources relevant for participation.

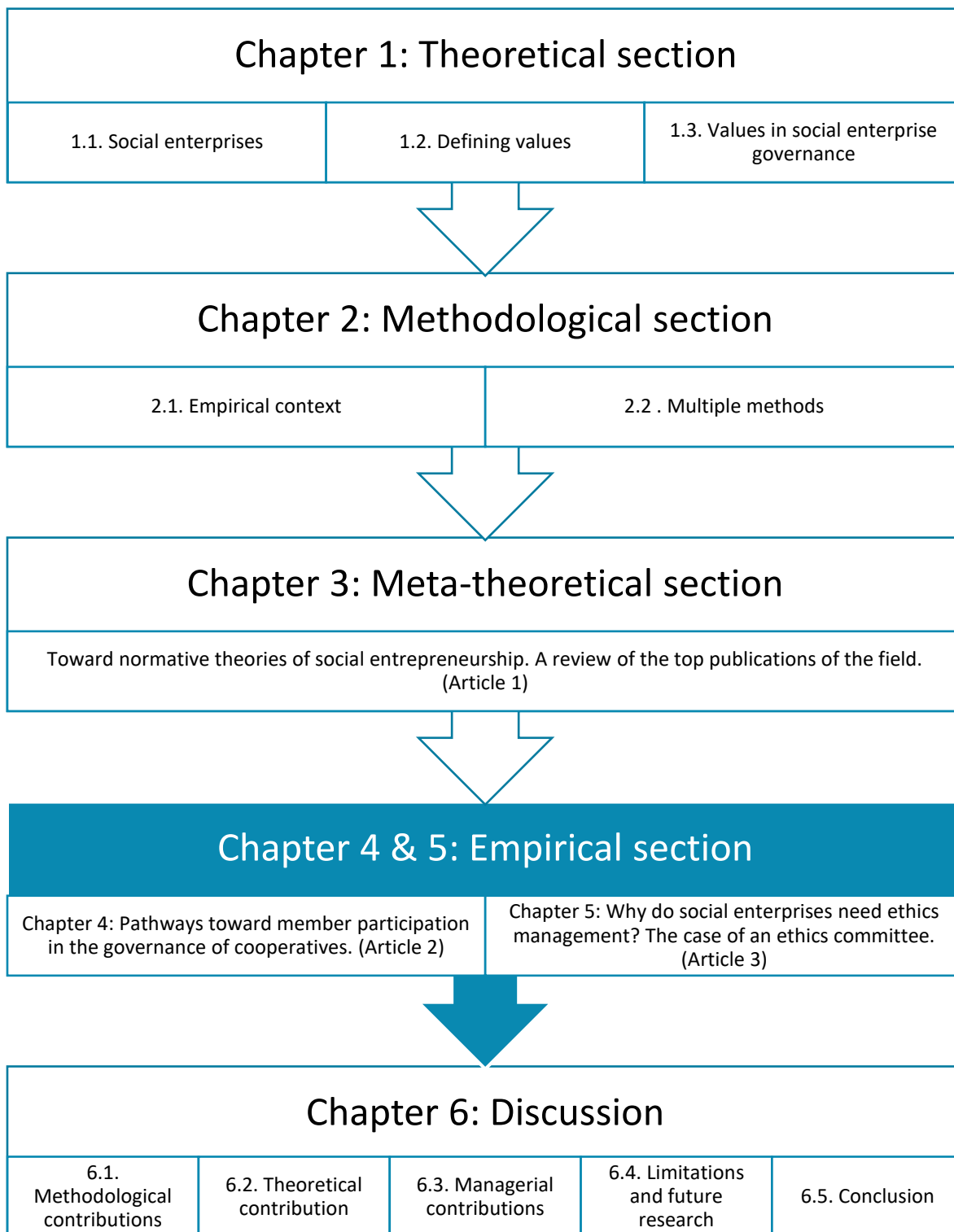
4.9. Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed to examine the participation of members in the governance of a cooperative as a result of combinations of motivation and resources. After conducting a qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) informed by the literature on cooperatives and community energy initiative, we conclude that having a strong ecological orientation is a necessary condition for being an active participant in the governance of an energy cooperative offering weak economic benefits. In addition, having another member in one's social network, having training or experience, having perceived skills, strongly identifying with the cooperative and working full time are all INUS³ causes of participation in governance.

Our research accounts for the fact that a cooperative's characteristics may influence the main motivations of members, and we selected theoretically relevant factors accordingly. However, this study is limited to one type of cooperative, with this organisational context constituting the boundary conditions (Busse et al. 2017), or scope conditions (Ragin 2000, p. 61) for our individual-level findings. Scope conditions "state the circumstances under which a pattern or relationship holds" (Ragin 2000, p. 61). Future research could then study other types of cooperatives. Researchers willing to collect survey data from multiple cooperatives should ensure they account for organisational context, for example through multi-level analysis.

Finally, our results are limited by the cross-sectional nature of our data, which can make the direction of causality difficult to identify. Participation behaviours can reinforce the factors treated in this study as causes (for example, participation is a source of social interaction that can influence social networks and identification). Future studies could make use of longitudinal data to help to understanding better the process of engagement of members in cooperative governance.

³ "insufficient but necessary part of a condition which is itself unnecessary but sufficient for the result" (Mackie, 1965, p. 246 cited by Mahoney, 2008, p. 418).



Chapter 5. Why do social enterprises need ethics management? The case of an ethics committee in a multi-stakeholder energy cooperative.

Article 3

5.1. Introduction

Social enterprises are viewed as a way to make economic activities more virtuous (Boatright 2015). However, their management is not straightforward as research shows that pursuing social and commercial objectives is a constant challenge creating tensions in organizations. Social enterprises have been described as dual, hybrid, encountering social-business tensions, paradoxes, ethical dilemmas and competing logics (Ashforth and Reingen 2014; Battilana and Lee 2014; Bhatt 2022; Cornforth 2004; Doherty et al. 2014; Heckler and Ronquillo 2020; Mason and Doherty 2016; Novkovic et al. 2022; Puusa et al. 2013, 2016; W. K. Smith et al. 2013). The resulting tension may cause individual anxiety, interpersonal or intergroup conflicts, paralysis in the organisation, difficult decision-making and mission drift (Ashforth and Reingen 2014; Battilana et al. 2017; Battilana and Lee 2014; Doherty et al. 2014; M. W. Lewis et al. 2014; Pache and Santos 2010; Putnam et al. 2016; Ramus and Vaccaro 2017; W. K. Smith et al. 2013; Tracy 2004). This is why we need a better understanding of social enterprise management and how they balance multiple goals while staying economically sustainable. Our aim is thus to understand the problematic: *How social enterprises manage tensions?* In order to answer this problematic, we explore in this paper the origins of tensions in the case of social enterprises, and the management practices that may alleviate them.

Several studies have been conducted to analyse the origins of tensions in social enterprises and how they are managed (Battilana et al. 2017; Battilana and Lee 2014; Doherty et al. 2014; W. K. Smith et al. 2013). This literature shows that those tensions specific to social enterprises can emerge from various sources. In a context of institutional pluralism (Kraatz and Block 2008), social enterprise can experience various institutional pressures (Mason 2012; Pache and Santos 2010, 2013) while being also influenced by the competitive market environment in which they evolve (Errasti et al. 2016; Hung and Wang 2021; Kaine and Green 2013). Social enterprises thus have to balance or prioritize various economic, social and environmental goals (Ashforth and Reingen 2014; Mason and Doherty 2016; Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018)

and manage conflicting stakeholder interests (Mason and Doherty 2016; W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011; Spear et al. 2009). The social enterprise literature uses a diversity of theories to conceptualise tensions (Doherty et al. 2014), existing approaches includes organisational identity, transaction cost economics, network forms, social categories, organisational archetypes, institutional theory, culture, transitioning economic regimes, paradox theory, stakeholder theory and system theory (Battilana et al. 2017; Scott 2021; W. K. Smith et al. 2013).

However, more connections between these various theoretical lenses is still needed (Battilana et al. 2017, p. 21; W. K. Smith et al. 2013, p. 430). In this paper, we propose that stakeholder theory constitutes a relevant framework to study tensions in social enterprises. Indeed, it allows to bridge the theories aforementioned as tensions are likely to be channelled through the actions of various stakeholders. For example, policy changes (Battilana et al. 2017) will be enforced by state actors, and change in the resource environment (Battilana et al. 2017) can mean dealing clients instead of public authority funders. Different institutional logics or values can be represented by different subgroups (Ashforth and Reingen 2014; Battilana et al. 2017). In addition, the normative, instrumental and descriptive dimensions of stakeholder theory allows considering both moral and strategic issues that social enterprises face simultaneously.

Our first research question is then: **How different tensions emerge in social enterprises through stakeholder relationships?**

Regarding the management of tensions, governance has been pointed as a key mechanism to manage tensions through ownership structure, governance processes, collective deliberation, spaces of negotiation to handle trade-offs, stakeholder engagement or social accounting (Canales 2014; Civera et al. 2020, 2020; Ismail and Johnson 2019; Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018; Ramus and Vaccaro 2017; W. K. Smith et al. 2013, 2013). Other ways to manage tensions include organisational design (integration or separation of commercial and social activities/identities), seeking an adequate resource mix, alternating between goals in time, using incentives and control systems; but also selecting socialising and training members and employees, determining strategically inter-organisational relationships and reframing the dualities (Ashforth and Reingen 2014; Battilana et al. 2017; Battilana and Lee 2014; Civera et

al. 2020; Doherty et al. 2014; Ismail and Johnson 2019; Janssens and Steyaert 1999; Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018; W. K. Smith et al. 2013; Teasdale 2012).

Despite these multiple insights on the mechanisms available to manage tensions, current research does not identify concrete guidelines for social enterprises' actors about how to manage tensions. In the field "employees, volunteers and board members face the challenge of trying to achieve a balance between pursuing and satisfying multiple organizational and personal goals" (Doherty et al. 2014, p. 430). This paper thus aims to explore what concrete tools can be used to manage tensions. We take inspiration from the ethics management literature. Ethics management "involves the systematic, coherent, and iterative determination of what the ethical criteria of an organization should be, and the development, implementation, and monitoring of the interventions to meet these criteria." (Constantinescu and Kaptein 2020, p. 6) It can include various management tools (Kaptein 1998) such as codes of conduct, ethics training, ethics audit, reward/sanctions for (un)ethical behaviours, ethical culture and ethics committee... (Constantinescu and Kaptein 2020). An approach through ethics is relevant for theory development (Doherty et al. 2014) because organisational paradoxes and tensions has a moral dimension (Bhatt 2022; Heckler and Ronquillo 2020) that is understudied (Gond et al. 2017).

Our second research question is then: **How ethics management tool can help dealing with tensions?**

The paper is structured as follows. First, we propose a theoretical framework based on the current literature about tensions in social enterprises and stakeholder relationships. Then, we present the methodology we used to conduct a qualitative, longitudinal, study of an ethics committee in a multi-stakeholder cooperative. Next, we present the empirical results describing the tensions encountered by the organisation and the responses offered by the ethics committee. The conclusion presents the theoretical implications of these findings, limitations and future research.

5.2. Theoretical framework

5.2.a. Conceptualisations of tensions

The literature on organisational tensions is linked to various conceptualisations in terms of as duality, contradiction, dialectics, paradox, dilemma (Putnam et al. 2016; Tracy 2004) or hybridization (Battilana et al. 2017; Battilana and Lee 2014). However, existing definitions makes it difficult to analyse the origins of the elements in tension, their relationship and its outcomes because some conceptual definitions already include such dimensions (See Table 16).

First, regarding the elements in tension, various approaches focus on different elements depending on the theoretical framework used. For example, Smith and Lewis well cited typology of paradoxes list various elements that can be in tension such as past and future, ways of organizing, divergent stakeholder's goals, competing values and identities... (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011, p. 383). On another hand, Battilana et al. define hybridity as a combination of « distinct identities, forms or rationales» (Battilana et al. 2017, p. 21). Each theory may focus on a different dimension: institutional theory may focus on rationales, identity theory on identity, stakeholder theory on diverging interests... We thus decided to attempt a synthesis and include all these elements as potential sources of tension rather than using a single lens. Then, relationship between elements also varies depending on the concept in use. Most conceptualisation include both notions of opposition (conflicting, inconsistent, contradictory, mutually exclusive, 'not expected to go together'...) and combination (interdependent, forming unity, coexisting...), see Table 16. The literature on paradox suggest that viewing things as opposites is also a cognitive framing, but it is not always clear if the duality or contradiction is seen by the researcher or by the people under study. Furthermore, little attention has been given to the reasons why elements *a priori* contradictory are tied together in an organisation. Our study will thus attempt to explain the relationship between elements in more details. Finally, in terms of outcomes, some authors include in the definition of paradox "responses that embrace tensions simultaneously" (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011, p. 2) and the idea that it persists over time (Putnam et al. 2016; Schad et al. 2016; W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011). Similarly, conceptualization in terms of dialectics imply the possibility of a synthesis as an outcome (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011) while all conflicts may not lead to it (Di Domenico et al. 2009). This may be problematic for theory development because it is difficult

to know an outcome before empirical investigation. Thus, our research did not assume a particular outcome of the tensions in our conceptualisation of tension.

FIGURE 31 – ORIGIN AND MANAGEMENT OF TENSIONS: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK (AUTHOR’S WORK)



In our conceptual framework, we separate the factors leading to tension, the tension situation where these factors enter in tension, and how different tensions can be managed (see Figure 31). Our aim is thus to keep each stage separate to conduct a more precise analysis of each of them informed by the existing theories. The sections below develop the factors intervening at each stage of the tension management process.

TABLE 16.1 – COMPONENTS OF TENSION CONCEPTUALISATIONS (AUTHOR’S WORK)

	Paradox	Dualities	Dialectics
What is creating tensions? What is in tension with what?	Elements (M. W. Lewis 2000; W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011) Behaviours (Johnston and Selsky 2006) Truths (M. W. Lewis 2000) Theories (Poole and Van de Ven 1989)	Opposites (Putnam et al. 2016; W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011) Opposing forces (Sánchez-Runde and Andrew M. Pettigrew 2003)	Thesis and antithesis (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011) Opposites (Putnam et al. 2016) Social process (Di Domenico et al. 2009)
What is the relationship between the elements?	Inconsistency (Johnston and Selsky 2006; W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011) Contradiction (Poole and Van de Ven 1989; Schad et al. 2016) Interdependence (M. W. Lewis 2000; Schad et al. 2016)	Unified whole (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011) Complementarity (Sánchez-Runde and Andrew M. Pettigrew 2003) Interdependence (Putnam et al. 2016) Not mutually exclusive (Putnam et al. 2016)	Interdependence (Putnam et al. 2016) Push-pull on each other (Putnam et al. 2016) Unity (Putnam et al. 2016)
How tensions manifest themselves?	Perceived polarity (Johnston and Selsky 2006; M. W. Lewis 2000) Situations with difficult choices (Putnam et al. 2016)	Perceived contradiction (Sánchez-Runde and Andrew M. Pettigrew 2003)	Conflicts (Di Domenico et al. 2009)
How tensions are managed? What is the outcome of tensions?	Persist over time (Putnam et al. 2016; Schad et al. 2016; W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011)	Balance (Sánchez-Runde and Andrew M. Pettigrew 2003)	Reframing (Tracy 2004) Synthesis (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011) Ongoing dynamic interplay (Putnam et al. 2016) New oppositions (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011)

TABLE 16.2 – COMPONENTS OF TENSION CONCEPTUALISATIONS (AUTHOR’S WORK)

	Contradiction	(Ethical) dilemma	Tension
What is creating tensions? What is in tension with what?	Bipolar opposites (Putnam et al. 2016)	Sources of values (Heckler and Ronquillo 2020) Normative values (Bhatt 2022)	Political, cultural, ethical and personal forces (English 2001)
What is the relationship between the elements?	Mutually exclusive (Putnam et al. 2016) Interdependent (Putnam et al. 2016) Define and negate each other (Putnam et al. 2016)	Conflicting (Bhatt 2022; Heckler and Ronquillo 2020)	Dynamic relationship (English 2001)
How tensions manifest themselves?	Choice of actions (Tracy 2004)	Choices with advantages and disadvantages (W. K. Smith et al. 2013) Either-or choices between (un)attractive options (Putnam et al. 2016)	Stress in making choices (Putnam et al. 2016) Making choices and taking action (English 2001)
How tensions are managed? What is the outcome of tensions?	Alternate or choose one (Tracy 2004)		Analyse tensions situation (English 2001)

TABLE 16.3 – COMPONENTS OF TENSION CONCEPTUALISATIONS (AUTHOR’S WORK)

	Hybrid (sectors)	Hybrid (logics)	Hybrid (identity)
What is creating tensions? What is in tension with what?	Sectoral paradigms, logics, values and artefact (Doherty et al. 2014) Business or charity (Battilana et al. 2017) Commercial and non- profit (Dekker 2004; Haugh et al. 2022) Organization categories (Haugh et al. 2022) Resources, steering mechanisms, identity (Evers 2005; Evers and Laville 2004), types of stakeholder participants (Borzaga and Solari 2001)	Institutional logics (Battilana and Dorado 2010; Jay 2013) Organisational forms, identity, logics (Battilana et al. 2017)	Experiences, values and logics (Cornelissen et al. 2021) types (Albert and Whetten 2003)
What is the relationship between the elements?	Coexistence (Doherty et al. 2014) Combination, mix (Haugh et al. 2022)	Combined in unprecedented ways (Battilana and Dorado 2010) to generate innovative solutions (Jay 2013)	Not expected to go together (Albert and Whetten 2003) Conflicting (Cornelissen et al. 2021)
How tensions manifest themselves?			Conflict within individual (Cornelissen et al. 2021)
How tensions are managed? What is the outcome of tensions?	Make sense of and combine (Battilana et al. 2017)		Build coherent narratives (C. Wright et al. 2012)

5.2.b. Factors creating tensions

The factors generating tensions can be observed in the organisation through internal stakeholders, and in its environment through external stakeholders. In this section, we detail the factors existing in each context and how different stakeholders may channel different types of pressure.

Environmental factors

The first category of factor that may generate tensions is the environment of this organisation. This includes states regulations and policies and the resulting resources available for the organisation and institutional fields. These forces are channelled through external stakeholders such as public representatives, clients, competitors and field actors.

Regulations and policies. First, regulations and policies influence the activities and statutes of organisations, notably in the case of social enterprises. In their literature review on hybridity, Battilana et al. note that transitioning economic regimes (e.g. from socialist economies to market economies) lead to the apparition of hybrids mixing state and market practices (Anheier and Krlev 2014; Battilana et al. 2017) because the broader economic system itself is mixed. Similarly, the actual evolutions of national welfare systems (Evers and Laville 2005) toward the “blurring” of the boundaries between the public, the private and the third sector (Billis 2010) and the “marketization of the non-profit sector” (Doherty et al. 2014, p. 421) has been associated with hybrid organisational forms. Changes in economic regimes changes the environment from a regulated environment to a market environment to which social enterprise have to adapt. In the energy sector, a shift is occurring as it transitions from a state monopoly to a competitive market, with the gradual entry of new players. The influence of regulations exist through state and para-public stakeholders because regulations have to be implemented by someone in order to be effective.

Resource environment. Then, the economic system determines the resources available to an organisation. Changes in public policies modifies the amount and types of resources provided by the states (Battilana et al. 2017), the tendency being privatization of public services, reducing public expenditures and/or shifting from subsidies to call for tender. Business laws may also define different legal statuses authorizing different types of resources. For example, organisations with commercial statuses may not be authorized to have volunteers or receive

donations. However, new legal statuses can offer new possibilities for mixing resources (Battilana et al. 2017). For some researchers, mixing resources is also a form of hybridity that can lead to tensions. Social enterprises may use different types of economic mechanisms such as market exchange, state redistribution, reciprocity and self-production (Laville and Nyssens 2001), including community-based resources like volunteering, social capital and donations (Evers 1995; Evers and Laville 2004). Relying on a type of resource require to adapt in order to continue to access these resources, for example when fair trade organisations needs to adapt to changing market conditions (Mason and Doherty 2016). In the case of the energy market, strictly competitive activities co-exist with public support, for example feed-in tariff for renewable energy production. Citizen energy projects also often rely on the volunteer work of their members. Different stakeholders provide different resources: client buy products and services, public operators can offer subsidies, and members provide volunteer work.

Institutional fields. Finally, according to institutional theory, organisations evolves within institutional fields generating institutional pressures. A field is a domain structured by a the network of relationships between organisations having shared activities and interacting frequently with each other (Wooten and Hoffman 2017). Field actors may develop new institutions in the form of common practices, symbols and cultural-cognitive templates, in order to cope with uncertainty, gain legitimacy and demonstrate compliance, notably compliance to legal requirements imposed by states (Wooten and Hoffman 2017). Fields have their own institutional logics. Tensions may occur when there are cultural and institutional changes and organizations are pressured to adopt new practices and logics (Battilana et al. 2017) or when there are multiple (divergent) institutional demands (Oliver 1991). These situations may result in the apparition of hybrids, defined as “organizations that instantiate the values and practices associated with multiple distinct field or societal-level logics” (Battilana et al. 2017, p. 10). The intensity of the pressure from institutional field may vary depending on the presence/absence of dominant actor “enforcing the prevailing logics” (Pache and Santos 2010, p. 9). If we try to identify which stakeholders channel field influences it is useful to note that institutional field are constituted by network of actors and that institutional pressure “do not just ‘enter’ an organization—they are interpreted, given meaning and ‘represented’ by occupants of structural positions’ (Greenwood et al. 2011, p. 342). Institutional field influence may manifest itself through field actors such as teaching

institutions, professional associations, or other networks such as social movements. In our case, we may consider public regulation bodies, social economy networks, organisations theorizing energy transition scenarios such as ADEME and Negawatt, the citizen energy movement, and other energy transition movements.

Organisational factors

The second category of factor that may generate tensions are the internal characteristics of the organisation. This includes values and logics, organisational goals and identity. These factors are channelled through internal stakeholders of the organisation. Different stakeholders can have conflicting view creating tensions in the organisation, but individual themselves can also have internal struggle when they simultaneously espouse multiple logics, goals and identities.

Logics. Institutional logics are “taken-for-granted social prescriptions that represent shared understandings of what constitutes legitimate goals and how they may be pursued” (Battilana and Dorado 2010, p. 1420). Institutional logics exists at the field, organisation and individual levels and these levels influence each other (Pache and Thornton 2020). Organisations can be subject to institutional pluralism, “demands imposed by multiple institutional logics” (Battilana and Dorado 2010; Kraatz and Block 2008) which can trigger internal tensions. Tensions arising from conflicting moral values has also been theorized through the economies of worth (Barros and Michaud 2020; Gond et al. 2017). Institutional logics are carried and represented by stakeholders. Organisations are thus “more than merely instantiations of institutional logics, rather they are places where people and groups make sense of, interpret, and enact institutional prescriptions.” (Greenwood et al. 2011, p. 344). In citizen energy organisations, or energy cooperatives in our case, this may be especially visible in collective deliberation or mission statements.

Goals. Tension can emerge from the multiplicity of organisational objectives. Social enterprises are frequently defined by their dual social and business objectives that they have to balance (Mason and Doherty 2016; W. K. Smith et al. 2013; Spear et al. 2009). Beyond this dual thinking, social enterprises may in fact have more than two goals. Thus “employees, volunteers and board members face the challenge of trying to achieve a balance between pursuing and satisfying multiple organizational and personal goals. » (Doherty et al. 2014, p.

430). Different stakeholders or subgroups of stakeholders can prioritise some goals above others (Ashforth and Reingen 2014; Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018). In citizen energy, these goals may include community development, environmental objectives (Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018), renewable energy development, energy poverty reduction, energy efficiency...

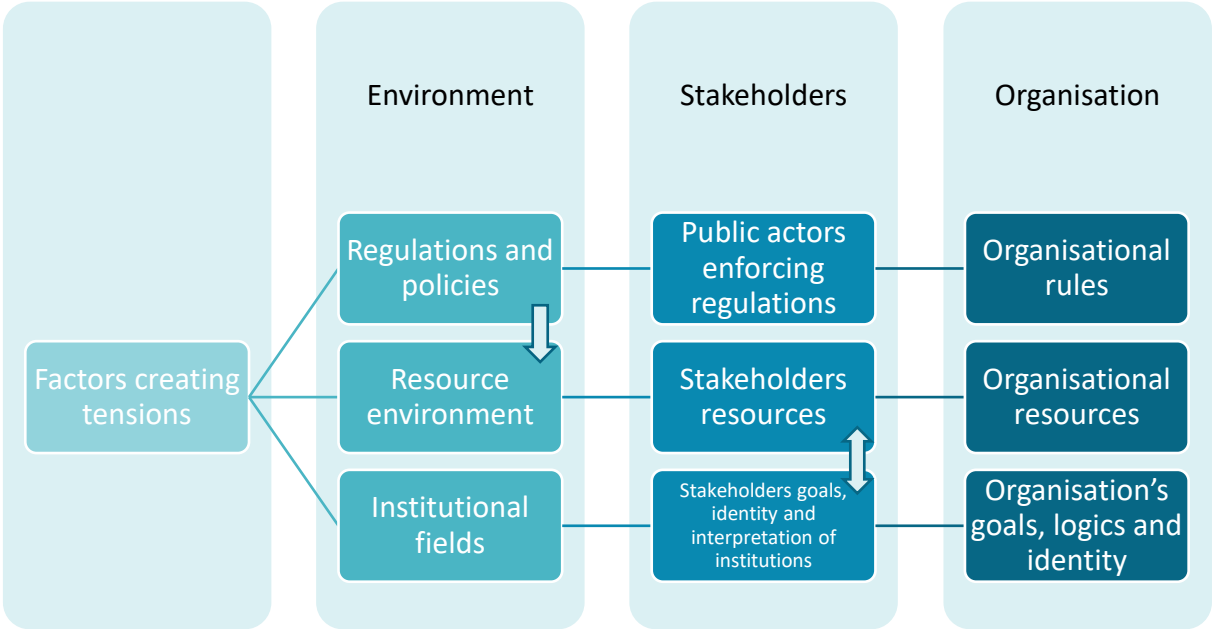
Identity. Organisational identity is defined as a central character of the organisation that is distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten 2003). Organisational identity is formed by a claiming membership into “externally defined organizational types” (Battilana et al. 2017, p. 11), “classification schemes” (Albert and Whetten 2003, p. 82) or “social categories” (Greenwood et al. 2011, p. 346) and “by a process in which organisation’s members compare their organisation to others” (Albert and Whetten 2003, p. 84). Identity can be multiple and hybridized and thus create tensions. Albert and Whetten define hybrid as “an organization whose identity is composed of two or more types that would not normally be expected to go together.” and who “considers itself (and others consider it) alternatively, or even simultaneously, to be two different types of organizations.” (Albert and Whetten 2003, p. 84). At the individual level, each organisational member bring to the organisation their own identities, rationales and past experiences (Battilana et al. 2017). In the citizen energy movement, we find actors with various profiles such as environmental activists, social and solidarity economy actors, energy professionals and engineers as well as business and asset managers. All have their own logics and identities that can enter into conflict. However, as we have shown in section 2.1.a. the French social and solidarity economy framework offers a quite stable category to identify to for commercial organisations carrying social and environmental goals, and combining business and activist identities.

Stakeholders channel pressures

As we have shown above, each type of pressure on the organisation is channelled through different stakeholders. In addition, the various attributes of stakeholders may interact. For example, stakeholders controlling resources on which the organisation depends may exert a stronger institutional pressure (Greenwood et al. 2011) and the dependence of organisations to some resources “influences the ability of organisations to “resist or conform to institutional pressures” (Oliver 1991, p. 173). Resource include material resources but also legitimacy and the thickness of ties to field-level institutional infrastructure (Greenwood et al. 2011, p. 342).

We summarize below how environmental and organisational factors manifest themselves through stakeholders (see Figure 32).

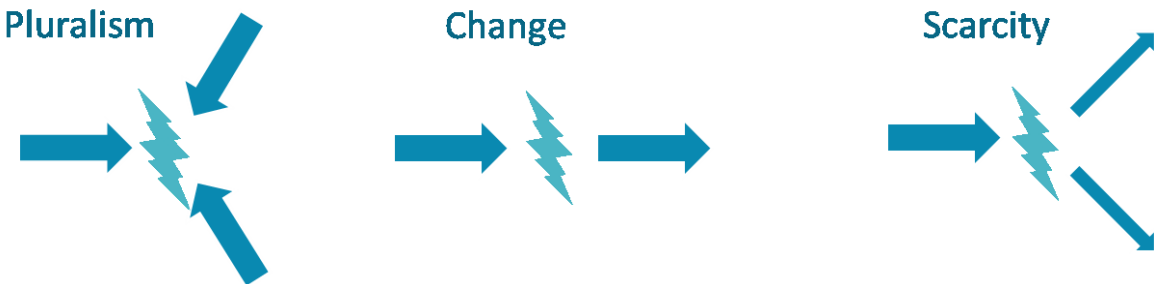
FIGURE 32 – ORIGINS OF TENSIONS: ENVIRONMENTAL AND ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS (AUTHOR’S WORK)



5.2.c. Tension situation: how factors interact

We have identified in the previous section the factors that can generate tension. In this section we focus on what kind of tension situation result from the interaction between factors. Smith and Lewis propose that “Latent paradoxical tensions become salient to organizational actors under environmental conditions of plurality, change, and scarcity” (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011, p. 10). In addition, actor’s cognition change how a situation is perceived and whether it interpreted as contradictory or not. We examine in turn situations of pluralism, change and scarcity and discuss for each one how they can be interpreted as paradoxical.

