



LOUVAIN
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Essays on the process of social entrepreneurship at the macro-level, meso-level and micro-level

Paulami MITRA

PhD Dissertation 04 | 2019

UNIVERSITE CATHOLIQUE DE LOUVAIN

LOUVAIN RESEARCH INSTITUTE IN MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONS

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meso-level and micro-level**

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Doctoral dissertation submitted for the degree of
Doctor in Economic and Management Sciences

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Louvain School of Management
Doctoral Thesis

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Paulami MITRA

The aim of this dissertation is to provide a better understanding of the process of social entrepreneurship.

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I dedicate this PhD dissertation to my husband and my parents.

Paulami Mitra

Paulami Mitra.

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INTRODUCTION

Conference Presentation:

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1. General Introduction

Social entrepreneurship has attracted considerable scholarly interest. There has been an abundance of theoretical, conceptual and empirical papers that have made social entrepreneurship navigate from a “*nascent*” and “*embryonic*” stage of development (Hoogendoorn *et al*, 2010; Moss *et al*, 2010; Short *et al*, 2009) to an area of “*rapid growth*” with a “*surge of research*” output (Saebi *et al*, 2019). Despite this widespread and growing research attention, a substantial amount of knowledge gap revolves in our understanding of the process of social entrepreneurship and the social entrepreneurs’ core execution strategies (Battilana, 2018; Battilana and Lee, 2014; Battilana *et al*, 2015; Dacin *et al*, 2011; Hoogendoorn, 2016; Jarrodi *et al*, 2019; Kimmitt and Munoz, 2018; Mair and Marti, 2006; Nicolopoulou, 2014; Rey-Marti *et al*, 2016; Tracey *et al*, 2011; Saebi *et al*, 2019; Shepherd, 2015; Smith *et al*, 2013; Zahra *et al*, 2009). My PhD research contributes by shedding light on the multi-level nature of social entrepreneurship and some of the processes occurring at the micro-level, meso-level and macro-level. The chapters of my thesis draw on theory from the field of management, as well as outside management, to understand the processes underlying social entrepreneurship.

Social entrepreneurship came into prominence in the face of depleting financial resources, rising costs and a growing competition among social purpose organizations to acquire public and private grants (Battilana, 2018; Dees, 1998; Defourney and Nyssens, 2010; Spitzbeck and Janssen, 2010). The primary mission of social entrepreneurial ventures is to create social and environmental value (Dacin *et al*, 2011; Dacin *et al*, 2010; Peredo and McLean, 2006). Thus, social entrepreneurs primarily aim to create social impact by exploiting market-based solutions and by utilizing a wide range of resources (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). As social entrepreneurship cross-fertilizes social logic with economic logic, hybridity is considered as one of its inherent characteristics (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Doherty *et al*, 2014; Mitra *et al*, 2017).

Furthermore, a review of the literature revealed that a topic that has received less attention in social entrepreneurial studies is our understanding of social entrepreneurship as a process or a sequence of micro-activities occurring at the micro-, meso- and macro-levels that constitute the process. For example, Shepherd (2015) explained that future contributions could highlight entrepreneurial processes as: (i) “*one in which the head engages the heart and the heart engages the head*”; (ii) “*as one of motivations beyond solely those of financial goals*”; and (iii) “*one of generating and refining potential opportunities through building, engaging and transforming communities of inquiry*” (p. 489).

Heeding the above call for research, the first chapter of my thesis draws data from The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor’s (GEM) 2015 report along with other sources such World Bank, World Economic Forum and Central Intelligence Agency. A comparison of the GEM’s special investigation on social entrepreneurship in 2009 followed by another investigation in 2015, reported a considerable increase in social entrepreneurial processes globally (Mitra *et al*, 2019a). These GEM reports suggest that today social entrepreneurial activity is a rare, yet, growing phenomenon. Thus, our paper contributes by examining the macro-level factors that stimulate or impede social entrepreneurial activity. This study was presented at the 5th *International ECFED (Entrepreneurship, Culture, Finance and Economic Development) Conference*.

The second chapter of my thesis is a qualitative study that explores hybrid organizing. Hybrid organizing (i.e. meso-level process) is regarded as a promising avenue for future research as it combines a social purpose with a business sense (Battilana, 2018; Battilana *et al*, 2018; McMullen and Warnick, 2016). Hybrid organizing structure is regarded as a fundamental characteristic of social entrepreneurial ventures (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Mitra *et al*, 2019a), thus, social entrepreneurship is treated as a compelling laboratory to study hybrid organizing (Battilana, 2018). Metaphorically, hybrid organizing can be expressed as a meso-level process in which the “*the head engages the heart and the heart engages the head*” as it goes “*beyond solely those of financial goals*”. However, some previous research highlighted the different tensions, such as conflicting institutional logics, stakeholder value mismatch and mission-drift, created by hybrid organizing in social entrepreneurship (Battilana and Dorado, 2010; Battilana *et al*, 2015; Kannothea, *et al*, 2016; Kent and Dacin, 2013; Pache and Santos, 2010, 2013; Smith *et al*, 2013; Zhao and Lounsbury, 2016). In this chapter, our study takes a contrary stance to hybrid organizing and elucidates two main advantages of hybrid organizing in social entrepreneurship. This paper was presented at the 5th *International ECFED (Entrepreneurship, Culture, Finance and Economic Development) Conference*. Another updated version was

presented at the 39th ISBE (*Institute for Small Business and Entrepreneurship*) Conference and was nominated for the best paper awards. This paper has been published in *International Review of Entrepreneurship*.