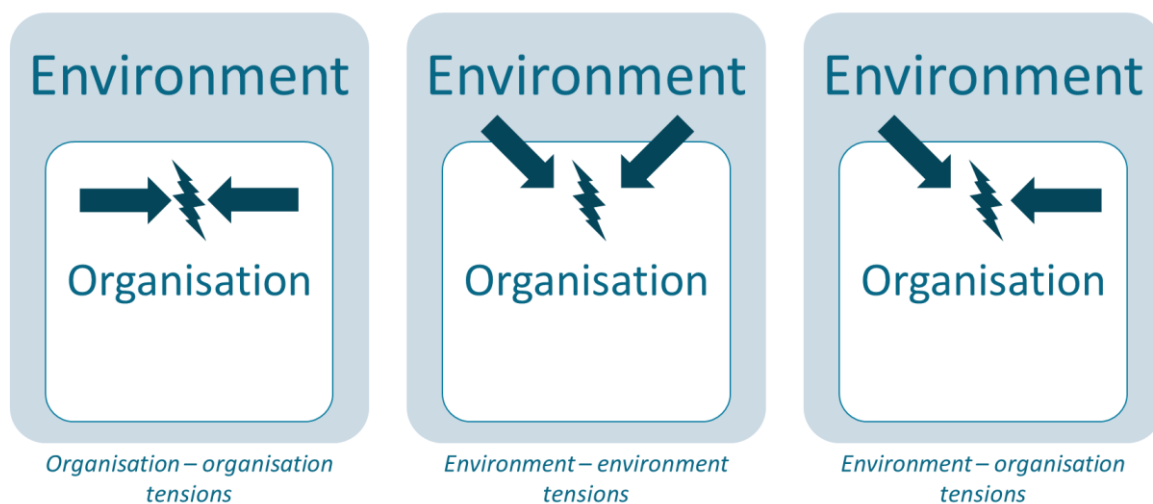
FIGURE 33 - SITUATION OF SALIENCE OF TENSIONS (AUTHOR’S INTERPRETATION OF SMITH AND LEWIS 2011)



Pluralism

The question of pluralism have been addressed through several concepts. Kraatz and Block discuss the idea of ‘pluralistic organization’ that is “compelled to symbolize its commitment to the norms, values, and beliefs of multiple social systems” and are thus co-evaluated by multiple audiences (Kraatz and Block 2008). Oliver use the concept of “multiplicity, defined as the degree of multiple, conflicting, constituent expectations exerted on an organisation » (Oliver 1991, p. 163). Pluralism can be experienced at different level. An organisation can be subject to multiple pressures from its external stakeholders, but also from its multiple internal constituencies. Finally, internal expectations can be conflicting with external ones. Situations of pluralism may be interpreted by actors as paradoxical because the organisation may need to answer conflicting claims in order to survive. As we show in the figure below, contradiction can exist between multiple internal factors (Organisation-organisation), multiple external factors (Environment-environment) or internal and external factors (Environment-organisation).

FIGURE 34 – ORGANISATION-ENVIRONMENT DYNAMICS IN THE ORIGIN OF TENSIONS (AUTHOR’S WORK)



Change

Change in the environment is seen antecedent of hybridity (Battilana et al. 2017). Change can create tensions for various reasons. First, change may generate classical resistance linked to habits and organisational inertia. Then, change in one of the factors mentioned in the previous sections may generate new contradictions with existing values and practices of the organisation. Finally, individuals and organisations seems to have a need of consistency. In a

situation of change, individuals still need to maintain a coherent sense of self (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011), and organisations need to stay coherent to maintain their legitimacy and identity. Kraatz and Block point indeed the “de-legitimizing effects of actions which violate commitments or otherwise convey opportunism.” (Kraatz and Block 2008, p. 12) and note that this issue is under researched because neo-institutionalism “says very little about how consistency and revealed commitment (or lack thereof) might affect organizational legitimacy over time” (Kraatz and Block 2008, p. 12). The expectations of stakeholders toward the organisation is then not only about the conformity to specific institutions or the satisfaction of specific interests, but also about the perceived coherence of its behaviour (Kraatz and Block 2008) that may signify its overall reliability. The need for cross-temporal consistency may be why some behaviours are seen as paradoxical in a situation of change.

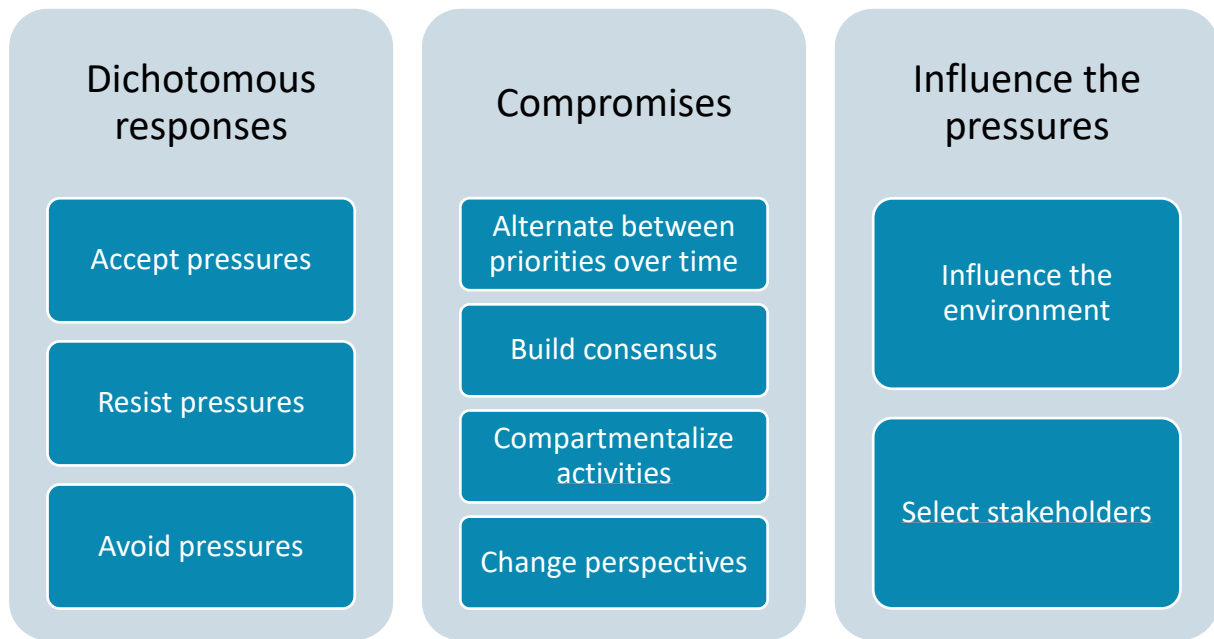
Scarcity

Resource scarcity trigger tensions because it constrain choices among alternatives as allocating resources to one goal mean having less resources to pursue another (Miron-Spektor et al. 2018; W. K. Smith 2014). For example, business and charitable activities can compete for managerial attention (Battilana and Lee 2014, p. 412). Individuals facing resource constrains have reduced leeway and are thus more likely to experience choices as dilemmas and trade-offs (Miron-Spektor et al. 2018, p. 24). More broadly, organisations have to allocate resources to various goals and share the value it creates across stakeholders. These are choices that can be difficult to make.

5.2.d. Management of tensions

In this section, we review the existing literature on the management of institutional pressures and the resulting tensions. We focus on general theories and specific studies on social enterprises to identify possible strategies including dichotomous responses such as accepting/rejecting pressures, building compromises to integrate multiple principles, and making strategic choices aiming to influence the pressures received.

FIGURE 35 – DIVERSITY OF POSSIBLE APPROACHES IN MANAGING TENSIONS



Dichotomous responses

We label dichotomous responses strategies that address a single source of institutional pressure or try to escape situations of institutional pluralism. It includes accepting, resisting or avoiding strategies.

Accepting pressures. Organisations can accept pressures by habits, when institutions are unconsciously followed and taken for granted, by imitation of institutional models that are seen as successful or by complying consciously to institutional demands (Oliver 1991, p. 9). The acceptance of pressure can include some small compromise, for example conforming partially to constituents demands in order to pacify relationship with them (Oliver 1991, p. 10).

Resisting pressures. The effect of institutional pressures can be diminished by resistance strategies. This may include avoiding scrutiny by concealing nonconformity or “buffering” by decoupling some activities from external contact in order to make them less subject to evaluation (Oliver 1991, p. 12). Resistance can also take the form of more active defiance toward institutions by dismissing the rules, challenging or attacking directly institutional rules and the stakeholders expressing them (Oliver 1991, p. 14).

Avoiding pressures. Avoidance can consist in exiting completely the domain in which the institutional pressures is imposed by changing activities (Oliver 1991, p. 12). In a context of

institutional pluralism, it can be about deleting one organisational identity (Kraatz and Block 2008, p. 15; Pratt and Foreman 2000, p. 29) to avoid dealing with tensions linked with multiplicity.

Compromises between diverging pressures

A large part of the literature about tension in social enterprises focuses on the strategies that allow managing hybridity, tensions, duality or pluralism by accommodating multiple principles in the organisation. Strategies include alternating goals over time, building collective consensus and negotiate the alignment of interests, compartmentalising or integrating activities, or changing perspective by reframing an issue.

Alternating over time. A first possibility is to alternate between focus over time. This can be deliberate or the result of spontaneous oscillations depending on context. Attention is shifted alternatively to one 'pole', 'institutional claim' or 'value' over time (Janssens and Steyaert 1999, p. 131; Kraatz and Block 2008, p. 16; Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018, p. 10). Ashforth and Reingen describe for example "alternations between 'autocracy' (more focus on top-down control and profitability) and 'member control' (more focus on egalitarian management and spending on member services)." (Ashforth and Reingen 2014, p. 499).

Balancing interests and building consensus. Another possible way to manage tensions is to balance the interests of stakeholders (Ismail and Johnson 2019, p. 526; Oliver 1991, p. 10). This can be achieved in various ways, for example by "[playing] constituencies against one another, and/or attempt to find more deeply cooperative solutions" (Kraatz and Block 2008, p. 18). Processes of collective deliberation can be a way to find consensus between various interests and values. Battilana and Lee note the importance of spaces of negotiation that allow staff members to "discuss and come to an agreement as to how to handle the trade-offs they face" (Battilana and Lee 2014, p. 418). Others note the importance of having internal dialogue and consultation processes (Ismail and Johnson 2019, p. 526), or the need to avoid unanimous voting systems that can block decisions (Mason and Doherty 2016, p. 460). The outcome of collective compromises can be for example the development of common decision-making criteria regarding values (Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018, p. 12).

Compartmentalisation versus integration. The question of compartmentalisation exist in various streams of literature such as on hybridity, organisational identity and institutional

theory. Social enterprises in particular can be viewed as hybrid that “vary in the extent to which commercial and social goals are advanced through a common set of activities versus through separate sets of activities.” (Battilana and Lee 2014, p. 413). *Compartmentalisation* occurs when the organisation is structured in separate units, each exhibiting different identities (Ideographic organisation) (Albert and Whetten 2003, p. 85) that are not in synergy (Pratt and Foreman 2000, p. 26). Each unit can also favour the values and beliefs of a particular group of constituencies (Kraatz and Block 2008, p. 16; Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018, p. 12). Separating contrasting view in different groups can be psychologically more comfortable for individuals but can result in more inter-group tension (Ashforth and Reingen 2014). Maintaining the global coherence of the organisation may also require some additional actions such as rituals that mitigate the effects of the conflicts (Ashforth and Reingen 2014) or an appeal to a common overarching identity “focusing on abstract commonalities among the different parties” (Pratt and Foreman 2000, p. 33). A third party can also intervene to change the relationship between groups (Janssens and Steyaert 1999, p. 132). The opposite strategy to compartmentalisation is *integration* that is “when managers attempt to fuse multiple identities into a distinct new whole” (Pratt and Foreman 2000, p. 30). The result is a “holographic organisation” when “each internal unit exhibits the properties of the organization as a whole” (Albert and Whetten 2003, p. 85). In the case of social enterprises, business and social activities would be integrated when the commercial activities directly fulfil the aim of the organisation. They are rather compartmentalised when a profitable activity is used to subsidise a separate social activity.

Changing perspectives. Tensions can be managed at a cognitive level when a change of perspective helps individuals either to live with the tension or to change how they see it. Smith and Lewis suggest that by adopting a “paradox mind-set”, individuals “shift their expectations from rationality and linearity to accept paradoxes as persistent and unsolvable puzzles” (W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011, p. 385). Individuals with such mind-set seems to be more comfortable around tensions and more likely to confront them (Miron-Spektor et al. 2018, p. 11). Another way is reframe opposites as more compatible. This can occur through the development of an encompassing vision or concept that reduce tensions by “removing the either-or perspective from bipolarities”, a process that can be helped by a third person intervention (Janssens and

Steyaert 1999, p. 132). It is also possible to justify apparent inconsistencies “by linking them together through the creation of mediating myths or beliefs” (Pratt and Foreman 2000, p. 33).

Controlling the pressures

Finally, organisations can navigate pressures either by taking proactive measures to influence stakeholders or by choosing which actors the organization is prepared to engage with.

Influencing stakeholders. Oliver noted several tactics to influence external constituents such as bargaining to obtain some concessions, exerting influence on the public or governments to change the criteria of acceptable practices or by controlling constituents that apply pressure on the organisation (Oliver 1991, pp. 11, 15). In the case of social enterprises, several authors have also noted the importance of the socialisation of members to the organisation’s values and identity, notably board members (Mason and Doherty 2016) and workers (Battilana and Dorado 2010; Battilana and Lee 2014; Ismail and Johnson 2019). Organisations may also manage to institutionalize their own identity and practices (Kraatz and Block 2008) and thus lower the need to comply to contradictory external criteria.

Selecting stakeholders. Purposefully selecting stakeholders is another way to manage pressures. In case of opposition, some organisations may co-opt the pressuring constituent (e.g. invite them to the board) in order to “neutralize institutional opposition and enhance legitimacy” (Oliver 1991, p. 14). However, case studies have shown that social enterprises do not usually try to integrate and convince opponents to neutralize unwanted pressures. They prefer to perpetuate their own values by selecting and integrating stakeholders who are in alignment with the organisations values and thus exert desirable influence, this may include workers (Battilana and Lee 2014; Ismail and Johnson 2019), partners, chair members (Mason and Doherty 2016) and even clients (Ismail and Johnson 2019). The literature on mission drift identify such strategies. For example, “social enterprise can successfully rationalize and reintroduce previously abandoned, socially oriented motivations and beliefs through proactive dialog and action with external stakeholders for the development of social initiatives” (Ramus and Vaccaro 2017, p. 13). Social enterprises may also develop control systems like social accounting (Ramus and Vaccaro 2017) or governance systems in order to maintain “joint accountability, thereby resisting pressures to ‘drift’ toward either social or economic objectives at the expense of the other” (Battilana and Lee 2014, p. 419).

5.2.e. Management tools for managing tensions

Although research points that some management practices such as specific governance structure or recruitment practices are relevant for managing tension, there is few example of research showing how social enterprises purposefully recognize and address tensions. Battilana and Lee thus point that “Future research will need to further explore the formalized organizational processes by which social enterprises balance social and business goals.” (Battilana and Lee 2014, p. 418). Similarly, in paradox studies, Gond et al. suggested that future studies examine “the role played by management and impact assessment tools, as compromise devices, in dealing with the constitutive tensions of pluralistic and hybrid organizations such as social enterprises.” (Gond et al. 2017) In this section, we review two stream of literature that describe management tools that could be relevant for tension management: stakeholder management and ethics management.

Stakeholder management

Stakeholder theory defines stakeholders as “those groups who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose” (Freeman 1984, p. 30). The stakeholder perspective invites managers to understand business as “set of relationships among groups that have a stake in the activities that make up the business” (Freeman et al. 2007, p. 3) and to understand the role of managers as the management of these relationships. Several managerial tools have been developed in association with stakeholder theory. For example “stakeholder assessment” analyse the impact of the company’s activities on stakeholders (Freeman et al. 2007, p. 105), “stakeholder behaviour analysis” aim to identify how stakeholder’s behaviours may affects positively or negatively the focal organisation (Freeman et al. 2007).

Stakeholder management may be relevant to tension management because as we have seen above, each tension exist through stakeholders. Stakeholder analysis may then be useful to understand how different types of pressure enter the organisation and create tensions. It also proposes stakeholder management strategies such as changing rules, beliefs or objectives of the company or the stakeholders (Freeman et al. 2007, p. 117) that shares some similarities with the tension management approaches we have seen above. In addition, stakeholder theory aims to understand how ‘business’ and ‘ethics’ can be put together in practice (Freeman et al. 2010, p. 5), just like social enterprises tries to combine ‘business’ and ‘social’.

The fact that stakeholder theory can be “descriptive, prescriptive, and instrumental” (Freeman et al. 2010, p. 59) is also interesting because tensions emerges both from conflicting values or from values conflicting with instrumental goals such as resource acquisition.

Stakeholder theory could contribute to the tension management literature by providing a framework linking the existing theoretical approaches. Freeman notably state “In spite of the conceptual similarities of stakeholder theory to institutional theory, institutional theorists have practically ignored it. This neglect creates an opportunity for increased cross-fertilization and integration.” (Freeman et al. 2010, p. 151). In fact, there is a need to understand how interaction with stakeholders influences social enterprises’ strategy (Doherty et al. 2014) and to develop “more practicable frameworks for studying how firms balance stakeholder interests” (Freeman et al. 2010, p. 152).

Ethics management

Ethics management “involves the systematic, coherent, and iterative determination of what the ethical criteria of an organization should be, and the development, implementation, and monitoring of the interventions to meet these criteria.” (Constantinescu and Kaptein 2020, p. 6). Ethics management, along with corporate responsibility management and sustainability management, has been described as a part of responsible management (Laasch et al. 2020).

Ethics management is relevant to tension management in social enterprises because social enterprises aims to maintain certain ethical criteria and tensions may then create ethical dilemmas for members and employees. The literature on ethics management distinguishes compliance-based approaches based on coercive rules and aiming to create conformity to the norm, and integrity-based approaches, which rely on values internalized by employees, devices guiding moral judgement and the development of moral character (Constantinescu and Kaptein 2020). Each approach can rely on more or less formal tools such as codes of conduct, ethics training, ethics audit, reward/sanctions for (un)ethical behaviours, ethical culture, ethics committee, mission statement... (Center for Business Ethics 1986; Constantinescu and Kaptein 2020; Garcia-Blandon et al. 2020; Morf et al. 1999). The combination of various tools and strategies then constitutes an “ethical mix” (Kaptein 1998).

Ethics management literature could contribute to the tension management literature by providing concrete empirical management practices that can be looked at in order to

understand how tensions linked to ethical issues are managed. In this study, we are interested in a particular ethics management tool: the ethics committee.

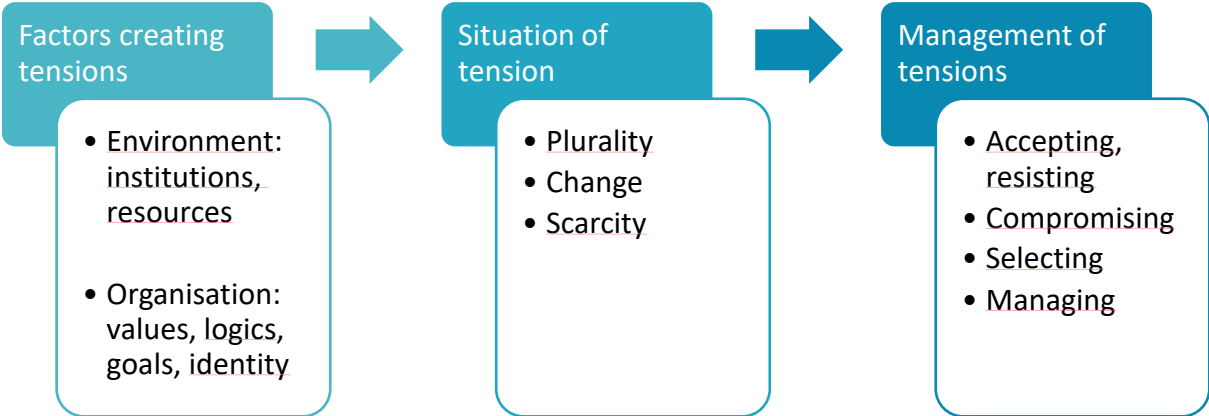
FIGURE 36 – OVERVIEW OF ETHICS MANAGEMENT TOOLS



Thinking multiplicity beyond duality

Both stakeholder management and ethics management may help to embrace the complexity of the tensions that social enterprises encounter. Most conceptualisation proposes some kind of dual thinking, however scholars point the need to study situations where more than two elements coexist (Battilana et al. 2017) and generate multi-polar tensions (Gond et al. 2017). Rather than binary conception of hybridity, there is a need to explore the various dimensions along which hybrid forms vary (Litrico and Besharov 2019; Shepherd et al. 2019) and to cross-fertilize among theoretical lenses of organisational identity, organisational forms and societal rationales (Battilana et al. 2017, p. 2). The figure below summarize the multiple factors we have reviewed in the previous sections.

FIGURE 37 - SUMMARY OF ORIGINS OF AND RESPONSES TO TENSIONS (AUTHOR'S WORK)



5.3. Methodology

This section presents our research setting, the data collection process and the longitudinal analysis we performed.

5.3.a. Case: a multi-stakeholder energy cooperative

Our research site is an energy cooperative that we will refer to with the pseudonym *Kappa*. *Kappa* was selected because it presents various possible sources of tensions due to its governance structure, market positioning and diverse objectives.

Kappa is implementing an innovative multi-stakeholder governance relying on the legal form of *Société Coopérative d'Intérêt Collectif* (SCIC). It include as members stakeholders who may have divergent interests such as employees, energy producers, local authorities, partners as well as consumers and project leaders (founders and co-opted active members). In addition, the cooperative presents a complex governance with a two-level structure including local cooperatives and a national cooperative producing mutualised service.

The cooperative have militant roots but have to face increasing commercial challenges. It was created with the aim to be an alternative to incumbent energy suppliers by providing 100% green electricity and was strongly supported by anti-nuclear groups. It started its energy supply activity in 2005 and presented itself as an 'activist energy supplier'. Since then, the organization engaged in rapid growth and became a rather large organization for a

cooperative. It celebrated its 80,000 customers in 2019. However, it is still a niche player in the energy market and is now facing increasing competition the create new challenges and tensions.

Finally, *Kappa* have a diversity of objectives that goes beyond a ‘social’ versus ‘business’ dichotomy. Like other Renewable Energy Source Cooperatives (RESCoops) (e.g. Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018), is has social, economic and environmental goals. They include managing democratically the organisation, developing renewable energy production while lowering environmental impact of energy, encouraging energy savings, fighting energy precariousness, and encouraging local development.

5.3.b. Data collection: interviews and archives

In order to understand how tensions emerged and how they were managed in this organisation, we investigated places where such tensions might be discussed. First, we conducted exploratory fieldwork as a non-participant observer (and participant observer in the case of the annual meeting⁴). We observed annual meetings, board meetings and strategy seminars. During this phase, we learnt that the cooperative had an ethics committee and we decided to investigate this group. After observing some meetings, we decided to keep the ethics committee of the cooperative as the main object of study because we found it was the place where ethical issues (and thus tensions) were the main topic and members discussed it more freely and frequently (several meetings per months). Board meeting and seminars were more difficult to access because it discussed topics that are more sensitive and were less frequent (every 4 months). It also had much more technical, factual and strategic content and the tensions were more implicit. We conducted non-participant observation of the ethics committee meeting between 2020 and 2021 (over 40 meetings) and conducted 12 interviews of members and former members in 2020, see table below. (Interview guide is available in Appendix G.) In addition, we gathered archival documents including detailed minutes from 2017 to 2019 meetings, working documents, the ethics committee notices and the ethics committee annual reports.

⁴ I am a member and customer of the cooperative under study, but never took responsibility in its functioning.

TABLE 17 - INTERVIEWEES LIST (AUTHOR'S WORK)

Number	Function at Kappa	Voting college	Membership in the ethics committee	Interview date
1	Board member	Project leaders/founders	2017-2020	25/09/2020
2	Board member	Producers	2016-2020	13/10/2020
3	Member, Ex-board member	Project leaders/founders	2016-2020	16/10/2020
4	Ex-member, ex-board member	Users	2016-2019	19/10/2020
5	Employee and board member	Employees	2016-2019	19/10/2020
6	Board member	Project leaders/founders	2020-2020	21/10/2020
7	Member	Users	2019-2020	11/04/2020
8	Board member	Producers	2016-2019	19/11/2020
9	Board member	Project leaders/founders	2015-2017	23/11/2020
10	Board member	Project leaders/founders	2016 -2017	12/08/2020
11	Board member	Users	2020-2020	12/11/2020
12	Board member	Users	2019-2020	17/12/2020

5.3.c. Thematic and longitudinal analysis

The data analysis process included several steps. It began with thematic coding, which was complemented by additional coding to identify periods and levels of analysis. Finally, the resulting data structure was interpreted by comparison with existing theories from the literature.

The first process of the analysis was to code abductively (Rambaree 2018) the data using Atlas.Ti. First, we coded some of the documents in a fully inductive way: the first step was to rename each quotation, then to link them to a code (1st order code) and then link each code to a category (2nd order code) (Gioia et al. 2013). Then we reviewed the literature on tensions and ethics committee, continued coding, and refined the codes inspired by the existing concepts. Finally, the documents were coded again using the resulting code structure.

Several authors noted the potential of longitudinal perspectives on tensions, paradoxes and contradictions (Mason and Doherty 2016, p. 465; Mitzinneck and Besharov 2018, p. 18; Schad

et al. 2016; W. K. Smith et al. 2017, p. 13). In addition to thematic coding, we thus linked each quotation to a temporal code to produce a longitudinal data set. During this process, Atlas.Ti network function was used intensively to visualise the code networks and the timeline. The coding process thus result in code structures (see Appendix H and Appendix I), but also chronological visual maps (Langley 1999) constituted by the codes and quotations network that we present in Appendix J.

Previous literature on tensions note that these can occur at individual, group and organisational levels (Ashforth and Reingen 2014, p. 478; W. K. Smith and Lewis 2011). Institutional theory makes also a notable distinction between the environment of the organisation (institutional fields) and the organisation itself. Some authors thus noted the relevance of studying how organisations changes as the field they evolve in shifts (Litrico and Besharov 2019, p. 15) and how organisational members are tied to the field (Greenwood et al. 2011, p. 344). Similarly, in our theoretical section, we proposed to distinguish organisational and environmental factors creating tensions linked respectively to internal and external stakeholders. This is why our coding also included linking different codes to different levels of analysis. We thus distinguished three levels of analysis, the environmental context (field), the organisational context and the situations of tension. We believe this is important because Poole and Van de Ven affirm that something can appear as a theoretical paradox because levels of analysis are not properly separated (Poole and Van de Ven 1989, p. 566).

FIGURE 38 - UNITS OF ANALYSIS OVER TIME (AUTHOR'S WORK)



Finally, we used the alternate template strategy (Langley 1999; Langley et al. 2013) to theorize the observed processes and tensions. The goal of the alternate template analysis is to use a single rich case to test several theoretical interpretations and identify the one that best fit the case (Langley 1999, p. 699).

5.4. Multiple factors raise multiple tensions

Our analysis shows that multiple factors raise multiple tensions in the case of *Kappa*. The following sections presents the different tensions, classified in the two categories of environment-organisation tensions and organisation-organisation tensions. In the present case, we did not find salient tensions between two environmental factors.

5.4.a. External versus internal stakeholders tensions

The first category of tensions is the ones emerging from environmental factors entering in tension with organisational ones. Environmental pressures are channelled through external stakeholders such as competitors and regulators. In the case of *Kappa*, the main environmental factors are the evolution of the electricity and renewable energy production markets, as well as the centralised institutions of the French energy system. These factors enter in tension with the values and identity of the cooperative, defended by internal stakeholders.

Partners filtering versus market concentration and resources need

The first tension encountered by the organisation is the issue of forming new partnership with actors that do not necessarily share the values of the cooperative in order to acquire the resources necessary for its growth. The cooperative was created in 2005 in a situation where the French energy market was just in its early liberalization phase. There were not many alternative actors to the public monopole at this time and the cooperative initially developed with the support of partners and clients within a militant circle including cooperative banks, cooperative organic food retailers and their clients and members, plus anti-nuclear and environmental associations and their militant members. At this time, the cooperative refused some clients that were too big because it did not want to be dependent on a too small number of clients.

“The development of the cooperative operated until now in a network of partners close to the values of the cooperative, without raising any major ethical question until now.” (Board meeting minutes, 2015)

However, as the cooperative developed, it could afford to have larger companies as clients. Simultaneously, its need for resources increased and new question raised in multiple domains including funding and electricity purchase and production in order supply a growing number of client. The growth of the cooperative was not the only source of pressure. The evolution of the energy market made the environment more threatening. Major incumbents of the energy sector entered the field of renewable energy, increased market concentration, and thus reduced the diversity of partners to choose from for the cooperative.

“In a context of strong growth of our perimeter, and of structuration of the market in the hands of majors energy companies (EDF, Engie, Total), finding 100% renewable electricity supply matching our ethical criteria is going to be increasingly difficult to find. (Question of the supply commission to the ethics committee, Committee’s minutes, 2018)

Therefore, the cooperative increasingly needed to interact with actors who did not share its values. The issues created by these new partnerships were multiple, it included the negative reactions of some cooperative members who were strongly attached to the cooperative’s values: Employees and militant members started to worry and criticised some decisions.

“[Around 2016] we talked a lot of production, well, procurement. For example, windmills developers started to arrive, who wanted to work with Kappa [...] but at this time... well, you had to see who was behind it. It was not always... let’s say the ‘good guys’. [Laugh] Anyway, they were not really compatible with our values.” (Interview 5, 2020)

One concern was the risk for the cooperative to struggle in maintaining its own principles: new partnership may generate institutional pressure forcing Kappa to align on the practices of the potential partners.

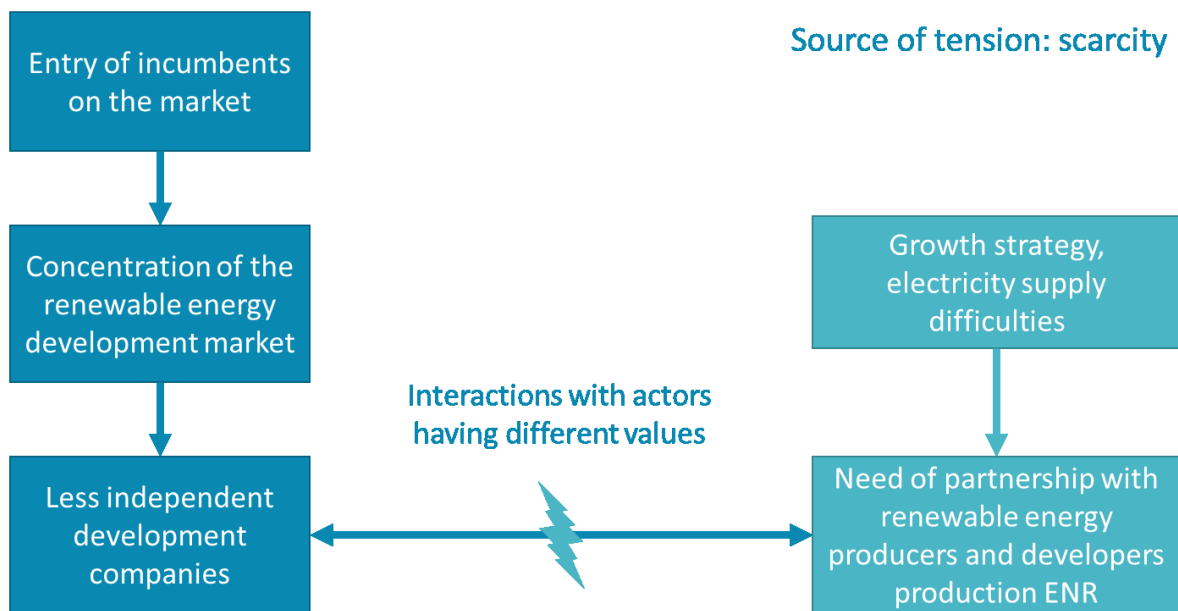
“We are forced to accept partnership with people we would have never worked with 5 or 6 years ago [...] and now they are almost the only ones still listening to us. But they are not likely to move their guidelines to join Kappa. So basically, it is us who have to move our guidelines to make do with it... and up to which point can it go?” (Interview 3, 2020)

A second concern creating ethical dilemma was the fear to contribute to greenwashing practices and being ‘recuperated’ and instrumentalised in other actors’ communication.

“It was: do we really want to associate with these people, even if on one side, we need their money, but we know that behind, they are just doing it to improve their image?” (Interview 7, 2020)

To summarize, this tension emerges from the behaviours of competitors who entered the renewable energy market and bought smaller companies. The progressive concentration of the market increased incumbents bargaining power and reduced Kappa’s ability to define the terms of the partnership it formed. Additionally, the cooperative increasing need for resources to support its growth created additional pressure.

FIGURE 39 – INCREASING DIFFICULTY IN FILTERING PARTNERS BASED ON VALUES CRITERIA (SOURCE: AUTHOR’S WORK)



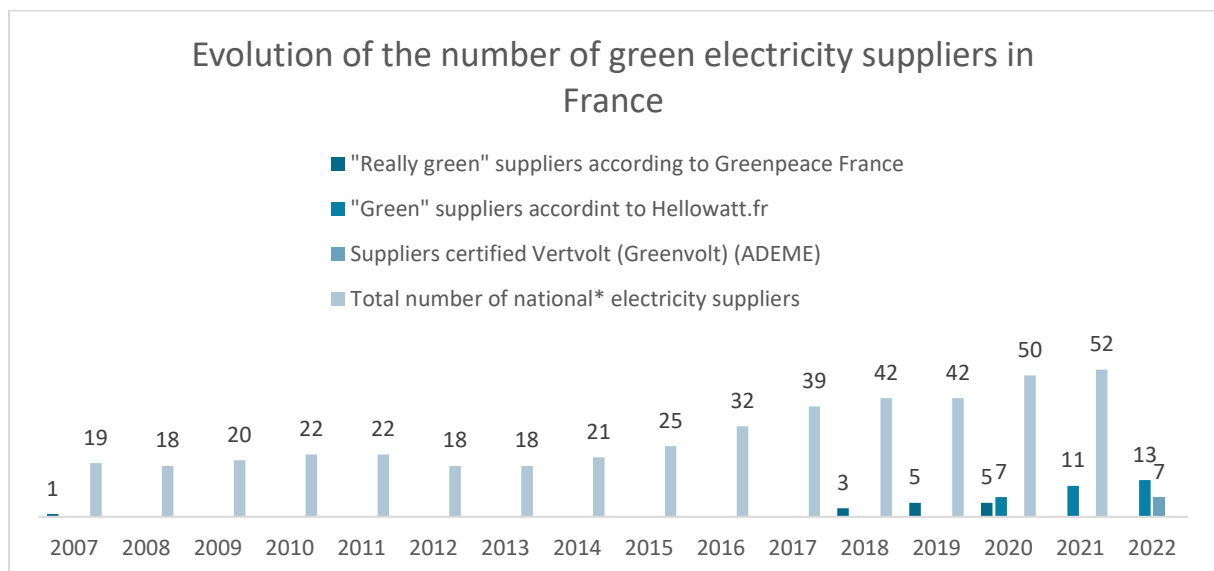
Identity versus imitation by competitors

A second tension was caused by the evolution of the market environment of the cooperative but concern its identity. When the cooperative was formed, its objective was to create a nuclear-free and renewable alternative to the incumbent actor (the public company EDF). However, the renewable electricity market developed and new competitors emerged with a similar positioning as independent 'green' electricity suppliers (see Figure 40).

"[Competitors] do not hesitate to copy some of our distinctive features: claiming direct contracting and more or less proven citizen involvement."

(Committee notice, 2018)

FIGURE 40 - EVOLUTION OF THE NUMBER OF 'GREEN' ELECTRICITY SUPPLIER IN FRANCE. (SOURCES: COMMISSION DE REGULATION DE L'ENERGIE, GREENPEACE.FR ARCHIVES, HELLOWATT.FR ARCHIVES).



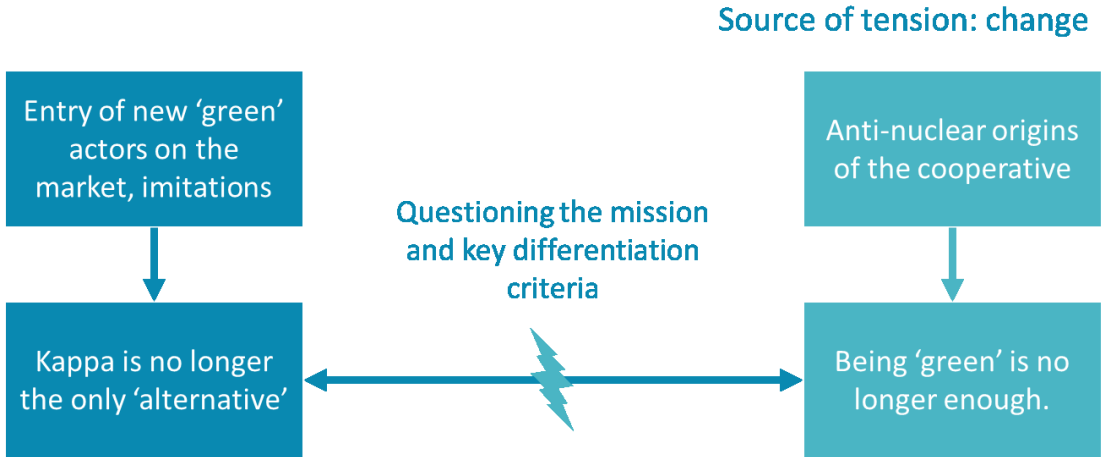
**Energy suppliers serving only a specific location are not included.*

As a result, the initial mission of the cooperative – offering a green alternative – was somewhat fulfilled and this questioned its mission and identity. Members started to think about what could be the new distinctive mission of the cooperative.

"The box was ticked, to say: we need an alternative to this national nuclear energy without citizen control. Now [...] 10 years later, there is a myriad of alternatives. So what is the positioning of Kappa once there are many alternatives and that Kappa is just one of them? (Interview 2, 2020)

This tension thus also emerged from competitors, but from new 'green' players rather than from incumbents. This increased the competition in the specific niche in which the cooperative was operating and created a new commercial challenge. In addition, renewable energy supply becoming more mainstream questioned the cooperative's identity as 'the alternative'.

FIGURE 41 - QUESTIONING THE MISSION IN THE FACE OF THE EMERGENCE OF OTHER 'ALTERNATIVES'.



Selling transparently versus a complex market

Finally, the commercial objectives of the cooperative created some tensions related to its communication practices. Controversies included the use of mass media or social media to reach prospects, but also the cooperative's discourse that contradicted values of transparency according to some critical members. The slogan of the cooperative was about selling '100% renewable electricity', but some members pointed this was not technically exact.

"We are not selling only 100% renewable electricity because [...] when I push the button, the electricity arriving is the same as the one of my neighbours [...] it is the same electricity. It's the common network." (Interview 6, 2020)

Indeed, electricity is not exactly traceable and the cooperative can only guarantee that it has bought or produced from renewable sources the equivalent amount or energy consumed by its clients over the year. It is not necessarily possible either to guarantee that renewable electricity is used at all point in time given the variability of renewable production. In addition to these technical aspects, the regulatory environment of the energy market is also very

complex. Despite the goodwill of the communication staff to be pedagogical, the functioning of the electricity remains very complex to explain to members and prospects.

“I see again, at the last general meeting – but each time! – When we explain the matter of green certificates and direct contracting, they get the shock of their life! They suddenly discover this thing while this is the ABC.” (Interview 1, 2020)

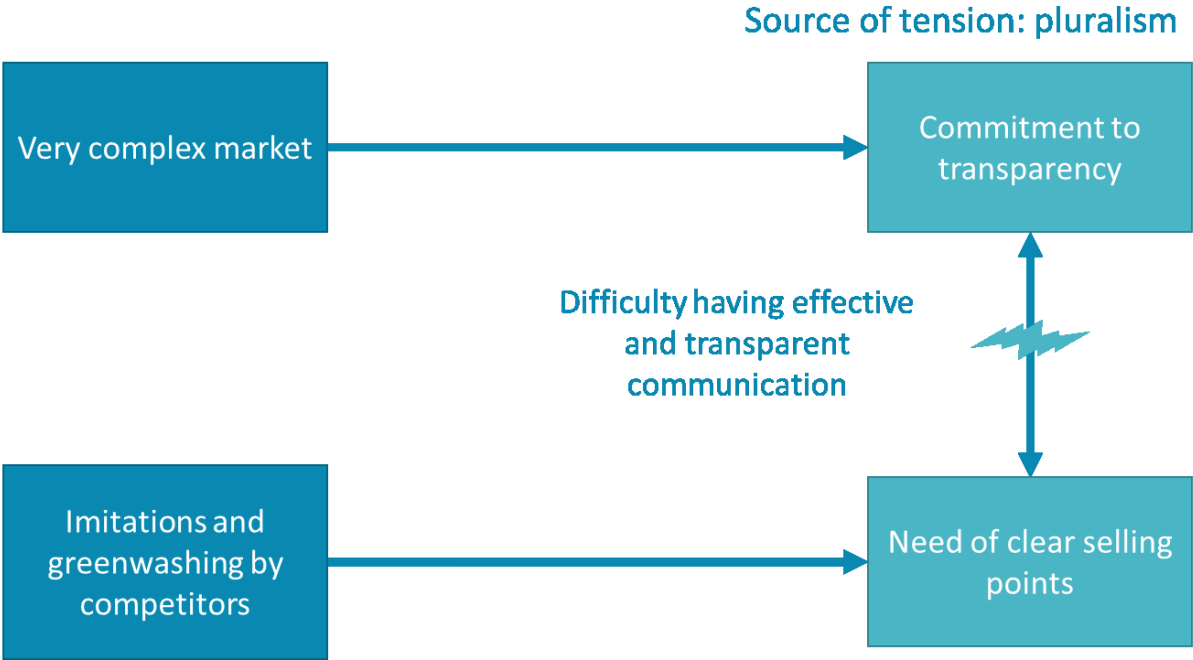
The complexity of the energy market makes transparent communication complicated. In addition, the cooperative faces competitors that use similar discourses while conforming to looser standard. A situation that increase the need to have straightforward selling arguments.

« It has to be said that competitors, especially new small ones selling green electricity... Since they go through the AREHN [regulated access to historical nuclear energy], buying nuclear energy at low price, then greening it with green certificates on the green certificate market [...] they are a bit doing unfair competition somehow because they allow themselves to do things we do not authorize ourselves.” (Interview 7, 2020)

“You have to announce what you are doing [...] with words, you see, that should be understandable by everyone. When I say everyone, it is not only our members, not only our clients, but especially our prospects.” (Interview 3, 2020)

The tension around transparency thus exist through external stakeholders: regulators who designed a rather complex institutional environment for the energy market, plus competitors who use more or less greenwashing in their marketing practices. This enters in tensions with the transparency values of the cooperative defended by militant members, and the need to satisfy commercial objectives.

FIGURE 42 – THE DIFFICULTY OF BEING TRANSPARENT WHILE SELLING IN A COMPLEX ENVIRONMENT



Centralising forces versus localism values

Finally, Kappa faces some issue in its governance with recurrent tensions between local cooperatives and its national cooperative. This tension can be explained by different centralising and decentralising forces.

The first Kappa cooperative created in 2005 was the national one. This is unusual in the cooperative movement where local cooperatives are generally created first, and then local cooperatives create a federation (meta-organisation) to mutualise resources. The case of Kappa may be explained by the centralised nature of the field in which it evolved at its beginning. The French state structure is centralised and so is its energy system. Kappa was created in the context of early liberalization of the electricity market and had to engage in active lobbying to benefit of the same conditions as the historical actor EDF. Notably to access feed-in tariffs mechanisms (above-market prices of renewable energy supply are compensated by state subsidies). The cooperative needed to interact frequently with the national government and with ally environmental NGO networks. It also had to comply with complex regulations. This may have caused centralising pressures explaining why a central structure existed from the beginning in Paris. With time, the competitive pressure of the

increasingly liberalised market added centralising pressure on the national cooperative as economies of scales became more important.

“There is still thresholds effects that... because the others next to you makes the competition crazy... If you, you’re not in a position to match the challenge because you have almost no customers and you weight nothing, well... Either you get bought out by someone else, which can’t happen for a cooperative, either you die.” (Interview 7, 2020)

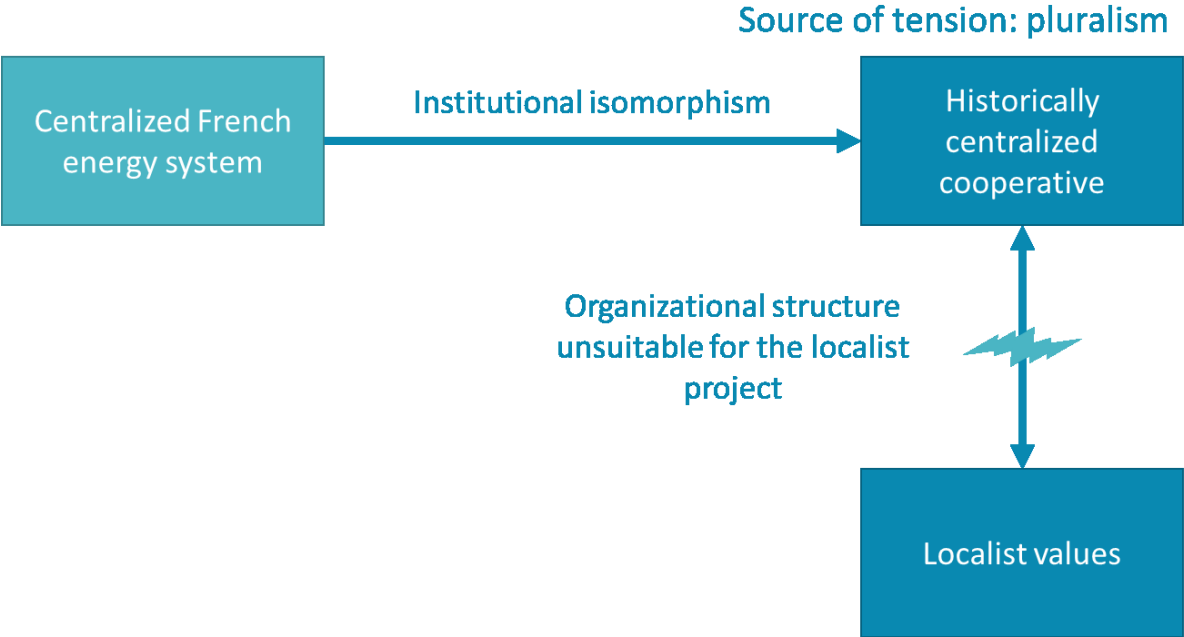
However, Kappa also had localism values. Around 2009, local cooperatives emerged in the form of relatively uncontrolled spin offs. Local cooperatives aimed to develop decentralised energy production investments, local control by citizens, stronger links with members and clients, consultancy on renewable energy production and services of energy demand management (Local cooperative development plan, 2009).

“It was a great idea to have this network of cooperatives, but well... It’s been 10 year now that we can’t make it work properly because there is one who has a lot, you see, in Paris, then there are the others who are coping all around.” (Interview 9, 2020)

The local cooperatives developed in parallel to the national one without an integrated governance system or business model linking the two levels. Bottom-up and top-down decision conflicted as the cooperatives were in practice interdependent but had no clear accountability to each other. The situation resulted in chronic tensions between national and local cooperatives, and controversies around decision-making processes.

“The official general meeting do not include the local Kappas who are the ones affected by the decisions of Kappa National. They are barely represented, and not until recently, at Kappa National and its general meeting... So... There is some kind of discrepancy.” (Interview 11, 2020)

FIGURE 43 – A LOCALIST PROJECT IN A CENTRALIZED ENVIRONMENT

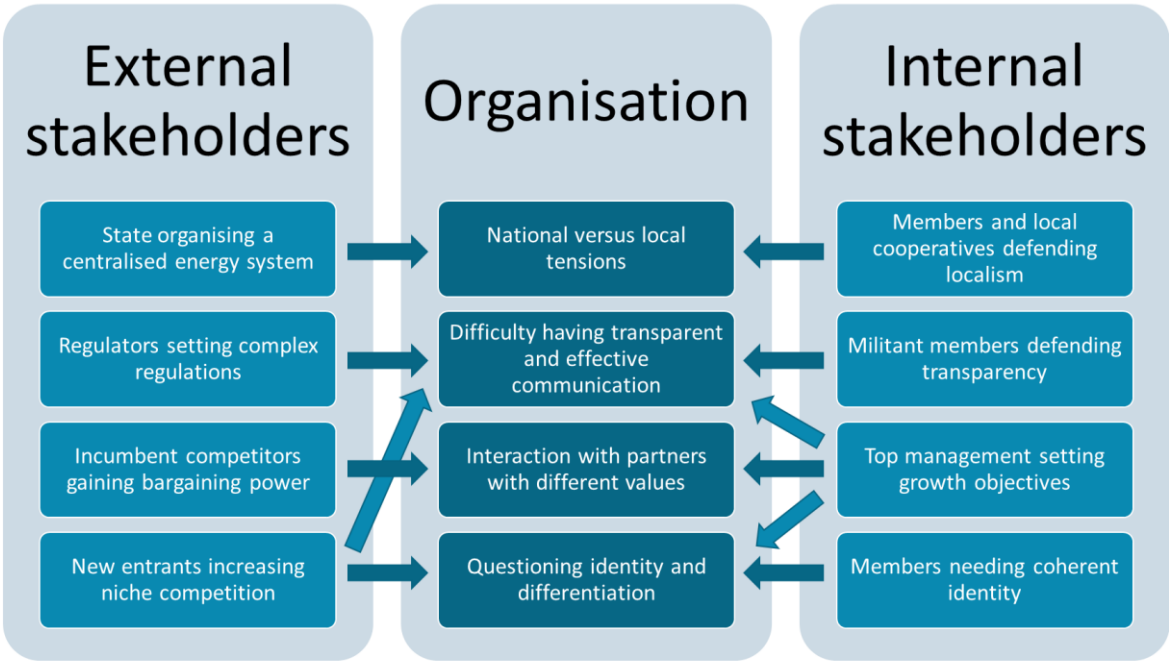


This last tension is related to more the history of the cooperative and the structure of its environment. The centralised nature of the French energy system forced the cooperative to organise in a centralised way to be able to communicate effectively with public actors. In parallel, local cooperatives developed and members shared localism values. This created tensions with the organisational structure of the cooperative.

Summary of external versus internal stakeholders tension

In the figure below, we summarize the environment-organisation tensions in the case of *Kappa* and the respective roles of internal and external stakeholders in their emergence.

FIGURE 44 - EXTERNAL VERSUS INTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS TENSIONS IN THE CASE OF KAPPA



5.4.b. Internal stakeholders tensions

The second category of tensions is the ones emerging from two or more organisational factors entering in contradiction. Each tension is channelled through multiple internal stakeholders such as employees, different types of members and partners. The first is the issue of maintaining the purity of the organisation’s values while the survival of the organisation may be at risk. The second is the problem of the heterogeneity of member’s expectations when each type of member may bring a different and important resource but have only partially compatible expectations. Finally, the last tension is the issue of fairness regarding the distribution of value across stakeholders.

Values versus viability

The cooperative encountered episodes of financial tensions due to various circumstantial (e.g. energy prices variations on the market) and managerial factors. In such situations, the scarcity of resources constrained the decisions of the cooperative who was left with less ‘ethical

leeway'. It thus had to borrow from banks or purchased electricity to producers who did not share its values.

"Today, there are people who would be willing, in the name of the economic rescue of Kappa, to kiss goodbye to things, temporarily okay, but temporarily, you know when it starts you never know when it stops..." (Interview 3, 2020)

The resulting tension is not a 'business versus values' tension but rather a 'values versus survival tension'.

"If Kappa risks to disappear because of dogmatic respect for strong values that are frequently not shared in our economic and societal environment, we won't be reaching our project's goal either." (Committee notice, 2018)

In this situation, the position of members varies: the more orthodox are unwilling to make any compromise on values, while ones that are more pragmatic put the survival of the organisation first. Some note that the organisation cannot achieve its values if it dies, others argue that ultimately it will not make sense to continue the project if all values are lost.

Militant cores versus prospect periphery

As the cooperative grows, some members questioned themselves about the increasing heterogeneity of its client base. Some members are militants strongly involved in the cooperative, providing volunteer time and buying capital shares.

"Our commitment and the attachment to Kappa's values in general is strongly appreciated by our members, especially the core of militants who support us from the start. Any breach is badly received." (Committee notice, 2018)

These members are thus a key resource for the organisation. At the same time, they often are the ones reacting to ethical compromises, holding the cooperative accountable and expecting continuity in the project. There is a form of moral contract between them and the cooperative to keep the values alive.

"That is often [client members] who have the biggest voting right among the colleges, because it is their project in the end. So... [Ethics] it's about image,

but because that's the image we sold to them to start with and because we try not to get too far from it. Also because it's thank to them that we have equity, that we have cash flow and that we can make the project grow." (Interview 3, 2020)

On the other hand, as we pointed in section 5.4.a. , the cooperative needs new clients and new members, and prospects may have different expectations regarding the cooperative goals.

"The old members came for their own values, but these values are not necessary the same for new members." (Interview 3, 2020)

There are thus questions regarding the preferences of the wide membership and prospects, who may be more price-sensitive than the core militant members may.

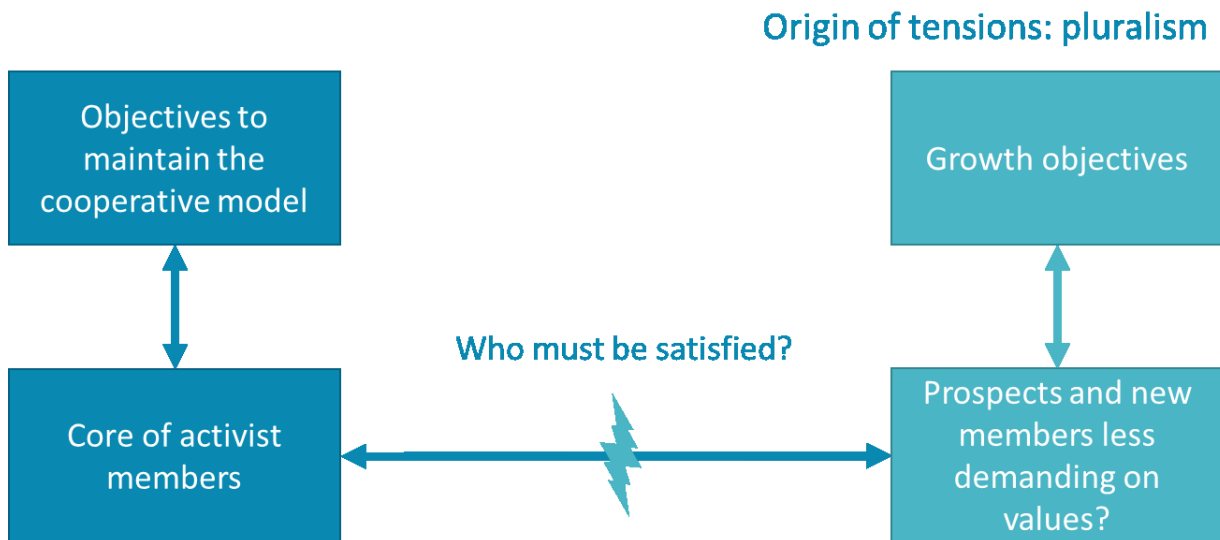
"They did a survey among a few members locally, you realise that the "local", people don't care. All they want is green and cheap electricity." (Interview 3, 2020)

Alternatively, increasing the number of non-militant members may generate issues to keep the cooperative governance alive as an increasing number of members may act as passive consumers.

"That make things complicated because Kappa rely precisely on a political model, a governance model that requires that a lot of people get involved, because it is not hierarchical system." (Interview 1, 2020)

In this situation, board members and managers who have to decide who to satisfy between possibly contradictory expectations of different sub-groups of stakeholders: militant members who are the core of the cooperative might expect a strict respect of values while a higher volume of clients and members have looser expectations and may be more price-sensitive.

FIGURE 45 – MANAGING THE DIVERSITY OF MEMBERS AND CUSTOMERS



Fair distributions, who deserves what?