The third chapter of my thesis is a quantitative inquiry that primarily investigates crowdfunding (i.e. meso-level process) as an alternative funding process for social entrepreneurial ventures. Even though some studies have highlighted the strategic relevance of crowdfunding for social entrepreneurs (Parhankangas and Renko, 2017; Schwienbacher, 2015), there is a paucity of research examining crowdfunding within the context of social entrepreneurial ventures. Moreover, little is known about rewards (Cox et al, 2018; Thürridl and Kamleitner, 2016) and the motivation of different types of individuals that contribute through crowdfunding (McKenny et al, 2017). Thus, this paper also examines motivations (i.e. micro-level process) of the individually dispersed crowd that engages in the funding process of social entrepreneurial ventures through crowdfunding campaigns. To date, most studies in social entrepreneurship have taken a singular-level approach and thus, it has been suggested that the field can benefit from adopting a multi-level approach to social entrepreneurship (Saebi et al, 2019). This chapter of my dissertation responds to this call. It investigates the motivation of individuals, to study the extent to which intrinsic and extrinsic forces generated through natural rewards and material rewards can be supported by “*building, engaging and transforming communities of inquiry*” (Shepherd, 2015) through crowdfunding campaigns. This study was accepted at the 79th Academy of Management Annual Meeting and the abstract has been published in the *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Mitra et al, 2019b).

The fourth chapter of my thesis primarily explores the motivation of women social entrepreneurs (i.e. micro-level process), thus teasing out the reason why women, more than men, are motivated to engage in social entrepreneurial processes “*in which the head engages the heart and the heart engages the head*” (Shepherd, 2015). Despite the prevalence of gendered roles and norms in the social sector (Themudo, 2009), this topic has received scant research attention (Battilana, 2018). This study investigates this aforementioned gap in the literature and also contributes by exploring the context (i.e. macro-level process) that played a key role in influencing the women to adopt a career in social entrepreneurship. Thus, this chapter captures and elucidates deeper insights on social entrepreneurship research through a multi-level approach. An initial version of this study was presented at the 31st RENT (*Research in Entrepreneurship and Small Business*) Conference.

The aim of these four studies is to increase our understanding, both theoretically as well as practically, on how social entrepreneurial processes can solve some of the grave challenges

of our times, thereby making important contributions to the field of social entrepreneurship. Thus, this doctoral research project aims to conduct a thorough review of literature complimented with empirical evidence to enhance our understanding of the process of social entrepreneurship at the three different levels, namely, micro-level (i.e. motivations of social entrepreneurs and other stakeholders), meso-level (e.g. hybrid organizing and crowdfunding) and macro-level (e.g. institutional context and macro-level determinants).

2. Background Theory

2.a Social entrepreneurship and hybrid organizing

Social entrepreneurship is a process that offers innovative solutions to complex and persistent social and environmental problems that government and private enterprises often fail to resolve (Kickul and Lyons, 2016; Mair and Marti, 2006; Zahra *et al*, 2009). As social ventures simultaneously pursue a social mission along with financial objectives, such organisations are described as an ideal form of hybrids (Battilana, 2018; Battilana and Lee, 2014; Doherty *et al.*, 2014). Thus, stakeholders that engage in social entrepreneurial ventures that reflect hybrid organizing, often find it complex in combining two different objectives, that is the social objective and the economic objective (Dees and Elias, 1998; Austin *et al*, 2006).

Hoogendoorn *et al*'s (2010) and Bacq and Janssen's (2011) findings highlighted that four different schools of thought exist in social entrepreneurship:- two American schools of thought, one European school of thought and one UK school of thought. These four different schools of thought reveal different perspectives and approaches to social entrepreneurship, thus highlighting overlapping meanings, boundaries and definitions of social entrepreneurship across the world. A review of the fragmented literature on social entrepreneurship suggests that depending on the competing demands of commercial logic and social welfare logic, social entrepreneurship can be understood as a balancing act between the two bottom-line logics of social and economic. This is the reason social enterprises with overlapping social-welfare and commercial logic are comprehended as a hybrid organization. For instance, a social enterprise could be a non-profit organization supported by a mix of philanthropic funds and earned income and that would limit itself from participating in shareholder value creation (Dees and Anderson, 2002; Dees and Anderson, 2006). Hotbreak Kitchen based in New York City is an example of such a non-profit hybrid social venture that was launched to cater to the employment needs of immigrant women (Mitra *et al*, 2019a). Social enterprises could equally operate under a for-profit model and engage in income generation and attract investment