Finally, the cooperative claims to have a ‘fair price’ policy, there was thus a need to discuss and define what is fair. As a multi-stakeholder cooperative, Kappa directly faced the issue of the diverging interests of its stakeholders and the impossibility to maximise the interests of them all.

“We see that no matter how we apply this principle [of fairness], the best price for producers (the highest possible?), the best salary for employees, the remuneration of subcontractors and partners (at market prices), the lowest prices for consumers, it is impossible to answer to the definition [of fairness] and satisfy at the same time all stakeholders.” (Committee notice, 2018)

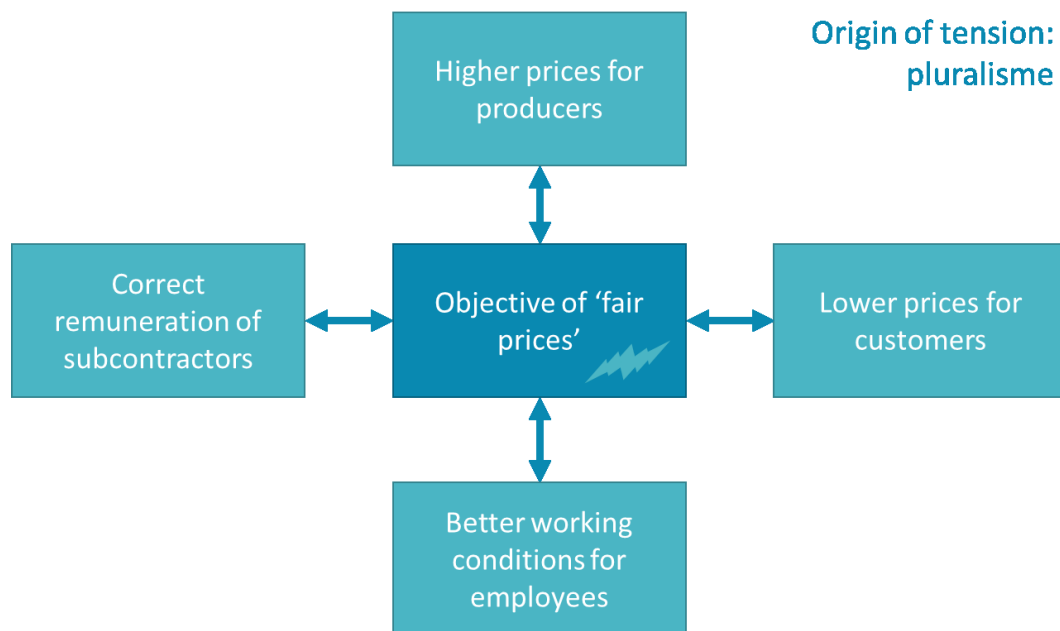
The cooperative had values and goals that could contradict each other’s such as: setting lower prices to attract clients or help people in energy precariousness, buying at higher price to support the development of renewable energy capacity, providing good work conditions for employees, avoiding financial loss for investors...

“You see, sometimes, that’s one ethics against another.” (Interview 12, 2020)

“Our ethics demands that we use the money our members have entrusted us in a reasonable and constructive way for the success of our project.”
(Committee notice, 2018)

The answer given by the cooperative to answer this issue was to rely on procedural forms of justice: make collective decisions and transparent to ensure the legitimacy of the cooperative’s policies, and ensuring transparency about the construction of price. The tension exist because of the diverging interests of internal stakeholders. However, it is managed through the multi-stakeholder governance of the cooperative that ensure a form of justice by including members in prices construction.

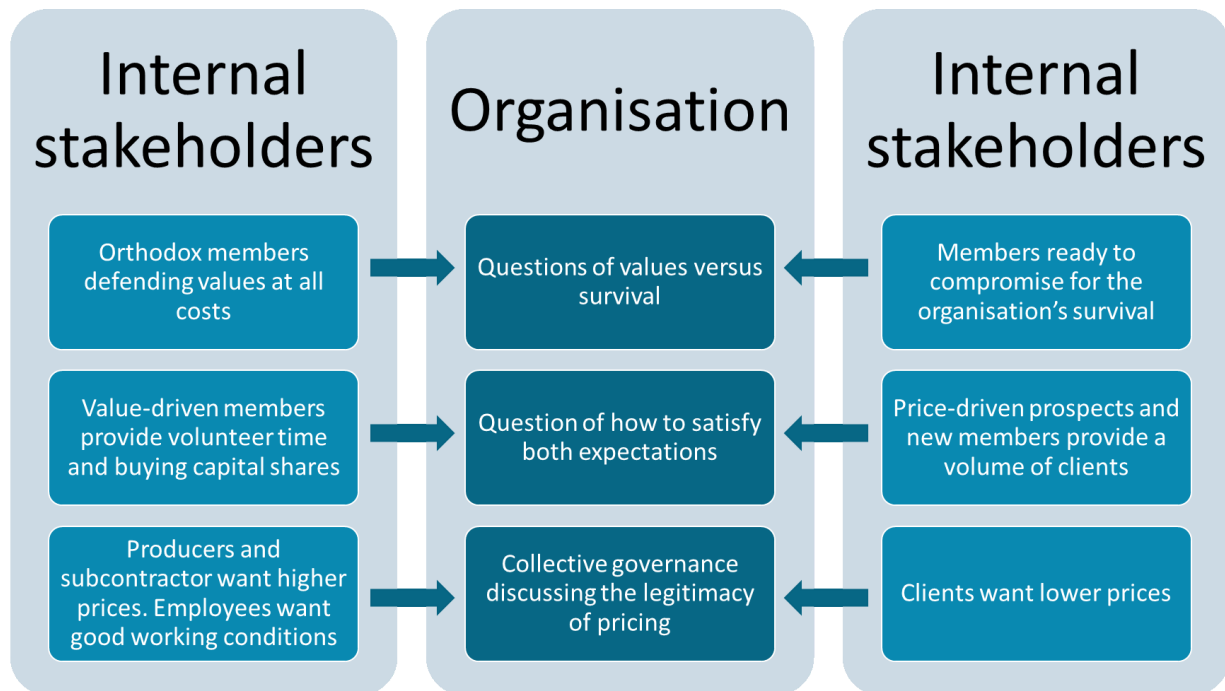
FIGURE 46 – MANAGING THE DIVERSITY OF STAKEHOLDER INTERESTS



Summary of internal stakeholders tensions

In Figure 47, we summarize the tensions emerging from the diversity of stakeholders' expectations in the case of *Kappa*.

FIGURE 47 – TENSIONS ACROSS INTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS IN THE CASE OF KAPPA



5.5. An ethics committee to discuss tensions

This section presents the ethics committee we investigated in this study and our analyse of how it could contribute to manage tension in the cooperative.

5.5.a. A group in charge of ethical issues

An ethics committee can be defined as “a group of people who are appointed to address ethical issues by a company” (Arik et al. 2018). Ethics committee are mainly studied in the field of healthcare, research, and bioethics, and the presence of such groups in companies is relatively recent (Arik et al. 2018). There is thus little research focusing specifically on business ethics committees. Research exist more broadly on corporate responsibility committees (Velte and Stawinoga 2020), “social responsibility committees, business conduct committees, environmental committees, sustainability committees” (Gennari and Salvioni 2019), social responsibility committee (Garcia-Blandon et al. 2020), etc... Such committee are mostly studied quantitatively and in a dichotomous way operationalized with a dummy variable

representing the committee as present or absent in the organisation. Board committees in general are rarely studied in a qualitative way (Alhossini et al. 2021). Similarly, the literature on tensions invites to deepen our understanding of how boards of directors and formalised organisational processes helps balancing social and business goals (Battilana and Lee 2014, p. 418). In this section, we answer to this call and describe how the ethics committee in the *Kappa* case contributed to tension management. An ethics committee can have a broad range of functions such as signalling ethical issues, organising collective discussions on ethics with stakeholders, informing about ethics policies, developing new ethical norms or policies... It can also be in charge of advising employees and management on ethical dilemmas, implementing ethics programs, keeping record of ethical problems or investigating them, evaluating or auditing ethics in the company, approving new activities on ethical criteria, or rewarding ethical initiatives (Arik et al. 2018). We detail below the three different stance that the Ethics committee of *Kappa* took regarding ethical challenges, then we propose hypothesis regarding how the committee's action may contribute to reduce tensions in the cooperative.

5.5.b. Committee stances: from helping hand to pointing finger

We identified three different stance that the Ethics committee took. The first and main one is to support decision-makers facing ethical challenges. The second is to keep a vigilant eye on the cooperative's activities and raising awareness on potential ethical pitfalls. The last one is to contribute to build the ethical positions of the cooperative.

Decision-making support

The committee was created in 2016 in a context of increasing controversies regarding partnerships. Some decisions made by the staff raised member's critiques, and this situation created the need for employee to get support to make decisions that may be ethically ambiguous.

"The Ethics committee was created to answer to the concerns of employees or board members who face specific situations." (Committee's annual report, 2017)

"There was a time where there was really a demand from the departments saying: we can't ask ourselves questions every 3 minutes. Humph, it's starting

to be a bit complicated, especially as we may get beaten up afterward.”

(Interview 9, 2020)

The first role of the committee was thus to help administrators and employees to make decisions. To do so decision maker were invited to refer to the committee by submitting their dilemmas. The committee members then deliberated collectively on the ethical question at stake and wrote a ‘notice’ (*avis*) summarising their thoughts and advising a position to take. The opinion of the committee was consultative only. Although it is difficult to evaluate the impact of the committee’s action, its members pointed that they had good feedback from the people who asked for their advice.

« There are people who, afterward, told us: your decision really helped me.”

(Interview 3, 2020)

At a collective level, the committee also contributed to build decision-making tools including ethical criteria when the answer the ethical question was not straightforward.

“So, we thought, we can’t just say yes or no. We have to think about what would be the criteria to take into account to answer this question. So we created an assessment grid.” (Interview 1, 2020)

Vigilance and itching powder

In a period where demands were scarcer, the committee members decided to start reflecting on topics chosen by themselves in relation to the actualities of the cooperative. Doing so, they started to act more as a vigilance body aiming to avoid mission drift by pushing other members to reflect on certain issues.

« Our mission that is to... well, [...] It’s to make sure the values of the network are correctly... how to put it? Defended.” (Interview 8, 2020)

Committee members indeed thought that the cooperative should avoid basking in its situation and call itself into question in order to avoid thinking of itself as ethic by essence.

“When you work in Social and Solidarity Economy, in cooperatives, in fair trade, the self-righteous, etc... The question of ethics, of morality, of doing

good and everything, it's important... and at the same it's a real brake because we say: [...] I'm not a bad capitalist who wants to crush every other business. So I'm nice. So ethics and all, it's intrinsic to me, I don't... I don't need to worry about it on the side, because it's included." (Interview 9, 2020)

"I quite like the diagnosis of a lack of call into question at Kappa, because – according to me – of a culture that is benevolent, altruist, eco-friendly, left-wing... so not really confrontational. We need some itching powder."

(Interview 2, 2020)

Contrary to the role of supporting decision maker, this vigilance stance led the committee members to write more critical (unsolicited) notices. This new role of the committee as a vigilance body playing a role of 'itching powder' was not always well received, especially by the ones being criticised, or when the committee was stepping on someone's' toes.

"The claim of ethics implies duties, including saying things that disturb the ones in power." (Committee's minutes, 2018)

Ethical orientations

The final stance we observed is for the committee to contribute to the definitions of the ethical orientations of the cooperative. For the committee members, ethics is what gives meaning to the cooperative and make it different from other companies.

"If there is no ethic behind, well, it's a bit useless." (Interview 10, 2020)

"We have less and less differentiation opportunities, and for me ethics is one.

(Interview 3, 2020)

The cooperative had written its values down in a charter and the decisions conforming clearly to it did not pose any problems. However, there were cases that were more ambiguous. The committee's role was to examine this type of case, deliberate each of them and progressively determine guidelines by creating a body of 'legal precedents' that people could rely on.

"In fact, ethics, it's... Its asking yourself questions about borderline cases"

(Interview 10, 2020)

Doing so, the committee constituted a dedicated group that could reflect more precisely on the values of the cooperative and how broad principles should be interpreted in specific cases.

“The objective was therefore to have an easily mobilized group that could quickly give an independent opinion on questions related to the coherence between our values, our projects, and Kappa's responses to operational opportunities or to its social commitment.” (Evaluation of the ethics group, 2017)

Summary of the ethics committee stances

To summarize, the three stances of the committee were supporting decision-makers, being vigilant about the respect of the cooperative’s values and contributing to build ethical orientations. These three stances are aligned with the main functions of a governance system: decision-making, monitoring and goal setting.

FIGURE 48 – STANCES OF THE ETHICS COMMITTEE IN FACE OF ETHICAL CHALLENGES



5.5.c. Tension relief mechanisms: deliberation, attention and legitimacy

In this section, we present how the committee may contribute to alleviate tensions. The first mechanism is to facilitate collective dynamics around ethics and build common interpretation.

The second is to offer a dedicated space that allows taking a step back from daily operation in order to analyse tensions with a fresh look. The final mechanism is helping to legitimize decisions on ethical basis.

Building collective ethic

The first mechanism is to build a collective interpretation of ethics through collective deliberations. The project to create an Ethics committee emerged when the cooperative's network was still loosely formalised. Common principle across the cooperatives had just been formalised through a charter of common principles, but there was still worries about the possible diverging interpretations of values. One initial goal of the Ethics committee was thus to avoid diverging interpretation of ethics and values in the network of cooperative.

“RISK: personal reading of ethics by each member of the cooperatives, if nothing is done.” (Board meeting minutes, 2015)

One more informal goal of this group, according to its initiator, was to keep collective discussions about ethics and values going across cooperatives and strengthen the relationship between them. The initial members of the committee included people from all the cooperatives and was an opportunity to build a collective dynamic.

“I said: we have to keep going, we have to do stuff where all the network participate.” (Interview 9, 2020)

Later, the committee struggled to continue having members from all the different cooperatives, but its member still thought it was an interesting place to involve members beyond the general meeting. The body of reports and notices written by the committee also happened to be helpful to some staff who wanted to get familiar with the tensions and issues encountered by the cooperative related to its principles. The documents thus helped to socialise some new staff to the cooperative's values.

“The production manager, in Paris, when he arrived at Kappa, started by reading all the notices. He said: I am going to get an idea about the substantive discussion there is at Kappa. And to get an Idea... it won't be the

bylaws, not the thing, it's reading the notices that will show me where the potential pitfalls are and how we can overcome them." (Interview 1, 2020)

Undivided attention and meta-communication

The second mechanism is to dedicate undivided attention to ethics and to meta-communicate about the challenges without being caught in them. The literature pointed that tensions are difficult to manage because the one facing them have to divide their attention between competing issues. The members of the Ethics committee indicated that their role was important because they were able to dedicate undivided attention to ethics, without the constraints of time, decision-making responsibilities, power dynamics, personal interests, or daily operations.

"It's more to help [the staff] take a step back, by making them see elements that, perhaps, they missed... That they missed because they were really into the technical side and focusing on all the advantages that, in their view, [a project] could bring." (Interview 7, 2020)

"An ethics committee is really a committee... For me, that's what interests me, in any case. Its great advantage is that it is above the melee. It gives a top view." (Interview 1, 2020)

The committee thus constitute a form of compartmentalisation of the reflexion on ethics by proposing a dedicated space and time to reflect on it. It allowed decision-makers to 'take a step back' from their daily situation thanks to an external eye. Thus, the ethics committee contributed to alleviate tensions by allowing meta-communication (i.e. communication about communication or other pieces of information). Tracy noted indeed that "By meta-communicating, a person steps outside the paradox frame and describes the dilemma and, thus, avoids hearing tensions as double binds." (Tracy 2004, p. 142).

"Decisions are made as far as possible in good conscience. And the Ethics committee allows that, and allows that – in all the ecosystem – on the board member's side as well as on the employee's side, people are aware of the

great question and tensions that appear in the course of the project's evolution." (Interview 10, 2020)

Legitimation of decisions

The last mechanism is to provide arguments to legitimize decisions. The events that actually rushed the creation of the committee were a series of controversies regarding certain decisions that created pressure on the staff and boards members who made them. There was thus a need to legitimate decisions perceived as ambiguous in order to avoid attacks, either by 'dogmatic' members, or by potential ill-intended competitors.

"There are topics that are extremely sensitive for some members and which can be extremely pernicious for the membership's life. Because if they are influent in their local cooperative, they can make a huge mess. And they can discredit the whole cooperative for a vision, well, very fragmented or personal of a phenomena, a fact. And at this point, they break everything." (Interview 3, 2020)

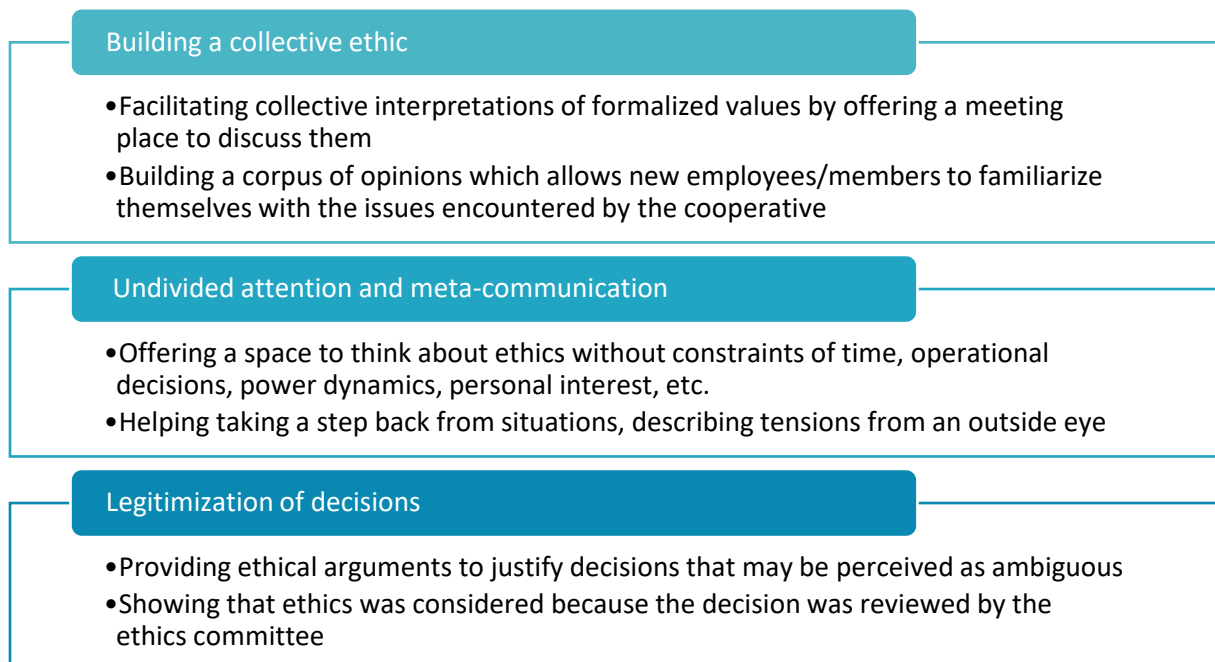
"It is not black or white. [...] But after at least, you have a way to... to justify a position to your clients and members, because there is a neutral body who gave an opinion." (Interview 3, 2020)

The committee allows to argument, explain decisions on an ethical basis, and thus avoid contestation by proving that ethics was taken into account. We may want to distinguish here two possible legitimizing mechanisms: the fact that decision-makers have more substantial arguments to justify their decisions on an ethical basis and the fact that a 'third party' has reviewed the decision.

Summary of tension relief mechanisms

To summarize, the tension relief mechanisms we identified through the example of Kappa's ethics committee are building collective interpretation of ethics, offering the opportunity to dedicate undivided attention to ethics and legitimizing decisions. If we go back to our classification of tension management responses presented in section 5.2.d. the mechanisms we identified enter the categories of compromise and notably the strategies consisting in building consensus and changing perspectives on tensions.

FIGURE 49 – TENSION RELIEF MECHANISMS THE COMMITTEE CONTRIBUTE TO



5.6. Conclusion

The goal of this paper was to understand how social enterprises manage tensions. In order to do so, we explored two research questions: “How different tensions emerge in social enterprises?” and “How ethics management tool can help dealing with tensions?” We first reviewed the literature on tensions in order to find an adequate theoretical framework. We compared how tensions are conceptualized in various approaches using terms such as paradoxes, dualities, dialectics, contradictions, dilemmas, tensions, and hybridity. We clarified the different definitions by separating different elements: the factors that create tension, the

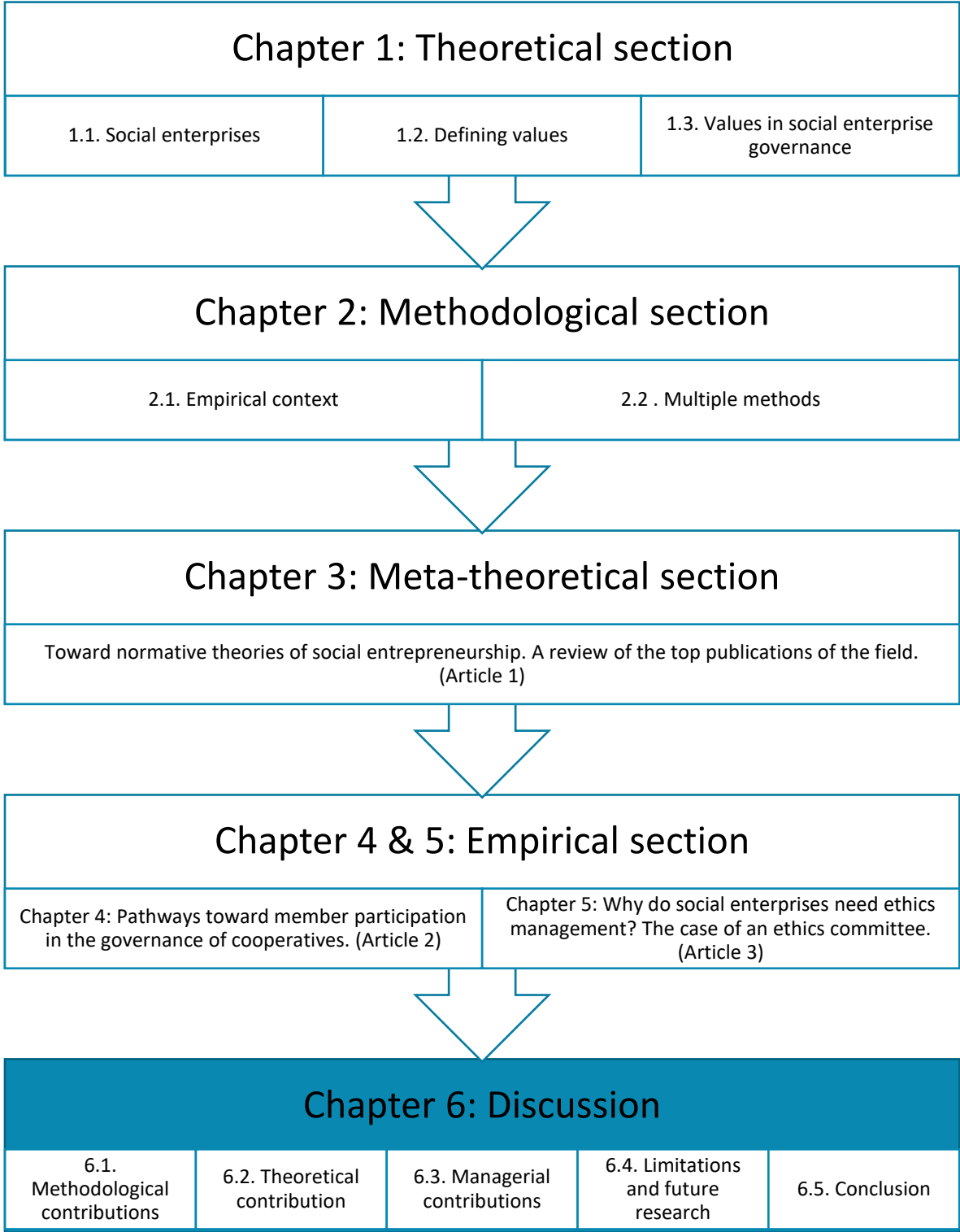
situation in which factors interact to create tension, and the potential responses to tensions. Our literature review distinguished between factors originating from within an organization (goals, values, identity) involving internal stakeholders and those stemming from its external environment (regulations, resources, institutional fields) through external stakeholders. We then explored how these factors can lead to tensions, driven by pluralism, change, and scarcity. We also discussed various management strategies for responding to these pressures and tensions, which include acceptance, resistance, compromise, selection, and the use of management tools. In order to identify which of the identified factors and strategies manifested in social enterprises, we conducted a qualitative, longitudinal, study of an ethics committee in a multi-stakeholder cooperative.

We propose a methodological contribution by showing how the network function in Atlas.Ti software can be used to construct a processual visual map of a case. Our empirical results show that the both institutional and market environment entered in tension with the values of the cooperative by influencing its partnership choices, its structuration, its identity and its communication practices. At the organizational level, tensions arise between preserving the purity of the organization's values and ensuring the organization's survival. There are also tensions related to the diverse expectations of members, each of whom may bring different and valuable resources, as well as issues concerning the distribution of value among stakeholders. Our results shows that institutional and resource-based theories may be complementary as values (conceptualised through institutional theory) are often in conflict with resource acquisition goals. We also show that taking a stakeholder approach is useful to identify how various pressure come into being and interact.

Our study of Kappa's ethics committee enabled us to establish a connection between the literature on tension management and ethics management tools. We identified the role that this group played within the organization by listing three different stances: supporting, provoking thought and building ethical positions, and three mechanisms that could alleviate tensions: building collective dynamics, taking a step back and legitimising.

The limitations of our study are that the tension relief mechanisms we identified may only tackle short-term tensions and not some of the deeper ones we identified in the tension

analysis. Further research is needed to complete the picture of the possible tools social enterprises may use to manage tensions and to assess their effectiveness. We suggest that investigating the strategic level may be useful to address the question of deeper tensions and that a stakeholder approach could be relevant at this level.



Chapter 6. Discussion

In this thesis, we explored **how normative principles intervene in “social enterprises” both as a concept and as an empirical object of study**. We developed our research in three sub-questions answered in three studies looking at different objects of research. We first asked: **what are the values embedded in social enterprise conceptualisations?** We answered this question by conducting a content analysis of the most influential literature on social enterprises. It led us to identify the main normative ideas present in the literature, point the ambiguity of some concepts, identify critical stances and underline the tensions across theories or between theories and practices. Secondly, we looked at the individual level and explored the research question: **What are the conditions leading members to contribute to the governance?** The results of our qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) of survey responses from cooperative members showed that a strong ecological orientation is probably a necessary condition for being an active participant in the governance of an energy cooperative offering weak economic benefits. In addition, having another member in one’s social network, having training or experience, having perceived skills, strongly identifying with the cooperative and working full time are all INUS⁵ causes of participation in governance. Finally, we investigated the organisational level and explored **how tensions emerge in social enterprises and how they are managed**. Through a qualitative and longitudinal study of an ethics committee in a multi-stakeholder cooperative, we showed that the both institutional and market environment entered in tension with the values of the cooperative by influencing its partnership choices, its structuration, its identity and its communication practices. At the organizational level, tensions arise between preserving the purity of the organization's values and ensuring the organization's survival. There are also tensions related to the diverse expectations of members, each of whom may bring different and valuable resources, as well as issues concerning the distribution of value among stakeholders. Our results shows that institutional and resource-based theories may be complementary as values (which can be conceptualised through institutional theory) are often in conflict with resource acquisition goals. We also show that taking a stakeholder approach is useful to identify how various

⁵ “insufficient but necessary part of a condition which is itself unnecessary but sufficient for the result” (Mackie, 1965, p. 246 cited by Mahoney, 2008, p. 418).

pressure come into being and interact. In addition, we contributed to the literature on ethics management and tension management by describing different stances the committee took: supporting, provoking thought and building ethical positions, and mechanisms that could alleviate tensions: building collective dynamics, taking a step back and legitimising decisions.

In the next sections, we discuss our most relevant contributions in terms of method, theory and practical implications. We finish with limitations, future research suggestions and concluding thought.

TABLE 18 – THREE RESEARCH SUB-QUESTIONS AND MAIN RESEARCH FINDINGS (SOURCE: AUTHOR’S WORK)

Paper	Research question	Main findings
Paper 1 Toward normative theories of social entrepreneurship. A review of the top publications of the field.	What are the values embedded in SE conceptualisations?	Identify: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Normative ideas of the literature • Critical stances • Ambiguous concepts • Tensions across theories • Tensions between theories and practices
Paper 2 Drivers of participation in community energy: the case of an energy cooperative in France	What are the conditions leading members to contribute to the governance?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Values are necessary but not sufficient in absence of incentives to participate • In addition, various combination of resources (skills, experience, and occupation) and other motivations (social identification) can lead to participation.
Paper 3 Why do social enterprises need ethics management? The case of an ethics committee in a multi-stakeholder energy cooperative.	How tensions emerge in social enterprises and how are they managed?	Tensions comes from: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutional and market environment • Heterogeneous members’ expectations • Heterogeneous resources origin In face of ethical issues, an ethics committee can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support members and employees • Provoke thought • Contribute to build ethical positions It can alleviate tensions by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contributing to collective dynamics • Offering a different perspective • Legitimizing decisions

6.1. Methodological contributions

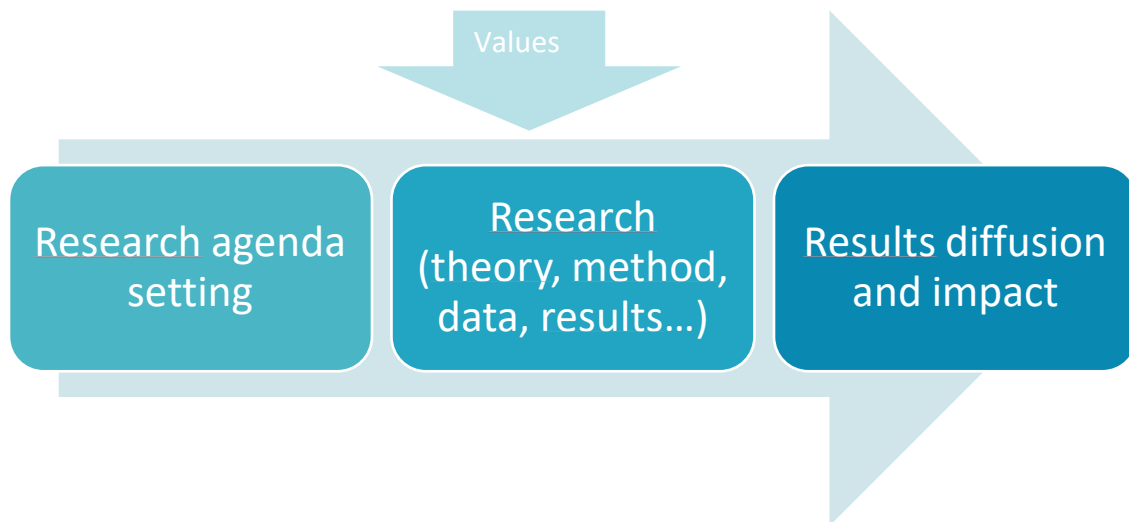
In this section, we present two main methodological contributions stemming from our research. First, we propose avenues of reflexions for developing more reflexive research and dealing with values when studying social enterprises. Secondly, we show how theoretical reasoning and qualitative analysis can be supported by the use of semantic networks. In the following sections, we clarify these methodological contributions and suggest practical applications flowing from them.

6.1.a. Dealing with values in research

Our first methodological contribution is meta-theoretical and reflect on axiology (values) in research. It is a reflexion on theory, belonging to philosophy of science along with ontological and epistemological reflexions, as we discussed in section 2.2.a. It is based on the results of our first project presented in Chapter 3. and existing literature on the topic. The ideas introduced below were presented at the *10 èmes rencontres des perspectives critiques en management, Recherche de crise, recherche en crise ?, 7 et 8 septembre 2021 – Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgique.*

In this section, we discuss how to deal with normativity in social enterprise research. Like Douglas (2009), we use an idealized description of the research process to analyse how values may intervene at each step. Such process include deciding which question to pursue, making methodological choices, recording data and interpreting the evidence to accept or reject theories (Douglas 2009, p. 88). We add to this process the question the diffusion of research results and their impact on the world. For each step, we propose practical questions researchers can ask themselves to improve their reflexivity.

FIGURE 50 - WHERE VALUES CAN INTERVENE IN THE RESEARCH PROCESS (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



Setting the agenda

A research agenda can be defined as a “Framework that allows you to attack a topic from multiple vantage points” and “the actions you take to organize your interests and work” (Ertmer and Glazewski 2014). In this section, we look at the issue of ‘setting’ the research agenda. Just like political sociologists look at how a political agenda is set (meaning how problems become public problems getting the attention of policy makers), we question here how problems become research problems and get the attention of researchers. Values can intervene when one has to decide what is worth studying and being known. We may see the justification of such decisions in introduction of research publications when authors discuss the relevance of their topic.

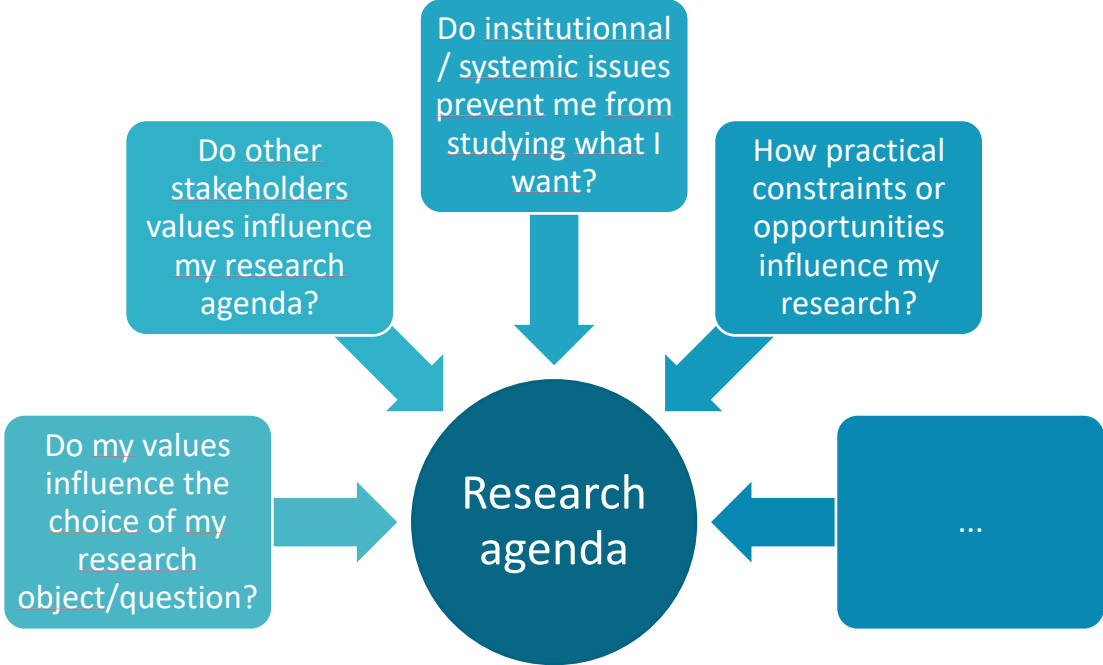
For Harding, choosing a research question is always a value-laden choice because it is about selecting and defining a problem (Fricker 1994). Research projects can thus be embedded in what Longino calls contextual values, defined as preferences about what ought to be (Longino 1990), in contrast with epistemological values that defines the right way to access knowledge. We may decide to study a topic because of personal or societal ‘value premises’ (Myrdal 1969). They may influence what we think is worth studying, or what society expect us to research. In fact social and ethical values can legitimately intervene in the choice of a research agenda (Douglas 2009) because “The question of what should be known is not itself a scientific matter. It is a matter of ends, values and interests.”(Johnson 1999, p. 456). However, it is difficult to know who should be the legitimate actors to set research agendas: the researchers, in the

name of intellectual freedom, policy makers because they represent the people or the actors under study because they should decide what should be known about themselves? Philosopher of science, and notably relativists “stresses the salience of divergent and often conflicting interests, values, and power of stakeholders in any study, and the impossibility of serving them all.” (Bechara and Van de Ven 2007, p. 24).

In addition, values are not the only factors influencing our research agenda. We may be motivated by other reasons, such as curiosity (A. Sen 1980), and our topic choices may be limited by practical opportunities and constraints. Indeed, researchers are subject to different pressures orienting their research agenda. General societal expectations, businesses, funding and hiring criteria or other stakeholder can influence research orientations (Myrdal 1969; Wazir et al. 2021). We may have to choose topic strategically to respond to professional constraints such as publishing in research journals or fitting the standards of the discipline. Practical issues such as availability of sources/data or the possibility to access the field (language, geography, personal proximity...) will also determine what we will eventually study. At the global level, all these drivers may result in some systemic bias in terms of object studied or type of research questions asked. In the case of social entrepreneurship in management research, we can posit that there is more research focusing on how businesses can make profit than on how they can contribute to fix inequalities. The attention of a majority of researchers can be oriented toward a small range of issues and this can lead to epistemic injustice and leave minorities or dominated people undocumented (B. D. S. Santos 2015).

As individual researchers, we may not be able to address all the issues listed above. However, we agree with Myrdal (1969) to say that we should “expose the valuations to full light, make them conscious, specific, and explicit” (p. 56). In Figure 51 below, we propose questions researchers can ask themselves to identify values and practical problems that may influence their research agenda choices. When trying to identify values in their research and theories, we believe our readers can also find inspirations in the political philosophies we present in Appendix A and in the analysis of social enterprise research conducted in Chapter 3.

FIGURE 51 - QUESTIONS TO ASK YOURSELF WHEN CHOOSING A RESEARCH AGENDA (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



Doing research

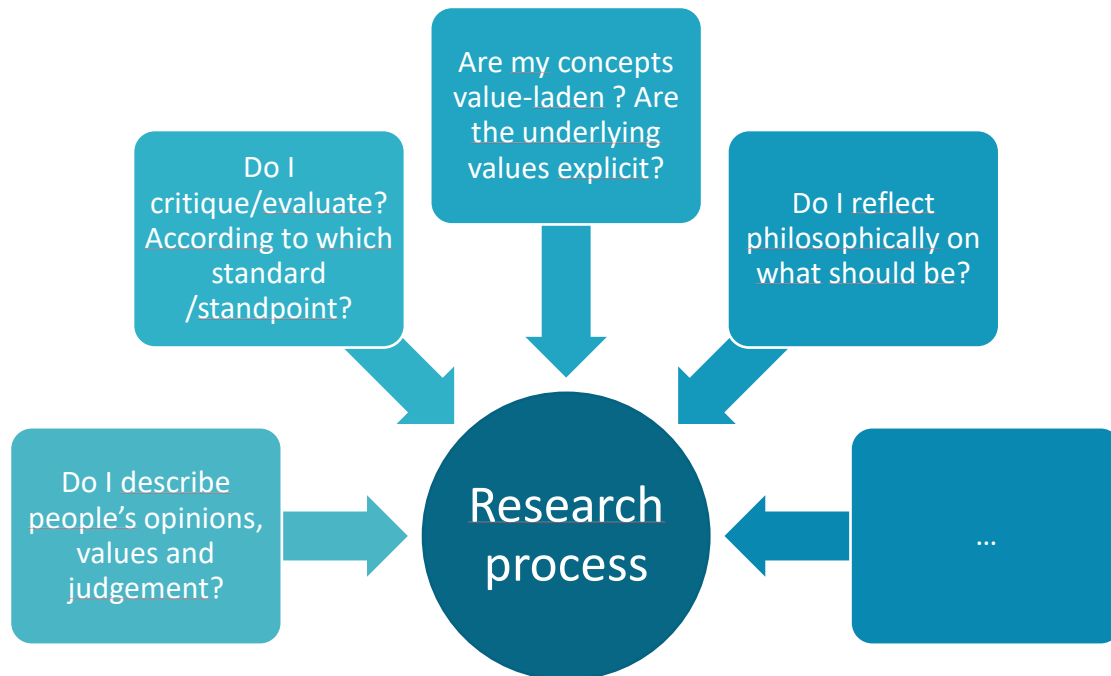
In this section, we discuss how values may be present in the research process. As issues of deontology in extensively discussed in the literature, we would like to focus here more specifically on the links between values and theory and the different stances researcher can take in this matter.

The first possible stance is to describe the values of the people and organisations under study. This is a stance taken for example by pragmatic sociologists who aim to describe people’s valuation processes and ethical arguments without judging their rightness (Lemieux 2018). Such descriptions can be done without any political intentions. As Sen note about the description/prescription distinction “to describe what prescriptions are made is a description, not a prescription.” (A. Sen 1980, p. 367). In the case of social entrepreneurship, one can study how social entrepreneur define themselves and their values. This is the position we took to conduct our research in Chapter 5. in order to describe how the organisation’s value was linked to different forms of tensions.

The second possible stance is to be critique or evaluative. This can be more or less explicit and can manifest itself by the use of value-laden concepts. In social entrepreneurship research, this may be reflected in the outcome studied. The definition of concepts such as performance, success, failure, positive/negative impact/externalities, or value creation may reflect different values. For example, in entrepreneurship theory, definitions of value tend to rely on classic economic sciences in which define value as utility. By framing value as utility, the research is likely to align with utilitarian thinking. The elaborated theories will capture the creation of utility rather than for example the fulfilment of rights. Similarly, research questions asking whether a social enterprise is democratic, or fair, require assumptions about what democracy or fairness means, which can be a complex philosophical task. It has been noted for example in the field of critical management studies that “Although a practitioner of CMS is quite happy to point to something being ‘bad’ or ‘problematic’, they are far less likely to be able to innumerate the political bases upon which they might consider something to be ‘good’” (Spicer et al. 2009, p. 553). Clear assumptions on normative criteria can thus help conducting rigorous critical or evaluative research.

The third stance is to reflect on purely normative theory on what a ‘good’ organisation should look like or on what goals enterprises should aim for. In the field of social entrepreneurship, we note that a well-defined normative logic is lacking (Nicholls 2010a, p. 617). Similarly, for the neighbouring field of social economy, scholars have pointed the “absence of social philosophies in justifying contemporary social economic practice—while they were very present in the social economy initiatives in other periods” (Moulaert and Ailenei 2005, p. 2049). We elaborate on this point in section 3.4.c.

FIGURE 52 - QUESTIONS TO ASK YOURSELF WHEN DEALING WITH VALUES IN RESEARCH (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



Disseminating results

The final question to consider is how the diffusion of our research results may affect the world. Relying on the literature on performativity and relevance of management research, we identified four possible ways research can influence practices.

First, the diffusion of theories can lead individual to change behaviour, reinforcing or diminishing the validity of the theory in the future. “Barnesian performativity stresses how combinations of scientific devices gradually influence the world in a way that increasingly validates the science undergirding these devices” (Barnes, 1983, discussed by Abrahamson & Berkowitz, 2016). Inversely, counter-performativity occurs when “The enactment of a scientific theory’s devices in the business world tends to invalidate the undergirding science” (Abrahamson and Berkowitz 2016, p. 374). For example, it has been shown that teaching utility-maximizing model of human motivations tend to reinforce egoist behaviour (Abrahamson and Berkowitz 2016, p. 373). Inversely, teaching social entrepreneurship may reinforce student’s intention to engage in such form of entrepreneurship or push them to behave more altruistically.

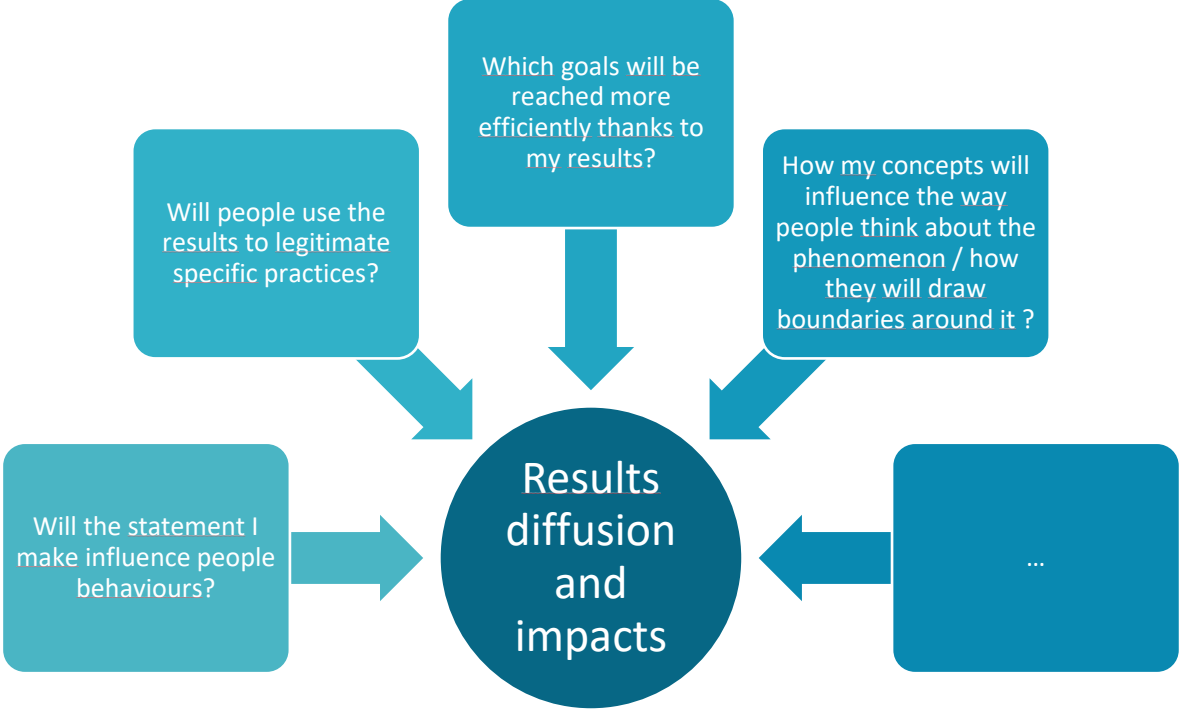
Secondly, actors can use theories to build their legitimacy. Generic performativity describe situations where parts of theories such as concepts and vocabulary are used symbolically. Such symbolic use of scientific management devices can be a way to gain legitimacy and support from certain stakeholders by appearing well managed (MacKenzie, 2007 discussed by Abrahamson & Berkowitz, 2016). This can be associated with 'legitimative relevance' in which scientific knowledge is used as a 'form of credentializing' or "a rhetoric device [...] to legitimate a choice that is already made to third parties" (Nicolai and Seidl 2010, pp. 1268–1269)

Thirdly, the knowledge we create can be used instrumentally. Social scientists can provide 'schemes' that helps to sort different aspects of a decision situation into categories. As a result, such statements and schemes can become embedded in management tools and shape practices. We propose such schemes in our managerial contributions to help actors identifying relevant questions about tension management, and we link our propositions with existing management tools such as stakeholder analysis. Next, scientists can provide 'technological rules or recipes' guiding actions, for example statements like "if you want to achieve Y in situation Z, then perform action X" (Nicolai and Seidl 2010, pp. 1266–1267). In our managerial contribution, we highlight such 'recipes' to help cooperatives manage their members' participation. It is important to note that the 'recipes' we are able to identify depends on the choices we make about research questions upstream in the research process. Indeed, different dependent variable or outcome (what we want to achieve) and independent variable/conditions (how we can do it) will be relevant to different goals and different actors.

Finally, social scientists can contribute to build social reality. Researchers provides linguistic constructs that can "change the way we think and communicate about the world" (Nicolai and Seidl 2010, p. 1268). Actors and policymakers may use the definitions and concepts created by social scientists. Callon and Latour have for example noted that sociologists contribute to define what actors are and their will, and can thus become 'macro-actor' acting as spokesperson (Callon and Latour 1981). In the case of social enterprises, some countries have definitions and policies concerning these organizations that precedes research on social entrepreneurship. However, others policymakers have no ideas concerning this. In the latter case, they may import definitions from abroad, or use definitions provided by social scientist as reference point. Definitions can thus have a performative effect. This is why some

researchers argued that ultimately, deciding which organizations to include under the 'social enterprise' umbrella is a political decision (Lyon and Sepulveda 2009).

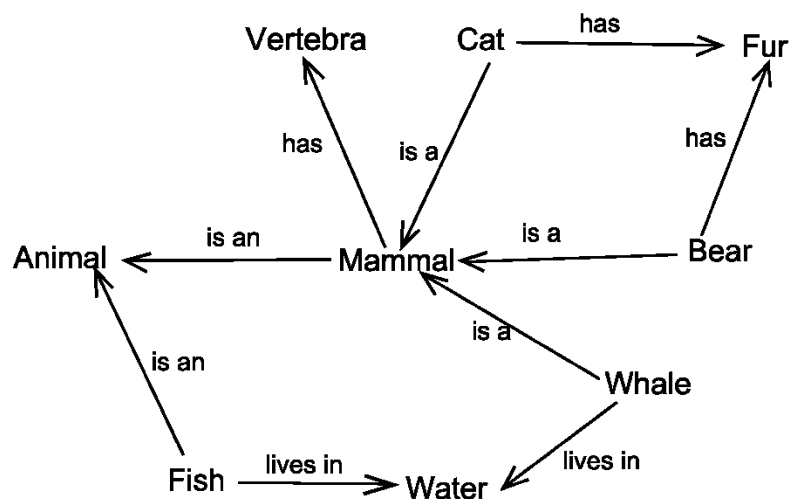
FIGURE 53 - QUESTIONS TO ASK YOURSELF ABOUT THE IMPACT OF YOUR RESEARCH (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



6.1.b. Semantic network approaches

In this section, we discuss the relevance of semantic networking methods at different steps of research. Indeed, in each of our research projects, we used some form of semantic network to support our reasoning processes. A semantic network is a network representing semantic relations between concepts. Figure 54 below gives an example of a semantic network.

FIGURE 54 – EXAMPLE OF SEMANTIC NET (SOURCE: PUBLIC DOMAIN ILLUSTRATION)

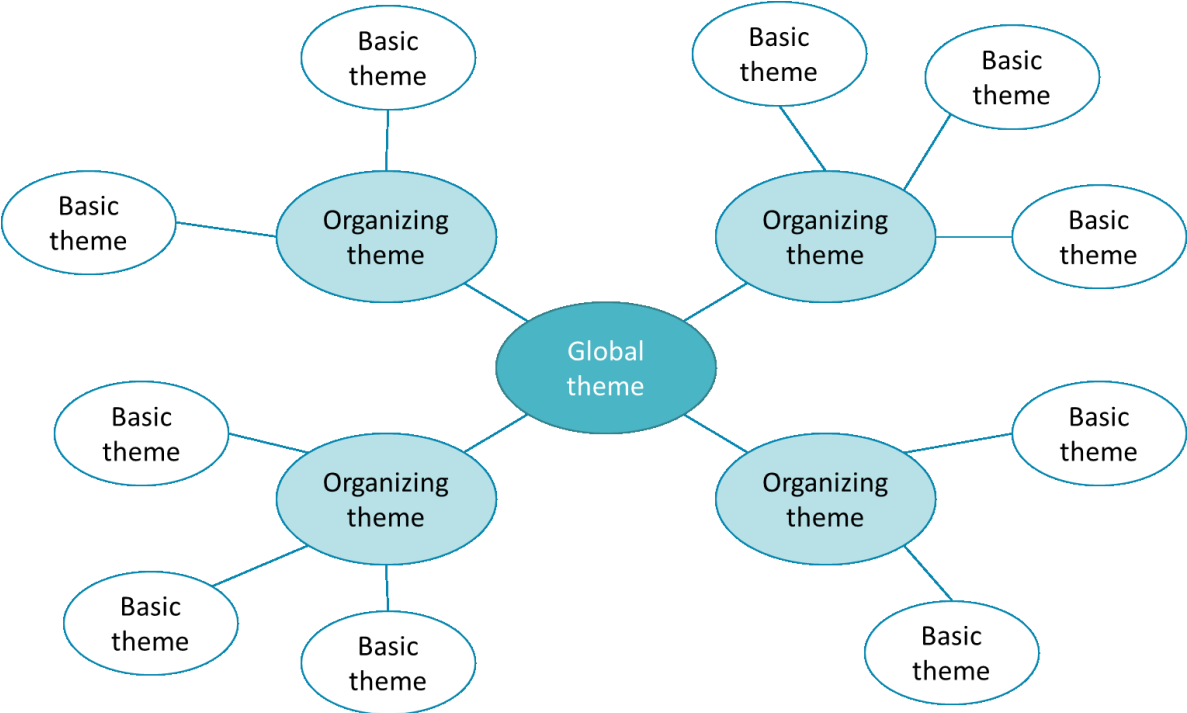


As a method, semantic network analysis usually designate computer-based analysis of word-co-occurrences in texts that allows to build a network graph and identify themes (Bernard et al. 2016; Segev 2021). Here, we are interested in more manual approaches to semantic network. In the method literature these approach are discussed under the terms of thematic networks or concept networks.

Thematic network

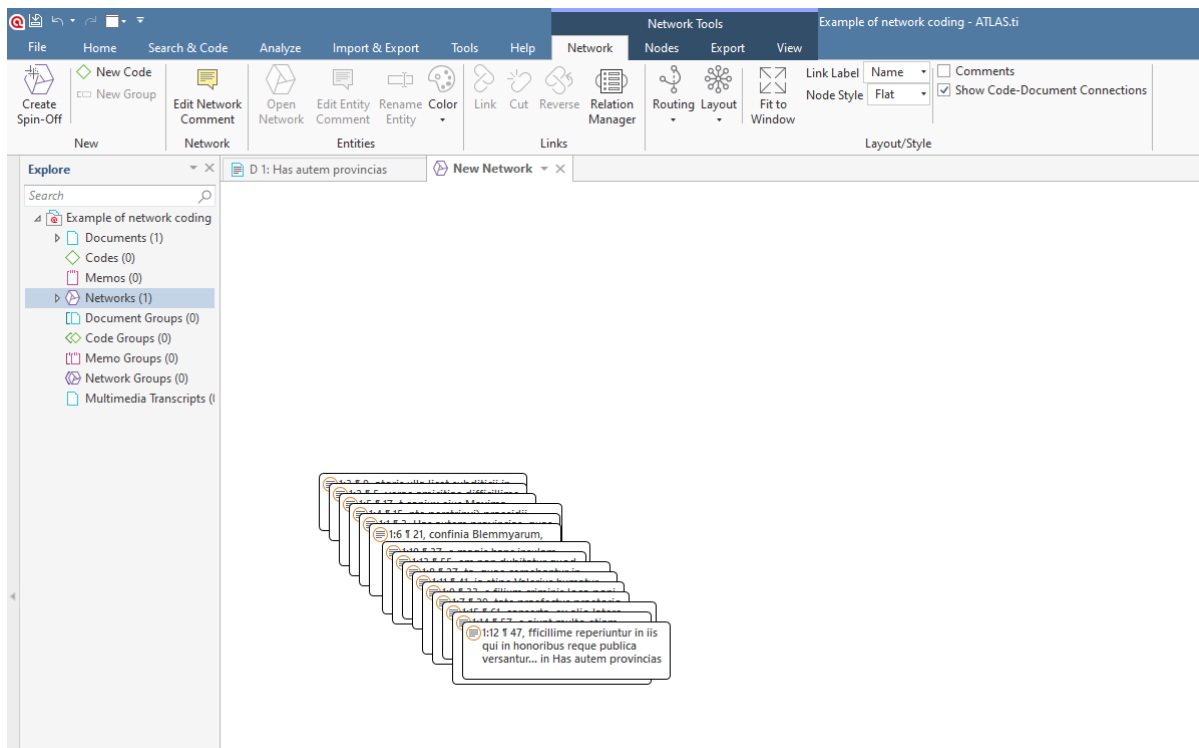
A thematic network is “simply a way of organizing a thematic analysis of qualitative data” (Attride-Stirling 2001, p. 287). It is compatible with classical coding strategies such as grounded theory (Corbin and Strauss 1990) and resemble the coding process we employed for the paper presented in Chapter 5. Thematic networks can be used to visualise the data structure after identifying themes and help structure and interpret the data (Attride-Stirling 2001). Figure 55 present the typical structure of a thematic network.

FIGURE 55 - STRUCTURE OF A THEMATIC NETWORK (SOURCE: ATTRIDE-STIRLING 2001)

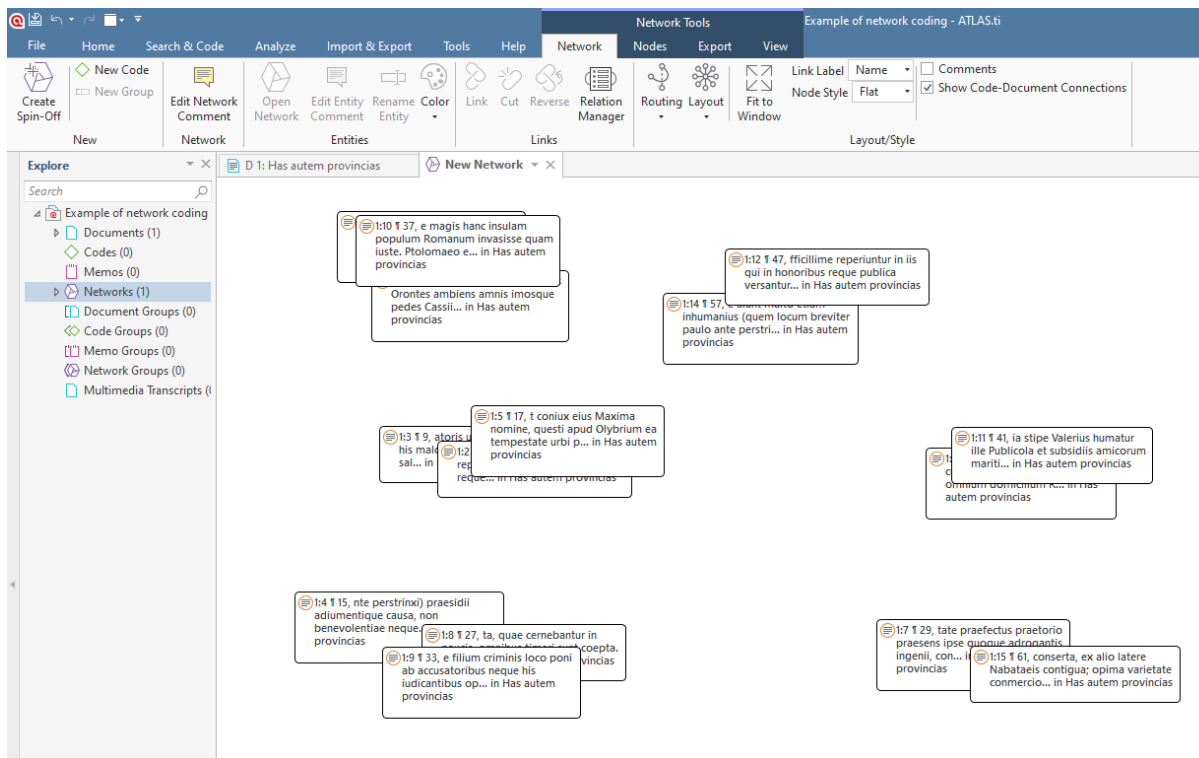


In our research process, we used thematic networking in a more radical way than just use it to explore coding that has been already done. We used the network function of the software Atlas.Ti to do the actual coding from the text segments. The network space in the Atlas.Ti interface allows coding the data as if one was actually cutting text pieces and sitting in front of a wall with all the quotations and all the codes as sticky notes and strings to connect them, except there is no problem of space to put them. (There may be an issue of memory space on the computer though when to many items are displayed. We had to split our graphs into several ones to avoid overloading the interface.) Having the text fragments spread out allows a more organic coding process, as it may have been the case with scissors and paper coding before the apparition of coding software. With the network function, is possible to group items visually and incrementally depending on their similarity. This way it is possible to let some text fragment unlabelled until the groups created make sense. We found that this process avoided creating an unnecessary number of codes that would have to be merged or split when new data modifies the coding structure that start to emerge. We show in Figure 56 a simplified example of what this coding process looks like.

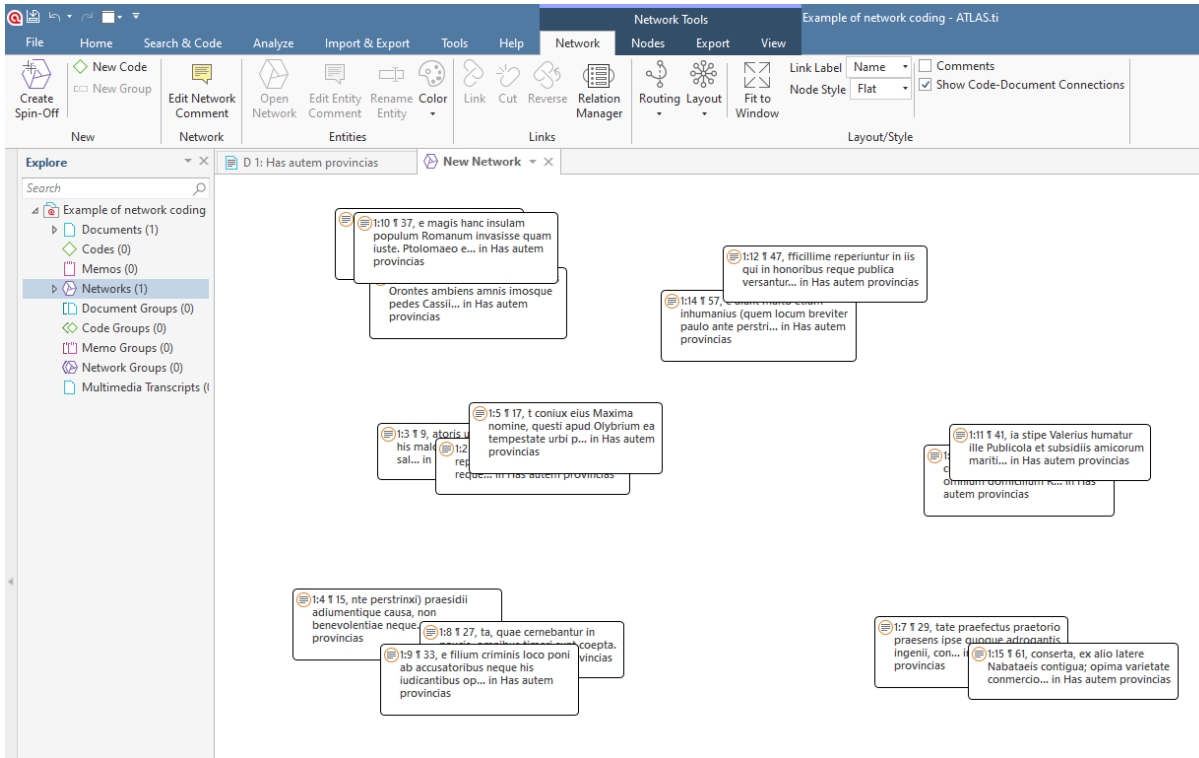
FIGURE 56 – EXAMPLE OF CODING PROCESS USING THE NETWORK FUNCTION IN ATLAS.TI (SOURCE: AUTHOR’S WORK)



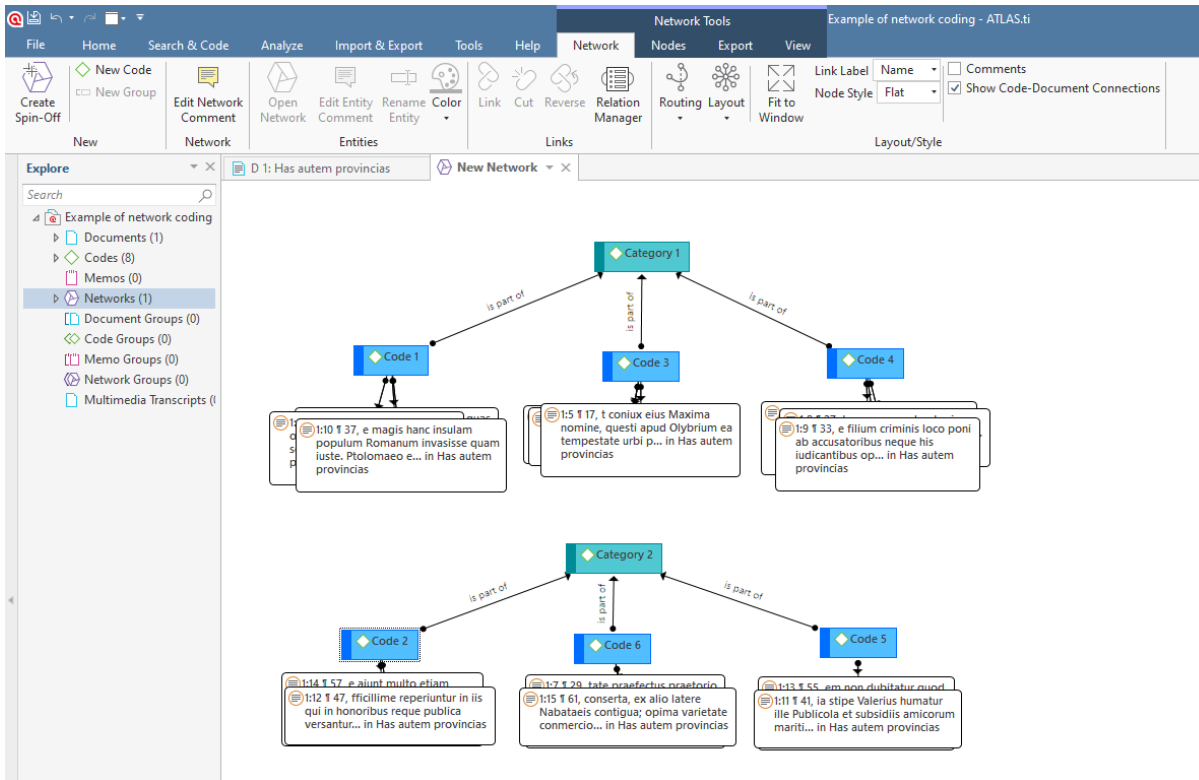
1) Importing quotations in the network space



2) Grouping quotations by themes



3) Linking quotation groups to codes



4) Linking codes to higher order codes

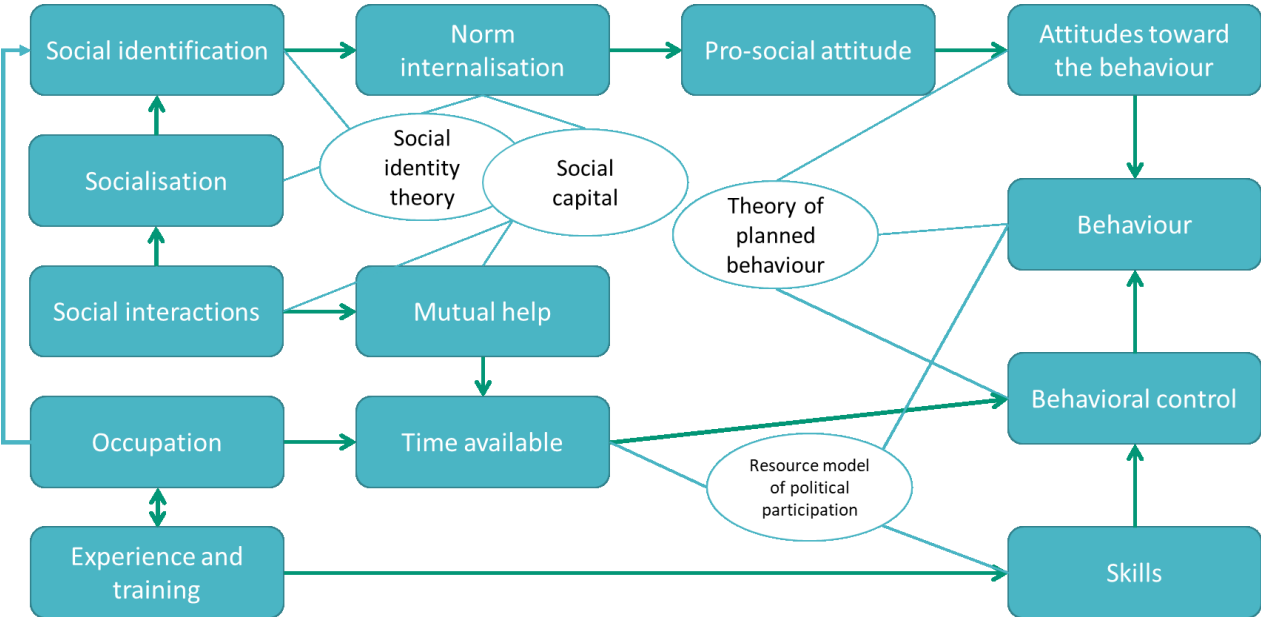
In addition to building a code hierarchy more organically, the network function allows to visualise when a text fragment is linked to several codes. This was very helpful for us in our longitudinal study to build chronological visual map (Langley 1999) as shown in Appendix J. The network function is a powerful tool to visualise co-occurrences and other complex relationships between codes. However, the thematic network approach is not very precise regarding the nature of the relationship between the 'nodes' (codes). The links between the themes imply a simple idea of sub-categories. In this regard, the 'concept mapping' approach allows more depth.

Concept mapping

Concept mapping gives more importance to the statements that qualifies the relationship between concepts (causality, opposition...). In Chapter 3. we used concept mapping to summarize theoretical arguments made in research papers on social enterprises (see Figure 14). Such process can be used with other types of qualitative data. For example, concept maps can be used to summarize statements found in interview data (Kinchin et al. 2010). This way it is not only possible to identify themes but also to map what people think about the relationship between themes.

Concept maps can also be a powerful literature review tool (J. Lewis 2016; Pope 2016) allowing to synthetize theoretical statements about relationship between concepts (e.g. Panniers et al. 2003). Although we did not present it in detail in this dissertation, we also used Atlas.ti network functions to conduct our literature review on participation for Chapter 4. We present an overview of this literature map in Appendix K, and a detailed excerpt of it in Figure 57. This map informed the interpretation of our qualitative comparative analysis results, and helped to build our theoretical propositions presented in Figure 30, section 4.7.e.

FIGURE 57 - EXCERPT OF THE CONCEPT MAP OF THE LITERATURE ON PARTICIPATION (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)



Several features of Atlas.Ti can be useful in the literature review process, including the possibility to import research items as documents, to write memos about particular theories and link them to the relevant concepts, etc. We also appreciated the possibility to add comments to a code, for example to list existing measuring scales for a construct. Ultimately, we found concept mapping powerful to link existing theories into a coherent global view while individual studies usually focus on specific links of a chain of events.

6.2. Theoretical contributions: values and resources in social enterprises

In this section, we highlight the main theoretical contribution from our empirical studies: the importance of the interaction between values and resources in social enterprises. Although it was not part of our initial theoretical framework that focused on values, our empirical work led us to consider more closely the question of resources. This category of factors proved to be important in explaining both behaviours at the individual level and various issues at the organisational level. This seems quite evident when we appeal to common sense that as human beings we do not always have the means and capacity to achieve our goals and to do things the way we would like to. We are dependent on the resources available to us, however strong our values are. At the individual level, we have shown that even if most members share the values of the cooperative, some of them may not have sufficient means to participate. Similarly, at the organisational level, even if the values of the organisation are very strong, it

still depends on resources for its survival and sometime has to compromise. Basing our reflexion on this observation, we believe it may be useful to rephrase the frequently asked question of the 'social versus business' tension (W. K. Smith et al. 2013) in social enterprise into a problematic of 'values versus resources' tension. For example, a non-profit may turn to market activities because of necessity rather than because its members believe it is the best way to achieve its social mission. If it was the case we would not necessarily observe resource diversification to complement market resources. We know indeed that the question of the resource mix is central for social enterprises (Defourny and Nyssens 2017). However, social entrepreneurship research lacks a resource-based perspective (Hota et al. 2020). Reframing the 'social versus business' tension in terms of 'values versus resources' allows us to reflect on how different resource mix align with certain values or not. We believe that it would be interesting to make some links with the social business model literature to investigate this question.

6.3. Managerial contributions

In this chapter, we present the managerial contributions of our research. We address three key aspects that offer practical guidance to organizations: encouraging participation, utilizing ethics management tools and establishing ethics committees, and employing stakeholder analysis tools. These contributions aim to enhance ethical governance in face of tensions and member engagement within organizations.

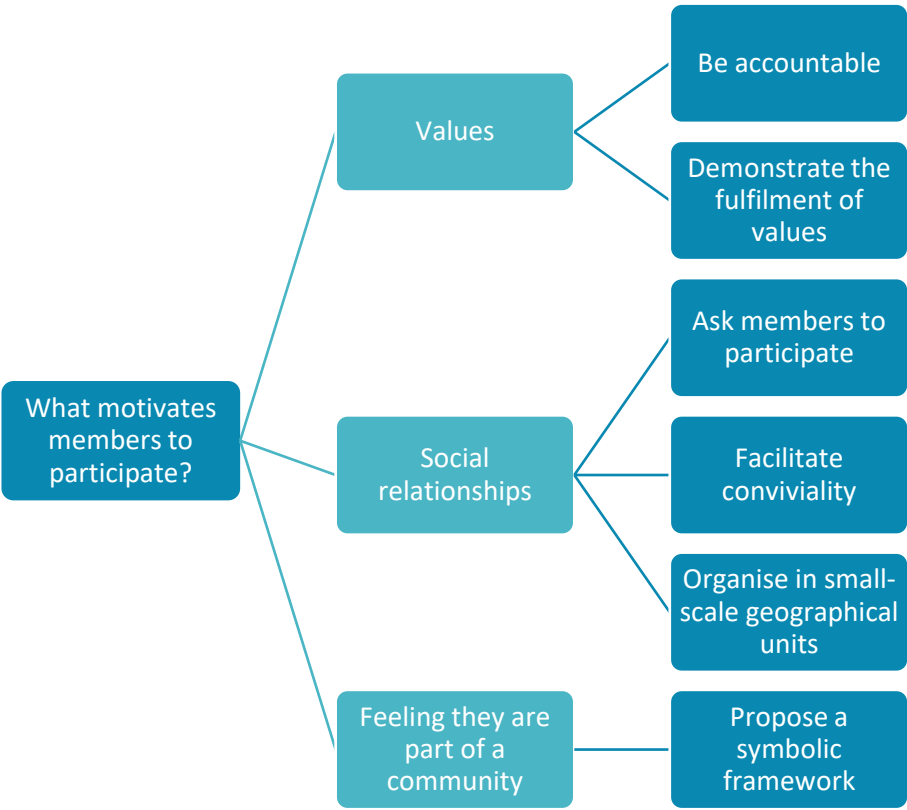
6.3.a. How to encourage participation

In this section, we discuss how cooperatives can encourage the participation of their members. Following the propositions emerging from the results of our analysis in Chapter 4. we discuss how cooperatives can foster participation depending on the characteristics of their members including their motivations and their resources.

Members may be encouraged to participate by diverse factors depending on their motivation. Members motivated by their values may withhold their engagement if they perceive a misalignment between cooperative principles and normative objectives (Birchall, 1999). To address this, cooperatives may want to prioritize transparency and accountability in pursuing their objectives and upholding principles. Alternatively, for members whose motivation is

rooted in social relationships, the cooperative may render participation more attractive by facilitating moments of conviviality among members and staff. Any direct interaction (e.g. customer service call) can also be an opportunity to mobilise member (Birchall and Simmons 2004b) and invite them to participate. Organizing in small unit with geographical proximity is also useful to support social relationships. Finally, social identification fosters participation for some types of individuals, possibly those who may not have other social groups to identify with, such as the retired or the unemployed. Social identification can be developed through social interactions but also through symbolic interactions between members and their organisation (Ashforth and Mael 1989). Proposing a symbolic framework including elements such as visual identity, special roles, or rituals may help to respond to member’s need for identification.

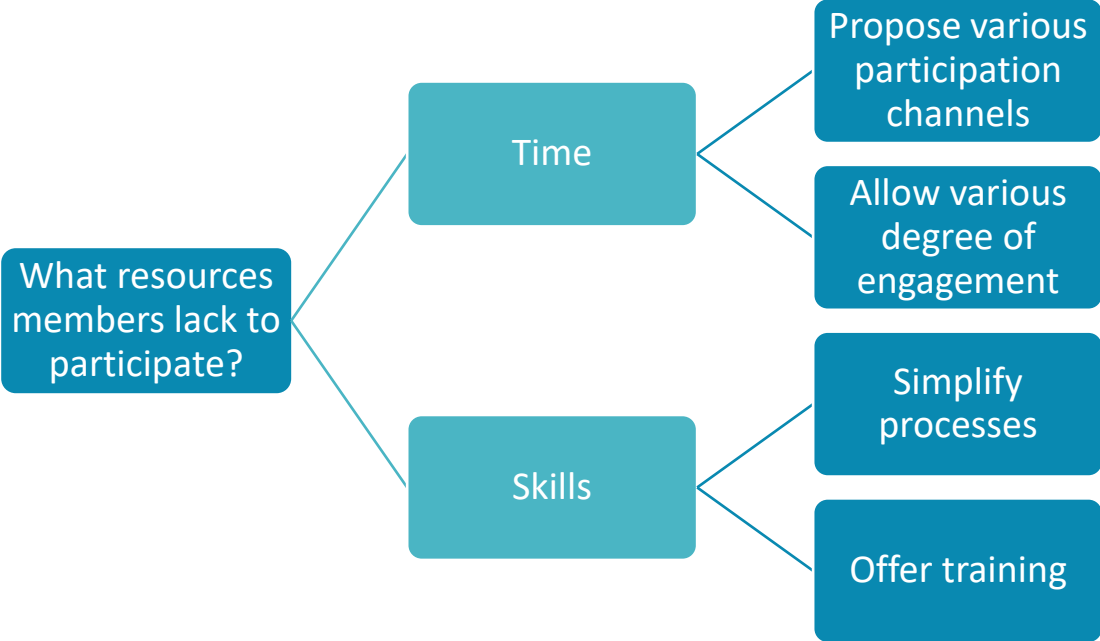
FIGURE 58 – POSSIBLE ACTIONS TO ENCOURAGE PARTICIPATION DEPENDING ON MEMBERS’ MOTIVATIONS (SOURCE: AUTHOR’S WORK).



Moreover, the cooperative can also take into account the different types of resource members can dedicate to participation, and work on lowering barriers members may encounter. Students, unemployed people or retired people may have more time, while people working

full time may have less time but more of other resources. Some members may have fewer skills than others to understand the functioning of the cooperative. Participation could be facilitated by making governance processes easier to understand or improving the resources available to members, for example, by offering training to members who have more time but less skills. It is important to note that the resources available to individuals are shaped by the broader societal context and may reflect structural inequalities. Community energy scholars note, for example, that the lower rates of participation for women in energy cooperatives may be attributed to broader gender inequalities or occupational segregation (Fraune 2015; Łapniewska 2019). Cooperative managers seeking to achieve greater diversity in membership may thus need to find a balance between attracting members who can offer resources to the organisation and helping more disadvantaged members to access the resources relevant for participation.

FIGURE 59 – POSSIBLE ACTIONS TO LESSEN BARRIERS TO PARTICIPATION (SOURCE: AUTHOR’S WORK).



6.3.b. Using ethics management tools and setting up an ethics committee

In this section, we propose to reflect on how social enterprises can rely on ethics management tools to manage tensions and propose guidelines on how to create an ethics committee.

Ethics management “involves the systematic, coherent, and iterative determination of what the ethical criteria of an organization should be, and the development, implementation, and monitoring of the interventions to meet these criteria.” (Constantinescu and Kaptein 2020, p. 6). Ethics management rely on more or less formal tools such as codes of conduct, ethics training, ethics audit, reward/sanctions for (un)ethical behaviours, ethical culture, ethics committee, mission statement... (Center for Business Ethics 1986; Constantinescu and Kaptein 2020; Garcia-Blandon et al. 2020; Morf et al. 1999). The combination of various tools and strategies then constitutes an ‘ethical mix’ (Kaptein 1998). The lists of ethics management tools provided in the literature can help an organisation identify and improve its ethics management practices (See Table 19). However, employing all possible tools is certainly not a requirement. In the case of Kappa, it is logical that sanctions and rewards are not a preferred management tool as employees and volunteers share a strong ethical cultures and thus have strong intrinsic motivations that may be crowd-out by extrinsic rewards (Frey and Jegen 2001).

TABLE 19 – PRESENCE OF ETHICS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AT KAPPA (AUTHOR’S WORK)

Tools	Presence in the organisation
Mission statement	Yes
Ethical codes of conduct	Charter of key values, ethical assessment tools for decision-making, collective decision-making rules, non-violent communication rules.
Ethics committee	Yes
Ethics training	Yes, for cooperative principles.
Ethics audit	No
Ethical culture	Yes
Sanctions and rewards	No

Next, we provide recommendations for organizations considering the establishment of an ethics committee in the form of essential questions that are likely to arise during the creation of such a group. Given the exploratory nature of our study of ethics committees and tension management (Chapter 5.), we prefer to refrain from making causal claims regarding the efficacy of specific practices in addressing particular ethical challenges. However, we possess very rich data, not only about the roles of the committee we outlined in Chapter 5. , but also about the process of the committee's establishment and the questions that arose at this period and later regarding the committee's attributes and its place within the organizational governance structure. Although this part of our analysis is a work in progress, we consider it sufficiently advanced to contribute to the recommendations presented herein. Our propositions is also informed by the list of ethics committee attributes highlighted by Arik et al. (2018).

The aspects to consider when establishing an ethics committee include several key dimensions: the roles of the committee (orienting, supporting, monitoring), the rules determining its formation (members designation, resources allocated...), the rules organizing its functioning (organisation, deliberation...) and the place of the committee in the governance of the organisation (decision scope, accountability...). We propose in Figure 60 various questions that can help guiding the reflexions when establishing an ethics committee.

FIGURE 60 – QUESTIONS TO ASK WHEN CREATING AN ETHICS COMMITTEE (SOURCE: AUTHOR'S WORK)

What are the role(s) of the committee?

- Contributre to build ethical guidelines: provide a dedicated space to discuss values, facilitate wider deliberations on ethics in the organisation, write ethical guidelines...
- Support decision-makers facing ethical issues: provide ethical guidance, build decision-making tools, respond to questions, offer training...
- Monitor activities: avoid ethical self-indulgence, raise questions and concerns, alert on deviations, control, authorize and sanction...

What are its formation rules?

- How are the members chosen? What is their term of office? How many members are designated?
- What are the expected member's qualities: availability, ethics skills, knowledge of the organisation, soft skills, representativity, diversity, board membership, independence, managerial position... ?
- What resources are allocated to the committee? This include material resources, human resources, financial resources, access to informations in the organisation, authorisations to take initiatives, legitimacy...

What are its fuctioning rules?

- Who decide how the committee function?
- Is the committee permanent or ad hoc ? How often does it gather ? How is the group organised?
- When and how should the the committee be mobilised?
- How deliberations and decisions are made? Are the decisions public or confidential?
- How binding are the committee's decisions?

What is its place in the governance?

- Is the committee accountable to another governance body? What kind of reporting is expected, if any?
- What is the scope of the committee's responsibility compared to other governance bodies? Is there some gaps or overlaps? How will they be managed?
- How do the committee contribute to the internal and/or external legitimacy of decisions and practices?
- How visible is the committee inside and outside the organisation?

6.3.c. Using stakeholder analysis tools

In this section, we discuss the relevance of stakeholder management tools in elucidating the origins of tensions that social enterprises encounter. Stakeholder theorists provide interesting management tools to understand and manage tensions. Stakeholder theory defines stakeholders as « those groups who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose. » (Freeman 1984, p. 30). We observed during our fieldwork that ethics committee members needed to understand preferences and behaviours of stakeholders to understand ethical issues. Tools such as stakeholder assessment and stakeholder behaviour analysis can help such understanding of stakeholders.

Stakeholder assessment

Stakeholder assessment analyse the impact of the company’s activities on stakeholders (Freeman et al. 2007, p. 105). This method includes the following steps: (1) Stating the corporate mission. (2) Identifying each stakeholder groups, and then listing each of their key concerns. This step can result in the creation of a stakeholder issue matrix comparing how important a goal is for a stakeholder and whether different stakeholders value the same things (see our below our example based on the Kappa case). Such table can help understanding the tensions emerging from the heterogeneous expectations of stakeholders. (3) Assessing the organisation’s strategy by evaluating whether the organisation is currently meeting the needs of its stakeholders. (4) Get stakeholder validation by gathering data to evaluate how well the needs of the stakeholders are addressed. This allows comparing how the organisation assess its activities versus how its results are perceived by key stakeholders.

TABLE 20 – HYPOTHETICAL STAKEHOLDER ISSUES MATRIX FOR THE CASE OF KAPPA (AUTHOR’S WORK BASEED ON FREEMAN ET AL. 2007)

Priorities	Employees	Activist members	Customers	Energy producers
Environmental values	High	High	Medium	Medium
Localist values	High	High	Low	Medium
Organisational democracy	High	High	Medium	Low
Energy prices	Low	Low	High	High
Customer service quality	Medium	Medium	High	Low

Stakeholder behaviour analysis

Next, stakeholder behaviour analysis aims to identify how stakeholder's behaviours affects positively or negatively the focal organisation (Freeman et al. 2007). To conduct stakeholder behaviour analysis, one should: (1) Describe stakeholders' actual behaviours and their relationship with the organisation. (2) List concrete behaviours that stakeholders could do to help the organisation in the future (cooperative potential). (3) List behaviours that stakeholders could do that would hurt the organisation in the future (competitive threat). Such analysis can help understanding the tensions that emerges from the arrival of new entrants in the environment of the cooperative, or from new behaviours of stakeholders (e.g. more greenwashing from competitors). It can also help to consider more strategic solutions that could modify the situation by imagining what positive alliances can be made with each stakeholder.

TABLE 21 – HYPOTHETICAL STAKEHOLDER BEHAVIOUR ANALYSIS FOR THE CASE OF KAPPA (AUTHOR'S WORK BASEED ON FREEMAN ET AL. 2007)

Stakeholder	Actual behaviour	Cooperative potential	Competitive threat
Energy market incumbents	Buying smaller companies Greening their image	Co-developing projects respecting the cooperative's values	Greenwashing More bargaining power on the market
New 'green' energy suppliers	Operating on the same market segment as the cooperative	Ally to gain bargaining power on the market and influence policy making	Approaching the cooperative's clients
Core activist members	Participating in the governance, investing, volunteering to develop the activities	Recruit new active participants	Attacking the cooperative for not respecting strictly its values Leaving the cooperative
Wider customer base	Staying passive Paying attention to prices	Becoming active members	Become a competitor's customer
...

6.4. Limitations and future research

Each of the research projects presented in this thesis have its own limitations and open avenues for future research. Of course, each limitation may be an opportunity for new research and we will not explore each of them in this section. Instead, we will give more detail on the questions we would like to explore in our own future research.

6.4.a. Normative theories for social enterprises

Our first research on the question of normativity in social enterprise research is limited in several ways. First, we only explore the most influential literature, which may not represent the majority of social entrepreneurship researchers. Then, it is centred on the Anglo-Saxon literature and occidental philosophies. It may thus be interesting to have similar reflexions on other cultural contexts. We also did not include on the environment or animals while they necessitate dedicated ethical reflexions. As we explained in section 6.1.a. normative philosophies can be useful in various research endeavours: describing individual and organisational values, evaluate or criticise them and finally building normative theories. We are specifically interested in the later. Indeed, coherent normative theories at the organisational level are lacking, and this problem is not limited to social enterprises. Moral philosophy focuses on what people may or may not do, while political philosophy tries to define obligations we have to each other that should be enforced by the states (Kymlicka 2002). Moral philosophy concern individuals (micro-level) and political philosophy concern States (macro-level). None of these disciplines specifically addresses the role of organizations in society (meso-level). Some researchers have tried to apply moral or political philosophy at the organizational level, for example the literature on corporate citizenship propose to consider corporations as citizens. But organisations are not 'citizens', nor 'mini-states' (Heath et al. 2010), so "classical political theory and individual moral theory are inadequate for dealing with the moral problems that arise in the context of the modern corporation" (R. Phillips 2003, p. 41). There is thus a considerable gap in the philosophical justifications of private-sector institutions (Heath et al., 2010, p. 429). Stakeholder theory and corporate social responsibility have opened some normative reflexions. However, they are mainly concerned with private for-profit organisation. We still lacks normative reflexions on "the place and the role of social enterprise within the overall economy and its interaction with the market, the

civil society and public policies” (Defourny and Nyssens 2010, p. 33). We believe that there is a wide avenue for future research to discuss this matter.

6.4.b. Values-driven behaviours in cooperatives

Our second study on the drivers of participation behaviours in cooperatives is limited by the type and amount of data we had, and we cannot generalise our results to all organisational contexts, as we conducted our study in a single cooperative. During our research, we identified a myriad of factors that could influence participation. Some of them we considered only after the data collection phase when we were trying to make sense of our results. Our future work could then consider new constructs to measure in light of the propositions we made in this research. Additionally, we identified that organisational factors may be important in explaining participation (Birchall and Simmons 2004a). Organisational context influences the participation opportunities offered to members and the quality of the participation experience. We would be interested in studying participation across several cooperatives to achieve better generalizability. Such a research design would necessitate accounting for individual-level factors as well as organisational factors. This could be achieved, for example, through a multi-level analysis or by conducting several surveys in different cooperatives and qualitatively comparing the participation patterns in each of them. Finally, the outcomes of our study are constrained by the cross-sectional nature of our data, making it challenging to determine the direction of causality. Participation behaviours may potentially reinforce factors such as social networks and social identification. Future research could benefit from longitudinal data, providing a more comprehensive insight into the evolution of member engagement in cooperative governance over time. Panel data could also be used to research how individuals participate in various spheres of society by engaging in diverse value-driven behaviours such as voting in public elections, volunteering, boycotting products and engaging in activism, along with participating in organisations like social enterprises. Indeed, we observed during our fieldwork that individuals sometime moved from one value-driven behaviour to another. For example, a team run for municipal office and lost the elections but then decided to start an energy cooperative together. Individual may thus alternate between different types of participation behaviour in society depending on opportunities, successes and failures of other participation experiences.

6.4.c. Value practices and ethical decision making

Finally, our third study is a single case study and thus have limited generalizability. Another limitation is that we collected our data mainly within the ethics committee and we thus have a limited account of its actual impact in the organisation. The tension relief mechanisms we identified may also only tackle short-term tensions and not the deeper ones we identified in the tension analysis. Further research is needed to complete the picture of the possible tools and strategies that social enterprises use to manage tensions and to assess their effectiveness.

In addition, we did not analyse all the deliberative processes that led the committee members to formulate their ethical recommendations. We have a large amount of data about this process that will necessitate its own separate analysis. We think this analysis would be worth doing in the future because the literature on ethical decision-making does not pay attention to such collective processes. Ethical decision-making is described as an individual struggle mainly studied through quantitative methods (Lehnert et al. 2016). As a result “Little research has been conducted on the group as an ethical decision-making unit” (Treviño et al., 2006, p. 968). We believe this is an important gap because we observed in our case that ethics and values were a collective matter and intensively discussed, including when establishing collective guidelines such as assessment grids, charters or strategic plans. We believe that pursuing the analysis of our data may provide additional contribution about the deliberative and argumentative processes of groups discussing values.

6.5. Conclusion

Management scholars have been motivated to explore research related to "grand challenges," (George et al. 2016, p. 1881). We contributed to respond to this appeal by researching how values influence social enterprises both as a concept and as an empirical subject of study. By focusing on a case of multi-stakeholder energy cooperative, we relate our reflexion to issues of organisational democracy and energy transition. Our research tackles three key research challenges through three separate research papers.

Paper 1 delves into the political nature of defining social enterprises and their goals. It demonstrates the diversity of normative perspectives in social entrepreneurship research and uses political philosophy to provide a coherent framework for understanding the normative

ideas present in the literature, identifying the ambiguity of some concepts, clarifying critical stances and underlining the tensions across theories or between theories and practices.

Paper 2 explores the participation of members in cooperative governance based on their motivation and resources. The study identifies ecological orientation as a necessary factor for active participation in the governance of the cooperative. It also highlights factors like social networks, training, skills, cooperative identity, and occupation as conditions of participation.

Paper 3 aims to understand how social enterprises manage tensions. The research explores the emergence of various tensions and examines how ethics management tools can help address them. Empirical results from the case study of an ethics committee within a multi-stakeholder cooperative reveal how institutional and market pressures can create tensions with the cooperative's values, in relation to issues of resource allocation and stakeholder expectations. The study connects the literature on tensions with ethics management and stakeholder literature. We describe how internal and external stakeholders channels different types of pressures resulting in different tensions. Next, we show how an ethics committee can contribute to managing these tensions. We identify three different stances of the committee: supporting, provoking thought and building ethical positions, and three mechanisms that could alleviate tensions: building collective dynamics, taking a step back and legitimising decisions.

Finally, our discussion chapter presents our main research findings and contributions. Among our methodological contributions, we show how researchers can deal with values in research and we point the relevance of employing semantic network approaches in qualitative analysis. A transversal theoretical contribution that arise from our research is that we cannot discuss how values are enacted without considering how resources constrain practices. We thus encourage the exploration of resource-based theories in social enterprise research. Finally, we make managerial contributions by providing guidelines about how social enterprises can use ethics management tools, setup ethics committees, and employ stakeholder analysis tools.

Overall, this research contributes to the understanding of social enterprises, the normative ideas linked to their conceptualisation, participation behaviours of their members, and the

management of tensions they encounter. We hope we contributed to shed light on the issues that social enterprise and researchers encounter in addressing societal problems or studying how they are addressed.

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Appendix

Appendix A – Description of political philosophies

Utilitarianism

Utilitarianism is a consequentialist philosophy that claims we should maximize human welfare, or utility. Consequentialism means that the ‘rightness’ of an action is judged by the consequences of this action. The concept of utility is central in utilitarianism and different streams of thought define it in different ways. It can be pleasure (in hedonistic utilitarianism), any mental state that people wish to experience (since we might want to experience something other than pleasure), or the satisfaction of informed preferences. Informed (or rational) preferences are the preferences we would have if we had all information concerning the consequences of my actions, and if my preferences themselves were not restrained by beliefs preventing me from having certain aspirations.

In utilitarianism, human welfare is the aggregation of utilities. Each person’s utility must be given equal weight in the calculation of human welfare. The most important critiques addressed to utilitarianism are that summing utilities does not allow for consideration of the distribution of utilities (inequalities) and that the focus on utility accords no intrinsic value to rights or freedoms.

Liberal egalitarianism

Starting from the critique of the inequality of resource distribution that can arise from utilitarianism, liberal egalitarian theories aim at defining the ‘fair share’ of resources that each person deserves. Rawls defines then two principles about how to distribute resources:

“all social primary goods – liberty and opportunity, income and wealth, and the bases of self-respect – are to be distributed equally unless an unequal distribution of any or all of these goods is to the advantage of the least favoured” (Rawls, 1971, p.303, cited by Kymlicka, 2002).

These principles are justified by reference to our intuitions regarding the ‘veil of ignorance’ thought experiment – that if we did not know what our place in society would be, we would choose such a distribution to compensate for social and natural inequalities.

There are various kinds of egalitarianism rooted in Rawls' foundational work. For example, Amartya Sen criticizes Rawls, arguing that with the same 'primary goods' different people cannot achieve equal outcomes. For example, a disabled person cannot achieve the same thing as an able-bodied person, even if they have the same bundle of primary goods. For this reason, Sen proposes that equality of capabilities, rather than primary goods, should be the basis of an egalitarian theory of justice (Sen, 2001).

Libertarianism

Libertarianism uses various arguments to justify the free market and property rights against egalitarian redistribution. We can distinguish four different arguments justifying absolute property rights. First, the voluntary agreement argument states that if people voluntarily give money to others in exchange for some good, the result must be fair (if not necessarily equal) since the trade was freely chosen. Second, the mutual advantage argument states that rational agents can choose to define moral conventions when they work for their mutual advantage, for example to solve social dilemmas.

Next, the self-ownership argument claims that what is produced with one's own talents is one's property. Then, in order to treat people as equals and as ends in themselves, one cannot violate someone else's exercise of his or her absolute property rights. All property rights acquired through chosen exchanges are thus legitimate. Concerning the appropriation of resources that are not created by humans, unowned resources can be freely appropriated as long as it does not worsen the conditions of others, even if the resulting distribution is not equal. Finally, the argument of liberty establishes liberty as a fundamental value and defines the goal of society as 'maximizing liberty' or giving people the most extensive liberty compatible with the same liberty for all.

Marxism

Marxists denounce the exploitation and alienation of workers by capitalists (owners of the means of production), and argue in favour of the socialization of the means of production as a solution. Marxism gives value to self-realization in work. Labour in the capitalist system is viewed as alienating since the worker loses power over his or her own labour. Technically,

exploitation is defined as the capitalist appropriation of the added value produced by the worker.

According to the labour theory of value employed by traditional Marxists, the worker is the only agent who produces value. S/he is therefore exploited when capitalists receive some of the value s/he creates. As this theory of value is close to the libertarian view inasmuch as it assigns property rights according to people's labour, some contemporary Marxists avoid it and instead converge with a liberal egalitarian argument to promote an equal distribution of the means of production.

Communitarianism

Communitarians investigate the role of communities within society. The schools of thought are diverse, but their reflexions centre around a common set of questions that aim at resituating the individual in its social context. Communitarians question the liberal egalitarian paradigm from a perspective of cultural relativism. Certain communities defend particular ways of life and claim the liberty to perpetuate them. Questions raised by this approach include: To what extent can certain ways of life and visions of the common good be promoted? Can some ways of life be promoted against individuals' rights of self-determination (the rights to choose and revise one's conception of the good), defended by liberal egalitarianism?

Communitarians also argue that social deliberation is necessary to define a conception of the good and question whether and how the state should intervene to encourage the formation of a pluralist 'offering' of cultures. Furthermore, communitarians question the bases of social unity necessary to allow citizens to trust each other, realize solidarity and accept democratic decisions. The response of western democracies has been to build a relatively neutral national identity based on a common language and history.

Citizenship theory

While liberal egalitarian theories define citizenship as individual rights and entitlements, citizenship theories shift the focus and try to "identify the virtues and practices needed to promote and maintain the sorts of institutions and policies defended within theories of justice" (Kymlicka 2002, p. 287). Different theories of justice lead to different visions of

citizenship, and citizenship debates concern which kinds of virtues should be promoted and how. The 'virtues' of citizens include participation in political institutions and in public debate, but also 'civility' in how citizens treat each other. The potential 'seedbeds' of civic virtues identified by citizenship theorists have been 'civil society' and education through public schools.

Multiculturalism

Multiculturalism addresses the problem of cultural injustices, whereby a minority group suffers cultural domination, non-recognition or disrespect. It asks if a 'politics of recognition' and the attribution of differentiated rights for particular groups can be justified. These groups include, for example, indigenous peoples, national minorities, immigrants, ethnocultural groups, ethnoreligious groups, refugees, etc.

Multiculturalism began as a communitarian critique of liberalism, but liberals tried to integrate it. Within a liberal framework, minorities' claims can be separated into asking for the right to protect their group against their own members (e.g., those who refuse to follow the community's rules) or the right to protect their group against external pressures of wider society (Kymlicka 2002, p. 340). For egalitarians, the first claim is not legitimate because it implies restricting individual rights, while the second is legitimate as it implies realizing or expanding such rights. Minority rights claims are also a response to nation state building processes that tend to impose a particular language and/or culture on minorities.

Feminism

Each political theory is represented within feminism, yet within this diversity feminists share a common core of critiques against mainstream political theories and their incapacity to consider women's interests (Kymlicka 2002, p. 377). First, the principle of non-discrimination against the female gender is not sufficient to rule out sexism. The concept of domination introduces the idea that society is defined for men. The more social institutions are designed for men, the fewer arbitrary discriminations are needed to exclude women because they will simply fail to fit positions defined for men (Kymlicka 2002, pp. 382–383) (e.g., minimal weight requirements to enter the army, the incompatibility of childcare and full-time work, etc.).

Second, classical theories draw a division between the public and private spheres. In this way, they neglect the question of equality within the family. Establishing a family has different consequences for men and women. Women perform most domestic work, must choose between career and family, and often become economically dependent on men who thus gain more decision-making power within the family (Kymlicka 2002, p. 387). Contemporary feminism additionally argues that ‘feminine’ moral reasoning, through the ethic of care, can be a source of moral insight. While theories of justice focus on moral principles universally applicable and based on concepts such as rights and fairness, the ethic of care focuses on the development of moral dispositions that allow one to identify appropriate responses to particular cases based on concepts of responsibilities and relationships (Kymlicka 2002, p. 401).

Appendix B – Sample of most cited research on social enterprises

Author	Title	Publication Title	Year	Citations
Austin, James; Stevenson, Howard; Wei- Skillern, Jane	Social and Commercial Entrepreneurship: Same, Different, or Both?	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2006	2658
Mair, Johanna; Marti, Ignasi	Entrepreneurship in and around institutional voids: A case study from Bangladesh	Journal of Business Venturing	2009	2505
Alvord, Sarah H.; Brown, L. David; Letts, Christine W.	Social entrepreneurship and societal transformation: An exploratory study	The journal of applied behavioral science	2004	1984
Peredo, Ana María; McLean, Murdith	Social entrepreneurship: A critical review of the concept	Journal of World Business	2006	1394
Zahra, Shaker A.; Gedajlovic, Eric; Neubaum, Donald O.; Shulman, Joel M.	A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges	Journal of Business Venturing	2009	1369
Murphy, Patrick J.; Coombes, Susan M.	A Model of Social Entrepreneurial Discovery	Journal of Business Ethics	2009	1182
Thompson, John L.	The world of the social entrepreneur	International Journal of Public Sector Management	2002	1044
Weerawardena, Jay; Mort, Gillian Sullivan	Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model	Journal of World Business	2006	1020

Thompson, John; Alvy, Geoff; Lees, Ann	Social entrepreneurship – a new look at the people and the potential	Management Decision	2000	1004
Eikenberry, A. M.; Kluver, J. D.	The marketization of the nonprofit sector: Civil society at risk?	Public Administration Review	2004	965
Shaw, Eleanor; Carter, Sara	Social entrepreneurship: Theoretical antecedents and empirical analysis of entrepreneurial processes and outcomes	Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development	2007	867
Seelos, Christian; Mair, Johanna	Social entrepreneurship: Creating new business models to serve the poor	Business Horizons	2005	859
Dacin, Peter A.; Dacin, M. Tina; Matear, Margaret	Social Entrepreneurship: Why We Don't Need a New Theory and How We Move Forward From Here	The Academy of Management Perspectives	2010	847
Short, Jeremy C.; Moss, Todd W.; Lumpkin, G. T.	Research in Social Entrepreneurship: Past Contributions and Future Opportunities	Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal	2009	793
Defourny, Jacques; Nyssens, Marthe	Conceptions of Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States: Convergences and Divergences	Journal of Social Entrepreneurship	2010	730
Santos, Filipe M.	A Positive Theory of Social Entrepreneurship	Journal of Business Ethics	2012	706
Mair, Johanna; Noboa, Ernesto	Social entrepreneurship: How intentions to create a social venture are formed	Social Entrepreneurship	2006	649
Chell, Elizabeth	Social enterprise and entrepreneurship: towards a convergent theory of the entrepreneurial process	International small business journal	2007	622
Zahra, Shaker A.; Rawhouser, Hans N.; Bhawe, Nachiket; Neubaum, Donald O.; Hayton, James C.	Globalization of social entrepreneurship opportunities	Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal	2008	610
Dacin, M. Tina; Dacin, Peter A.; Tracey, Paul	Social Entrepreneurship: A Critique and Future Directions	Organization Science	2011	575
Nicholls, Alex	The Legitimacy of Social Entrepreneurship: Reflexive Isomorphism in a Pre-Paradigmatic Field	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2010	569
Sharir, M.; Lerner, M.	Gauging the success of social ventures initiated by individual social entrepreneurs	Journal of World Business	2006	553

Di Domenico, MariaLaura; Haugh, Helen; Tracey, Paul	Social Bricolage: Theorizing Social Value Creation in Social Enterprises	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2010	550
Waddock, Sandra A.; Post, James E.	Social Entrepreneurs and Catalytic Change	Public Administration Review	1991	529
Fowler, A.	NGDOs as a moment in history: beyond aid to social entrepreneurship or civic innovation?	Third World Quarterly	2000	521
Tracey, Paul; Phillips, Nelson; Jarvis, Owen	Bridging Institutional Entrepreneurship and the Creation of New Organizational Forms: A Multilevel Model	Organization Science	2011	508
Lepoutre, Jan; Justo, Rachida; Terjesen, Siri; Bosma, Niels	Designing a global standardized methodology for measuring social entrepreneurship activity: the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor social entrepreneurship study	Small Business Economics	2013	450
Spear, Roger	Social entrepreneurship: a different model?	International Journal of Social Economics	2006	444
Montgomery, A.; Dacin, Peter; Dacin, M.	Collective Social Entrepreneurship: Collaboratively Shaping Social Good	Journal of Business Ethics	2012	373
Haugh, Helen	A research agenda for social entrepreneurship	Social enterprise journal	2005	360
Robinson, Jeffrey	Navigating social and institutional barriers to markets: How social entrepreneurs identify and evaluate opportunities	Social entrepreneurship	2006	357
Bacq, S.; Janssen, F.	The multiple faces of social entrepreneurship: A review of definitional issues based on geographical and thematic criteria	Entrepreneurship & Regional Development	2011	356
Nicholls, Alex	'We do good things, don't we?': 'Blended Value Accounting' in social entrepreneurship	Accounting Organizations and Society	2009	355
Perrini, Francesco; Vurro, Clodia	Social entrepreneurship: Innovation and social change across theory and practice	Social entrepreneurship	2006	355
Korosec, Ronnie L.; Berman, Evan M.	Municipal support for social entrepreneurship	Public Administration Review	2006	340
Thompson, John; Doherty, Bob	The diverse world of social enterprise: A collection of social enterprise stories	International Journal of Social Economics	2006	340
Dey, Pascal; Steyaert, Chris	The politics of narrating social entrepreneurship	Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy	2010	314

Corner, Patricia Doyle; Ho, Marcus	How Opportunities Develop in Social Entrepreneurship	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2010	312
Tan, Wee-Liang; Williams, John; Tan, Teck-Meng	Defining the 'Social' in 'Social Entrepreneurship': Altruism and Entrepreneurship	The International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal	2005	307
Cho, Albert Hyunbae	Politics, values and social entrepreneurship: A critical appraisal	Social entrepreneurship	2006	295
Smith, Wendy K.; Besharov, Marya L.; Wessels, Anke K.; Chertok, Michael	A paradoxical leadership model for social entrepreneurs: Challenges, leadership skills, and pedagogical tools for managing social and commercial demands	Academy of Management Learning & Education	2012	281
Hockerts, Kai	Entrepreneurial opportunity in social purpose business ventures	Social entrepreneurship	2006	272
Ansari, Shahzad; Munir, Kamal; Gregg, Tricia	Impact at the 'Bottom of the Pyramid': The Role of Social Capital in Capability Development and Community Empowerment	Journal of Management Studies	2012	250
Anderson, Robert B.; Dana, Leo Paul; Dana, Teresa E.	Indigenous land rights, entrepreneurship, and economic development in Canada: "Opting-in" to the global economy	Journal of World Business	2006	247
Smith, Wendy K.; Gonin, Michael; Besharov, Marya L.	Managing Social-Business Tensions: A Review and Research Agenda for Social Enterprise	Business Ethics Quarterly	2013	247
Roper, Juliet; Cheney, George	The meanings of social entrepreneurship today	Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society	2005	237
Nga, Joyce Koe Hwee; Shamuganathan, Gomathi	The Influence of Personality Traits and Demographic Factors on Social Entrepreneurship Start Up Intentions	Journal of Business Ethics	2010	236
Choi, Nia; Majumdar, Satyajit	Social entrepreneurship as an essentially contested concept: Opening a new avenue for systematic future research	Journal of Business Venturing	2014	231
Parkinson, Caroline; Howorth, Carole	The language of social entrepreneurs	Entrepreneurship and Regional Development	2008	231
Morris, Michael H.; Webb, Justin W.; Franklin, Rebecca J.	Understanding the Manifestation of Entrepreneurial Orientation in the Nonprofit Context	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2011	229
Calic, Goran; Mosakowski, Elaine	Kicking Off Social Entrepreneurship: How A Sustainability Orientation Influences Crowdfunding Success	Journal of Management Studies	2016	227

Littlewood, David; Holt, Diane	Social Entrepreneurship in South Africa: Exploring the Influence of Environment	Business & Society	2018	224
Weerawardena, Jay; McDonald, Robert E.; Mort, Gillian Sullivan Renko, Maija	Sustainability of nonprofit organizations: An empirical investigation	Journal of World Business	2010	219
	Early Challenges of Nascent Social Entrepreneurs	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2013	218
Townsend, David M.; Hart, Timothy A.	Perceived institutional ambiguity and the choice of organizational form in social entrepreneurial ventures	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2008	218
Estrin, Saul; Mickiewicz, Tomasz; Stephan, Ute	Entrepreneurship, Social Capital, and Institutions: Social and Commercial Entrepreneurship Across Nations	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2013	214
Jones, Robert; Latham, James; Betta, Michela	Narrative construction of the social entrepreneurial identity	International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research	2008	213
Stephan, Ute; Uhlener, Lorraine M.; Stride, Christopher	Institutions and social entrepreneurship: The role of institutional voids, institutional support, and institutional configurations	Journal of International Business Studies	2015	213
Hockerts, Kai	Determinants of social entrepreneurial intentions	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2017	212
Rivera-Santos, Miguel; Holt, Diane; Littlewood, David; Kolk, Ans	Social entrepreneurship in sub-Saharan Africa	Academy of Management Perspectives	2015	212
Estrin, Saul; Mickiewicz, Tomasz; Stephan, Ute	Human capital in social and commercial entrepreneurship	Journal of Business Venturing	2016	197
Kraus, Sascha; Filser, Matthias; O'Dwyer, Michele; Shaw, Eleanor	Social Entrepreneurship: An exploratory citation analysis	Review of Managerial Science	2014	196
Mair, Johanna; Schoen, Oliver	Successful social entrepreneurial business models in the context of developing economies: An explorative study	International Journal of Emerging Markets	2007	194
Zahra, Shaker A.; Newey, Lance R.; Li, Yong	On the frontiers: The implications of social entrepreneurship for international entrepreneurship	Entrepreneurship theory and practice	2014	194
Miller, Toyah L.; Grimes, Matthew G.; McMullen,	Venturing for Others with Heart and Head: How Compassion Encourages Social Entrepreneurship	Academy of Management Review	2012	193

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Timothy J.

Hall, Jeremy; Matos, Stelvia; Sheehan, Lorn; Silvestre, Bruno	Entrepreneurship and Innovation at the Base of the Pyramid: A Recipe for Inclusive Growth or Social Exclusion?	Journal of Management Studies	2012	192
Wilson, Fiona; Post, James E.	Business models for people, planet (& profits): exploring the phenomena of social business, a market-based approach to social value creation	Small Business Economics	2013	192
Seelos, Christian; Mair, Johanna; Battilana, Julie; Dacin, M. Tina	The embeddedness of social entrepreneurship: Understanding variation across local communities	Communities and organizations	2011	190
Sud, Mukesh; VanSandt, Craig V.; Baugous, Amanda M.	Social Entrepreneurship: The Role of Institutions	Journal of Business Ethics	2009	189
Felício, J. Augusto; Martins Gonçalves, Helena; da Conceição Gonçalves, Vítor	Social value and organizational performance in non-profit social organizations: Social entrepreneurship, leadership, and socioeconomic context effects	Journal of Business Research	2013	188
Mair, J.; Marti, I.	Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight	Journal of World Business	2006	187
Meyskens, Moriah; Robb-Post, Colleen; Stamp, Jeffrey A.; Carsrud, Alan L.; Reynolds, Paul D.	Social Ventures from a Resource-Based Perspective: An Exploratory Study Assessing Global Ashoka Fellows	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2010	187
Phillips, Wendy; Lee, Hazel; Ghobadian, Abby; O'Regan, Nicholas; James, Peter	Social Innovation and Social Entrepreneurship: A Systematic Review	Group & Organization Management	2015	185
Saebi, Tina; Foss, Nicolai J; Linder, Stefan	Social Entrepreneurship Research: Past Achievements and Future Promises	Journal of Management	2019	185
Mair, Johanna; Battilana, Julie; Cardenas, Julian	Organizing for Society: A Typology of Social Entrepreneurial Models	Journal of Business Ethics	2012	184
Datta, Punita Bhatt; Gailey, Robert	Empowering Women Through Social Entrepreneurship: Case Study of a Women's Cooperative in India	Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	2012	183
Rey-Martí, Andrea; Ribeiro-Soriano,	A bibliometric analysis of social entrepreneurship	Journal of Business Research	2016	181

Domingo; Palacios-
Marqués, Daniel

Chell, Elizabeth; Nicolopoulou, Katerina; Karataş- Özkan, Mine Desa, Geoffrey	Social entrepreneurship and enterprise: International and innovation perspectives	Entrepreneurship & Regional Development	2010	164
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Perrini, Francesco; Vurro, Clodia; Costanzo, Laura A.	A process-based view of social entrepreneurship: From opportunity identification to scaling-up social change in the case of San Patrignano	Entrepreneurship & Regional Development	2010	135

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Nicholls, Alex	Institutionalizing social entrepreneurship in regulatory space: Reporting and disclosure by community interest companies	Accounting Organizations and Society	2010	130
Dempsey, Sarah E.; Sanders, Matthew L.	Meaningful work? Nonprofit marketization and work/life imbalance in popular autobiographies of social entrepreneurship	Organization	2010	128
Dees, J.	A Tale of Two Cultures: Charity, Problem Solving, and the Future of Social Entrepreneurship	Journal of Business Ethics	2012	124
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Appendix C – Initial political philosophy keywords

Philosophy	Key ideas	Keywords
Utilitarianism	Maximization of welfare	welfare, utility, maximization, preferences, interests, value
Liberal egalitarianism	Primary goods	primary goods, liberty, opportunity, income, wealth, self-respect, power, equal rights, basic rights, equality of opportunity, civil rights, political rights, basic liberties, fair share, basic income, equal freedom
	Least favoured	least favoured, disadvantaged, disabled
Libertarianism	Absolute property rights	property, property rights, property ownership, absolute property, material welfare, self-ownership
	Mutual advantage and chosen exchanges	mutual advantage, contract, convention, social contract, rational choice, bargaining power, cooperation, freeriding
	Liberty	liberty, freedom
Marxism	Alienation and exploitation of workers	alienation, exploitation, socialization of the means of production, class conflict, oppression, revolution
Communitarianism	Culture and group identity	culture, tradition, common good, communitarian, shared practices, shared experiences, shared culture, shared identity, shared goal, solidarity, identity, way of life
Citizenship theory	Virtue and citizens behaviour	civic, civic virtue, citizenship, voice, empowerment, responsibility, public debate, deliberation, deliberative democracy, civility, civil society, republican
Multiculturalism	Minority cultures	diversity, cultural diversity, cultural pluralism, recognition, exclusion, excluded, marginalization, marginalized, assimilation, integration, minority group, minorities, stigmatization, stigmatized, indigenous peoples, national minorities, immigrants, ethnocultural groups, ethnoreligious groups, refugees
Feminism	Gender equality	male biased, sexual discrimination, sexual inequalities, gender-biased, sex discrimination, sexual discrimination, sex equality, domination, dominance, women's subordination, sexist, sexism, oppression, family, private sphere, domestic, women
	Feminist ethic	ethic of care, care theory, feminine ethic, feminist ethic, caregiver, empathy

Appendix D – Final political philosophy keywords

Philosophy	Theme	Keywords*
Utilitarianism	Social welfare	public welfare total welfare global welfare total utilit* public utilit* global utilit* wellbeing well-being life satisfaction preferences satisfaction
	Maximization	maximiz* maximis*
	Efficiency	efficient inefficient cost*benefit* avoid* cost*
Liberal Equality	Basic rights	primary good* basic right* basic good* equal* right* equal* opportunity political right* civil right* basic libert* fair share basic income equal* freedom basic need* capability approach capabilities empower*
	Least favoured	least favour* least favor* disadvantag* disab*
Libertarianism	Mutual advantage	win-win mutual advantage bargaining power social contract
	Maximize freedom	maximi* libert* maximi* freedom
	Property rights	private property private ownership property right*
Marixsm	Marxism	alienat* exploit* worker exploit* employee* socializ* mean production class* conflict* oppress* revolution marxi* bourgeois
Communitarianism	Communitarianism	common good communitarian share* practice* share* experience* share* culture share* identity share* goal* common practice* common experience* common culture common identit* common goal* collective practice* collective experience* collective culture collective identit* collective goal* solidarity way of life
Citizenship Theory	Civic	civic civic virtue citizenship civility civil society engagement commitment involmment
	Democracy	deliberati* deliberative democracy public debate democra* participatory participation
Multiculturalism	Cultural Groups	indigenous indigenous peoples national minorities immigrant* migrant* ethnocultural group* ethnoreligious group* refugee* ethnic* minorit*
	Cultural Diversity	cultural diversity cultural pluralism cultural recognition cultural* exclus* cultural* marginaliz* cultural assimilation cultural integration minority group* minorities cultural* stigmatiz* cultural* stigmatiz* multicultural*
Feminism	Feminism	feminis*
	Ethics of Care	ethic* care care theor* feminine ethic* feminist ethic
	Empathy	empat*
	Gender equality	male bias* male dominat* men dominat* sex* discrimination* sex**equalit* gender-bias* gender*equalit* gender discrimination* gender dominat* gender oppression wom*n* subordination wom*n* right* wom*n* discrimination wom*n* oppression sexis* gender

* The pipe '|' represents the Boolean operator OR and the wild card '*' represents multiple missing characters.

Appendix E – Truth table for the outcome and its negation

The outcome was set to zero for rows 15 and 17 because they are showing logical paradox, that is, higher or similar consistency score for the outcome and negation of the outcome (in bold).

Row number	Conditions						Outcome					Negation of outcome		
	Strongly identifying with the cooperative	Having another member in one's social network	Having training or experience	Perceiving oneself as skilled	Working full time	Number of cases	Active participants in governance	Raw consist.	PRI consist.	SYM consist	Raw consist.	PRI consist.	SYM consist	
1	1	1	0	1	1	43	0	0.84	0.53	0.67	0.75	0.26	0.33	
2	1	0	0	1	1	37	0	0.74	0.39	0.47	0.76	0.44	0.53	
3	1	1	1	1	1	36	0	0.81	0.61	0.78	0.59	0.17	0.22	
4	1	1	0	1	0	27	1	0.85	0.52	0.71	0.75	0.21	0.29	
5	1	1	0	0	1	26	1	0.86	0.50	0.59	0.81	0.34	0.41	
6	1	0	1	1	1	23	0	0.75	0.46	0.64	0.66	0.26	0.36	
7	1	1	0	0	0	21	1	0.87	0.53	0.69	0.79	0.24	0.31	
8	1	0	0	0	1	21	0	0.77	0.36	0.40	0.83	0.53	0.60	
9	0	0	0	1	1	18	0	0.75	0.27	0.29	0.88	0.65	0.71	
10	0	0	0	0	1	16	0	0.80	0.43	0.51	0.80	0.41	0.49	
11	1	0	0	1	0	14	0	0.83	0.54	0.70	0.71	0.23	0.30	
12	0	1	0	1	1	14	1	0.89	0.47	0.58	0.86	0.33	0.42	
13	1	1	1	1	0	12	0	0.82	0.59	0.88	0.58	0.08	0.12	
14	0	1	1	1	1	12	0	0.78	0.40	0.43	0.83	0.54	0.57	
15	0	1	0	0	1	11	0	0.86	0.34	0.38	0.91	0.56	0.62	
16	1	1	1	0	1	6	0	0.83	0.44	0.49	0.84	0.47	0.51	
17	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	0.90	0.46	0.50	0.90	0.45	0.50	
18	0	0	1	1	1	6	1	0.91	0.64	0.73	0.80	0.23	0.27	
19	1	0	0	0	0	5	1	0.88	0.50	0.57	0.85	0.38	0.43	
20	0	1	0	1	0	5	1	0.91	0.45	0.57	0.89	0.33	0.43	
21	1	0	1	1	0	4	?	0.83	0.58	1.00	0.59	0.00	0.00	
22	0	0	0	1	0	4	?	0.79	0.26	0.26	0.92	0.72	0.74	
23	1	0	1	0	1	3	?	0.93	0.56	0.70	0.87	0.24	0.30	
24	0	1	1	1	0	3	?	0.81	0.43	0.48	0.82	0.46	0.52	
25	0	0	0	0	0	3	?	0.83	0.29	0.31	0.92	0.65	0.69	
26	1	1	1	0	0	2	?	0.90	0.58	0.67	0.83	0.29	0.33	
27	1	0	1	0	0	1	?	0.97	0.83	1.00	0.83	0.00	0.00	
28	0	1	1	0	1	1	?	0.85	0.35	0.36	0.91	0.61	0.64	
29	0	1	1	0	0	1	?	0.76	0.35	0.37	0.85	0.60	0.63	
30	0	0	1	1	0	1	?	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.64	0.00	0.00	
31	0	0	1	0	1	1	?	0.93	0.38	0.43	0.95	0.49	0.57	
32	0	0	1	0	0	0	?	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Appendix F – Robustness checks

Outcome calibration	Frequency threshold	Consistency threshold	Solutions	Total coverage	Total consistency	Several prime implications possible
1	5	0.85	social*~exp identif*~exp*~work identif*social*skill identif*social*work ~identif*~exp*~skill*work ~social*exp*skill*work	0.78	0.77	NO
2	5	0.85	social*~exp*~skill ~identif*social*~exp identif*~exp*~skill*~work ~identif*~social*exp*skill*work	0.41	0.81	NO
3	5	0.85	~identif*social*~exp*~work ~identif*social*~exp*~skill	0.19	0.84	NO
4	5	0.85	social*~exp*~skill ~identif*social*~exp identif*~exp*~skill*~work ~identif*~social*exp*skill*work	0.40	0.83	NO
4	4	0.85	~exp*social*~identif ~skill*~exp*social ~work*~skill*~exp*identif work*skill*exp*~social*~identif	0.40	0.83	NO
4	5	0.87	identif*~exp*~skill*~work ~identif*social*~exp*skill ~identif*~social*exp*skill*work social*~exp*~skill*~work ~identif*social*~exp*~work	0.34	0.87	YES
4	5	0.9	~identif*social*~exp*~work ~identif*~social*exp*skill*work	0.15	0.90	NO
4	11	0.85	work*~exp*~identif*social ~skill*~exp*identif*social	0.28	0.83	NO
4	5	0.85	(Solutions without PRI inconsistent rows) identif*~exp*~skill*~work identif*social*~exp*~skill ~identif*social*~exp*skill ~identif*~social*exp*skill*work	0.39	0.86	NO

Participation à Kappa

- Peux-tu te présenter et me dire comment tu participes au projet Kappa de manière générale ?
- Si tu en as, quelles sont tes rôles/fonctions/mandats à Kappa actuellement ?
- Sur quoi travailles-tu en particulier ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret ?
- Le comité d’Éthique à Kappa
- Pour toi, quel est le rôle du comité d’éthique à Kappa actuellement ? Es-ce qu’il a évolué ? De quelle manière ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret ?
- Pourquoi le comité d’éthique est-il important ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret ?
- Comment le comité d’éthique a-t-il été créé au départ ? A quoi cela répondait ?
- Quelle est la place du comité d’éthique dans la gouvernance d’énercoop aujourd’hui ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret ?
- Comment sa place a évolué dans la gouvernance ? Comment le comité interagit avec les autres instances de Kappa ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret ?
- Comment ont évolué les instances de gouvernance de Kappa ces dernières années ?

L’Éthique à Kappa

- Pour toi, quels sont les principaux problèmes éthiques rencontrés à Kappa en ce moment ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret ?
- Est-ce que les problèmes éthiques ont évolué dans le temps à Kappa ? Est-ce que tu as vu une évolution des thèmes abordés par le comité ?
- Est-ce que tu as vu une évolution des préoccupations liés aux aspects éthiques au sein de Kappa ? Si oui, est-ce que le comité a joué un rôle dans cette transformation ? Comment ?
- A part le comité d’éthique, est-ce qu’il y a d’autres instances qui traitent aussi des questions éthiques ?
- Comment se manifestent les questions éthiques dans ces instances ? Comment vous interagissez avec elles ?
- Quelles sont les spécificités du comité vis-à-vis de ces autres instances ?

Fonctionnement du comité

Membres

- Qui sont/ont été les membres ? Comment sont-ils recrutés ? Pourquoi sont-ils recrutés de cette manière ?
- En général, comment est fait l’ordre du jour ?
- Comment les sujets d’auto-saisine sont choisis ?
- Comment êtes-vous sollicités ? Par qui ?
- Qu’est-ce qui vous amène à accepter/rejeter une saisine ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret ? Qu’est-ce qui fait qu’une demande est recevable ou pas ?
- Pour toi, qu’est-ce qui fait qu’un problème est un problème éthique ?
- Quelle est la différence avec un problème normal/opérationnel... ? Avec les ‘valeurs’ d’Kappa en général ? Avec les décisions ‘politiques’ de Kappa ?

Processus de décision

- Comment êtes-vous organisés ? Pourquoi travaillez-vous de cette manière ? Est-ce que ça a changé depuis la création du comité ?
- Comment sont prises les décisions au sein du comité ?
- Comment les idées sont-elles discutées, validées ?
- S’il y en a, quelles sont les règles de prise de décision au comité d’éthique ?
- Effet des décisions

- A quoi servent les avis du comité ? Quel est l'effet de l'activité du comité à Kappa ?
- Perspectives et critiques
- Pour toi, quels sont les problèmes actuels du comité d'éthique ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret?
- Dans l'idéal, à quoi devrait ressembler le comité d'éthique pour toi ? A quoi devrait-il servir ? Quelle devrait-être sa place dans la gouvernance de Kappa ?
- Facteurs de participation (optionnel)

Motivation

- Peux-tu me raconter comment tu es arrivé à Kappa ? Au comité d'éthique ?
- Comment tu as décidé de participer au comité d'éthique ? As-tu des intérêts/projets particuliers que tu aimerais avancer? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret?
- Qu'est-ce qui te motive dans ta participation à Kappa en général ? Au comité d'éthique en particulier ?
- Pourquoi est-ce important pour toi de participer ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret?
- Est-ce que tu as aussi investi dans Kappa ? Pourquoi?

Socialisation

- Comment cela s'est passé au début de ta participation à Kappa/comité d'éthique ?
- Comment as-tu appris les procédures/pratiques au sein de Kappa/comité d'éthique?
- Comment se sont développées (ou pas) tes relations avec les autres membres ? Des défis particuliers? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret?

Expertise

- Est-ce que tu as des connaissances/compétences liées à l'activité de Kappa ? Peux-tu me donner un exemple concret?
- Est-ce que tu avais déjà ces compétences en arrivant à Kappa ? Est-ce que tu as appris au fur-et-à mesure ? Comment l'as-tu appris?

Appendix H – Code structure (Ethical issues and context of the cooperative)

Ethical issues	
Code	Grounded
Prb Ethique : Association à des événements politiques	9
Prb Ethique : Association avec des actions militantes anti-nucléaire	7
Prb Ethique : Association avec des actions militantes de transition citoyenne	7
Prb Ethique : Choix de partenaires/fournisseurs appro/financiers avec valeurs différentes	60
Prb Ethique : Choix de technologies	6
Prb Ethique : Communication, transparence et pédagogie	53
Prb Ethique : Enjeux d'image et instrumentalisation	16
Prb Ethique : ENR et biodiversité	1
Prb Ethique : gestion des données personnelles	3
Prb Ethique : Gestion du capital/parts sociales	9
Prb Ethique : Gouvernance et circuits de décision	34
Prb Ethique : Harmonisation des pratiques et égalité de traitement	13
Prb Ethique : mission et valeurs clés de Kappa	21
Prb Ethique : Modèle économique	11
Prb Ethique : Prix juste	36
Prb Ethique : Viabilité économique et gestion responsable	8
Prb Ethique: AREHN (achat nucléaire)	9
Context of the cooperative	
Code	Grounded
Contexte : besoin de transmettre les valeurs aux nouveaux salariés qui arrivent (moins militants?)	10
Contexte : culture peu confrontationnelle	1
Contexte : gouvernance : décider avec tout le monde, faire réseau prend du temps/compliqué	8
Contexte : gouvernance : hétérogénéité entre CoopLocs et CoopNat, entités indépendantes	5
Contexte : gouvernance : Kappa est complexe à comprendre/gérer, beaucoup d'instances	18
Contexte : gouvernance : Kappa trop centralisé	8
Contexte : gouvernance : visions diff entre CoopLocs	3
Contexte : légitimité : classement greenpeace	1
Contexte : légitimité : noyau dur des membres/sociétaires militants qui réagissent/réagiraient aux décisions, contrat moral avec les sociétaires	16
Contexte : légitimité : si décalage valeurs/pratique : risque de discrédit par concurrence	2
Contexte : marché : évolution des prix du marché d'apro ENR	6
Contexte : marché : Complexité du métier/secteur des fournisseurs alternatifs	8
Contexte : marché : Emergence de concurrents prenant le même positionnement/vocabulaire = décalage entre projet initial et environnement	23
Contexte : marché : environnement capitaliste + besoin d'interagir hors du cercle militant (clients, ressources, partenariats)	9
Contexte : marché : incertitudes liées au Covid	2

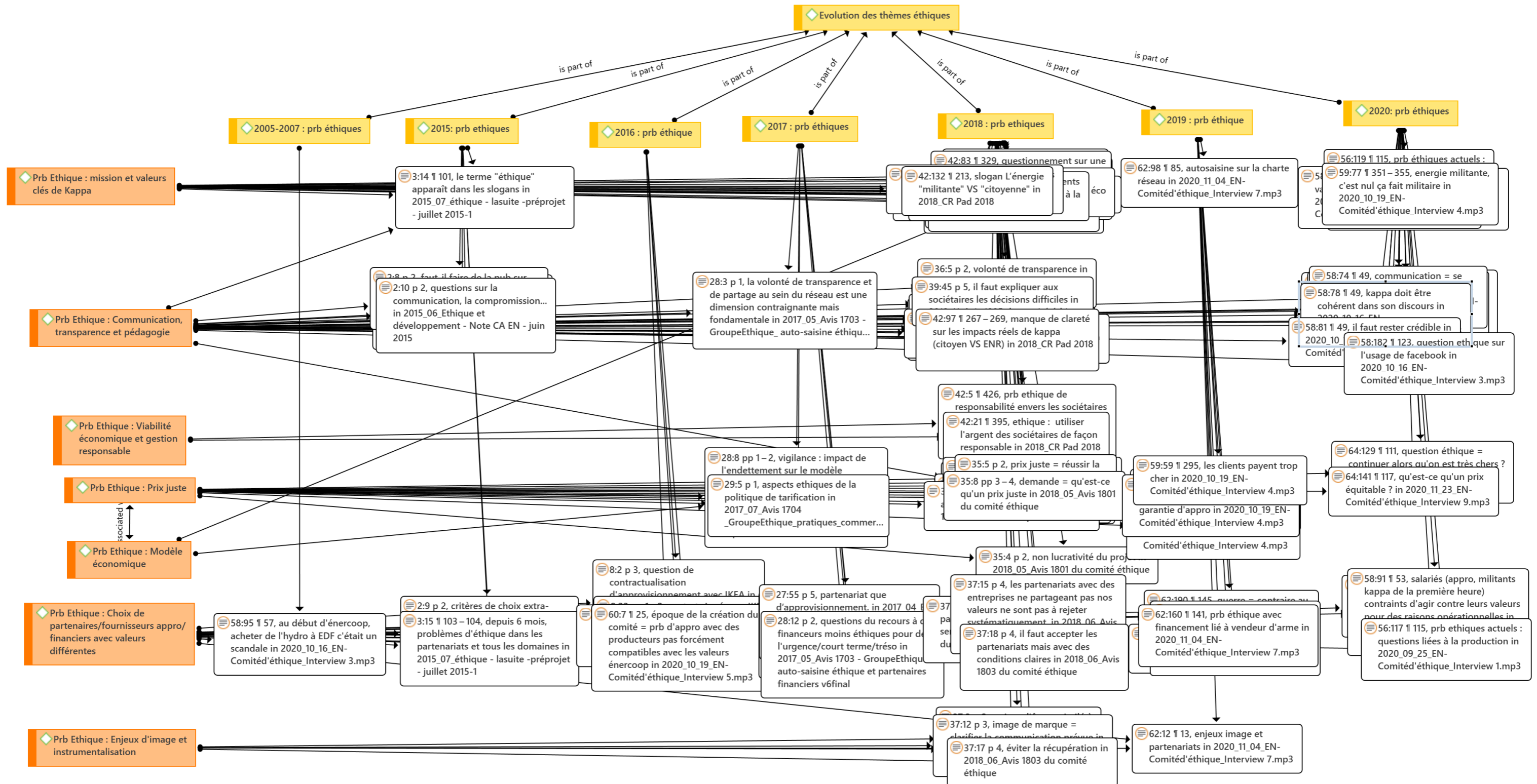
Contexte : marché : initialement Kappa = anti-nucléaire (edf), militant, avec peu concurrence	9
Contexte : marché : nouveaux clients + sensibles au prix ? plus de clients + sensibles au renouvelable ?	9
Contexte : marché : saisonnalité des tensions sur l'appro	2
Contexte : marché : si les gens payent plus c'est qu'ils adhèrent au projet ? ou alors on est juste trop cher ?	13
Contexte : Mission : Il vaut mieux investir dans de ENR locales, économies d'énergie	12
Contexte : Mission : Kappa fait-elle ce qui est le plus utile comme activités pour changer le système ? Besoin de nouveau positionnement [diversification de certaines EL]	5
Contexte : Mission : l'anti-nucléaire n'est plus la priorité de Kappa	1
Contexte : Mission : l'éthique dépend des valeurs qu'on a et Kappa a un idéal fort	15
Contexte : Mission : Stratégie de croissance	15
Contexte : ressources : Kappa a besoin de gens engagés/capital social pour fonctionner	2
Contexte : ressources : les membres ont du mal à passer de conso à participants (perception)	8
Contexte : ressources : questionnement sur la stratégie d'appro	2
Contexte : structure: Développement des coop locales	4
Contexte : structure: certaines CoopLoc (BR, AURA) ++ dépendantes de CoopNat	5
Contexte : structure: questionnement sur le modèle d'essaimage	1
Contexte : viabilité économique	11
Contexte : viabilité économique : CoopLocs en tension financière	2
Contexte : viabilité économique : crise financière à CoopNat	22
Contexte : viabilité économique : prb orga, management, turnover	14
Contexte : viabilité économique : tension avec le rôle militant	12
Contexte : viabilité économique : un modèle centralisé ne peut pas faire le poids face à EDF et Total	3
Contexte: gouvernance : tensions centralisation/décentralisation	18
Contexte: gouvernance : Gouvernance réseau instable, inadaptée à l'activité	17
Contexte: gouvernance : le modèle SCIC est inédit, à inventer	1
Contexte: gouvernance : Sociétariat plus hétérogène avec attentes différentes ? besoin de s'ajuster	14
Contexte: gouvernance : Tensions CoopLoc-CoopNat	23
Contexte: gouvernance : visions diff CoopLoc-CoopNat	5
Contexte: les prb éthique/les enjeux changent avec le contexte	7

Appendix I – Code structure (Roles of the committee)

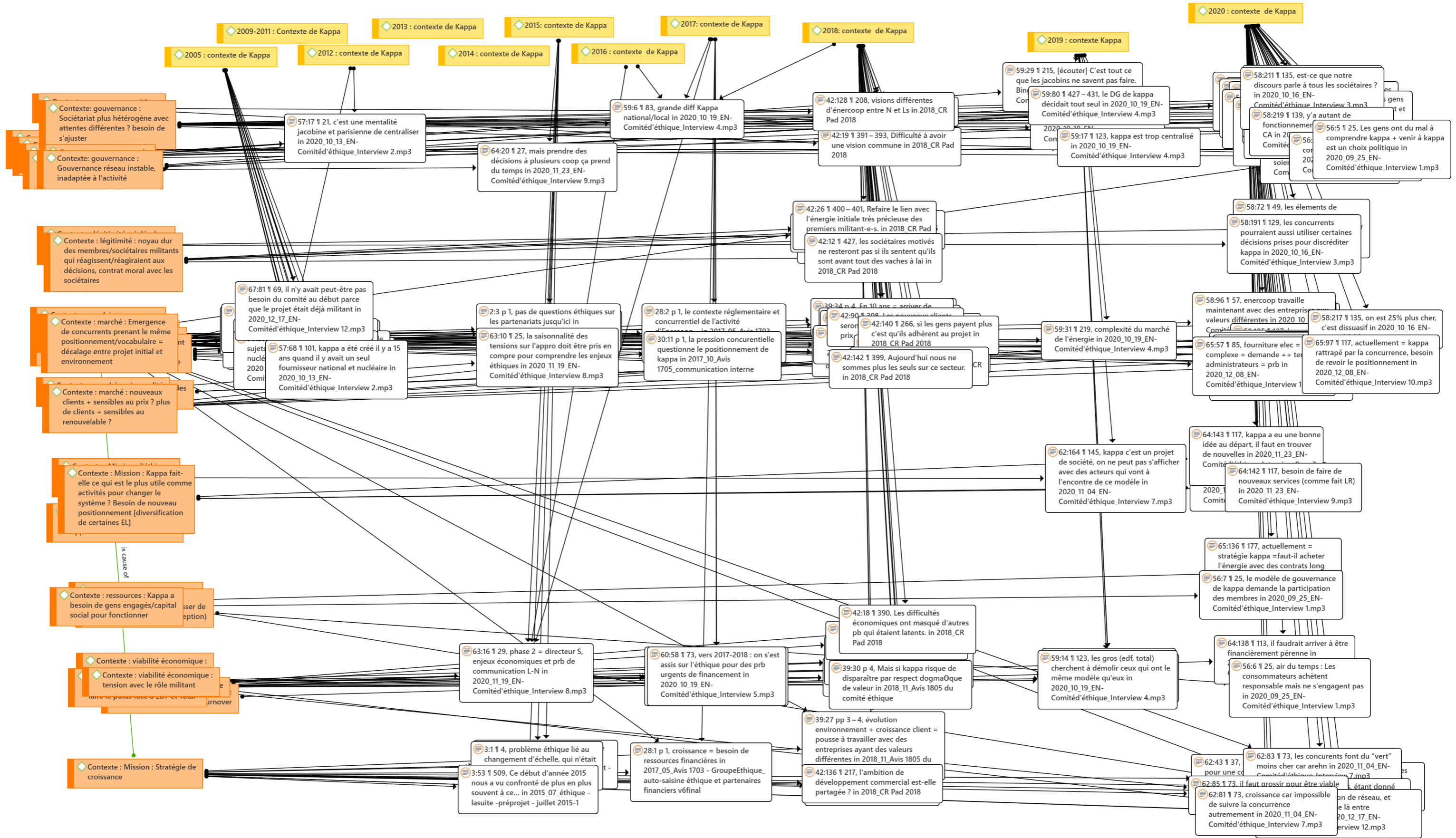
Code	Grounded
Rôle du comité	0
Rôle du comité : Argumenter : Eviter que les décisions soient contestées	4
Rôle du comité : Argumenter, justifier et expliquer les décisions	11
Rôle du comité : Autorisation	2
Rôle du comité : Autorisation : Aller contre un avis du comité demandera en pratique d'argumenter/sera le signe d'un problème	3
Rôle du comité : Autorisation : Le comité ne voulait pas être décisionnaire	1
Rôle du comité : Autorisation : Consultatif, ne prend pas de décision (les DG sont responsable, les CA et AG décident)	25
Rôle du comité : Autorisation : questionnement pour donner un rôle plus décisionnaire au comité	12
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ?	0
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : réfléchir aux grandes orientations de fond/stratégie/RH (rôle refusé au comité)	10
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : actualité du réseau	1
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : Analyser l'aspect éthique d'un prb sans se prononcer sur l'opérationnel, angle éthique	6
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : Cas où la décision n'est pas évidente	10
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : le comité ne devrait pas traiter des questions anecdotiques	1
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : Médiation de conflit (envisagé)	3
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : Ne pas donner une vision en noir et blanc	8
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : pas facile de rester purement sur l'éthique = lien avec stratégie, gouvernance, politique commerciale	3
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : Question éthiques, adéquation valeurs/projets	7
Rôle du comité : Avis sur quoi ? : Sujets "opérationnels" (pas grandes orientations)	5
Rôle du comité : conseil	0
Rôle du comité : conseil : Aider les décideurs à prendre des décisions avec des critères éthiques/gérer les dilemmes	44
Rôle du comité : conseil : Construire des outils d'aide à la décision	5
Rôle du comité : conseil : Nourir la réflexion	11
Rôle du comité : conseil : Rôle du comité: Rendre un avis/préconisation	2
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements : Adapter la vision Kappa aux changements internes/externes, tracer l'évolution	5
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements : Affirmer les valeurs en lien avec la stratégie	5
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements : Confronter l'idéal à la pratique	5
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements : donner du sens à l'entreprise	10
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements : faire vivre le projet coopératif : Identifier les valeurs	3
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements : Réfléchir à la cohérence éthique globale (dans et au delà des doc produits, insuffisance des chartes etc ?)	9
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements : Se différencier de la concurrence	12
Rôle du comité : construire les positionnements éthiques	0
Rôle du comité : dynamique collective : contribuer à la dynamique réseau	4

Rôle du comité : dynamique collective : Eviter les interprétations divergentes de l'éthique, harmoniser les pratiques	5
Rôle du comité : dynamique collective : Lieu de discussion pour impliquer les sociétaires	5
Rôle du comité : dynamique collective sur l'éthique	0
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul	5
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : Apporter un point de vue différent	11
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : Avis indépendant	2
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : en dehors de la sphère relationnelle	2
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : Être "au-dessus" des décisions quotidiennes	12
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : hors de l'urgence	9
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : hors des luttes de pouvoir	3
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : hors des tensions	2
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : poser les bonnes questions	0
Rôle du comité : Prise de recul : Réflexion désintéressée	1
Rôle du comité : vigilance	0
Rôle du comité : vigilance : constituer une jurisprudence éthique	3
Rôle du comité : vigilance : Eviter de perdre les valeurs/l'éthique	21
Rôle du comité : vigilance : Expliciter les tensions/prb	4
Rôle du comité : vigilance : Faire réfléchir	5
Rôle du comité : vigilance : Pallier au risque de se croire éthique par essence, se questionner	7
Rôle du comité : vigilance : Transgresser, faire réagir, poil à gratter	8

EVOLUTION OF ETHICAL THEMES – FULL CODE STRUCTURE IS AVAILABLE IN APPENDIX H.



EVOLUTION OF ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT- FULL CODE STRUCTURE IS AVAILABLE IN APPENDIX H.



EVOLUTION OF THE COMMITTEE'S ROLES – FULL CODE STRUCTURE IS AVAILABLE IN APPENDIX I