through venture capital and angel investors (Kickul and Lyon, 2016). Such organizations also target market based activities in a way that the generated revenue as well as financing received via venture capital helps in scaling the organization to create a greater impact. Frogtek, an example of such a for-profit hybrid social venture, was designed to help micro-entrepreneurs based in Mexico and Columbia (Mitra *et al*, 2019a). Social enterprises could also exist as a traditional non-profit entity pursuing a social mission combined with a traditional for-profit entity pursuing financial objectives (Haigh *et al*, 2015). Embrace and Embrace Innovations is an example of such a hybrid social venture with a non-profit arm and for-profit arm that produces low-cost incubators for premature babies born in low-income families, especially based in developing countries (Mitra *et al*, 2019a).

Among the above mentioned unclear boundaries and definitions of social entrepreneurship (Choi and Majumdar, 2016), the definition of social entrepreneurship that has guided me throughout my PhD research is referred “*as a process of identifying, evaluating and exploiting opportunities aiming at social value creation by means of commercial, market-based activities and of the use of a wide range of resources*” (Bacq and Janssen, 2011, p.376). This is because activities that do not seek rents might not be considered as an entrepreneurial process.

2.b Social entrepreneurs: their characteristics and motivations

Several scholarly attempts to understand the social entrepreneurial characteristics have been studied through multiple angles, such as the notion of opportunity creation, opportunity recognition and opportunity development. Entrepreneurial embeddedness has also received a lot of attention through the studies of Mair and Marti (2006) and Seelos *et al* (2011) where the researchers have highlighted the positive sides of the social entrepreneurs’ embeddedness and the negative aspects of over embeddedness. Innovation and entrepreneurial proactiveness has also been a key theme for studying the social entrepreneur, such as the bounded multidimensional model proposed by Weerawardena and Mort (2006) and the definitions proposed by Dees (1998), Mair and Marti (2006) and Peredo and McLean (2006). Leadbeater (1997) and Nicolopoulou (2014) also pointed out the importance of the social entrepreneurs’ social capital in building wider networks to generate sustainability of their projects. Zahra *et al* (2009) contend that different types of social entrepreneurs exist depending on what they do, the scope and scale of their work and the social value that they create. The researchers illustrate three different types of social entrepreneurs, namely, a social bricoleur, a social constructionist and a social engineer. Zahra *et al*’s (2009) research also states that the above three roles of social entrepreneurs could reflect at different points of their ventures. Hence, depending on the

context, the social entrepreneur and his role and characteristics could also evolve over the venture process.

Additionally, a growing body of research has also been exploring the literature on motivations to investigate what drives social entrepreneurs in pursuing a social mission and leading social change (Bacq and Alt, 2018; Renko, 2013; Ruskin et al, 2016; Yitskaki and Kropp, 2016). Studies revealed that social entrepreneurs are often driven by empathy (Dees, 1998; Dees, 2012; Yitskaki and Kropp, 2016), moral values, other-oriented commitments (Miller et al, 2012; Santos, 2012; Ruskin et al, 2016) and ethical obligations towards others (Zahra et al, 2009). Social entrepreneurs could also be driven by self-oriented motivations, such as success, wealth, personal development, well-being or status (Ruskin et al, 2016; Seelos and Mair, 2005). However, Shepherd (2015) proposes that future research can focus on building a theory of the micro-foundations of social entrepreneurial processes related to motivations as “*one in which the head engages the heart and the heart engages the head*”. Moreover, Miller et al (2012) highlighted that the literature on social entrepreneurial motivations needs attention as it is still remains undertheorized.

2.c Social Entrepreneurship as a process

Various scholarly studies propose social entrepreneurship as a process. At a micro-level, Weerawardena and Mort (2006) proposed that the phenomenon of creating social value could be undertaken by the social entrepreneur’s innovativeness, proactiveness and risk management capabilities. The researchers suggested that their conceptual model required empirical testing with cross-sector and cross-national samples. Zahra et al (2009) shared a similar concern and stated that their typologies on the three different types of social entrepreneurs sets the stage for future research on understanding the entrepreneurial processes of a social bricoleur, a social constructionist and a social engineer in order to create social value. Corner and Ho (2010) mentioned that little is known about the processes embodying social entrepreneurship and advocated the need to investigate the processes of opportunity creation, opportunity recognition, innovation and most importantly, the process of generating a social impact.

Following the above discussion, Mair and Marti (2006) claim that future research must be undertaken to analyse if social entrepreneurship is a process of detecting and managing problems, or a process of innovation through bricolage and overcoming institutional voids. They further subscribed to the idea that social entrepreneurship could also be considered as a process of combining resources and institutions at hand to achieve a social goal (Mair and Marti, 2009). Furthermore, they claim that the phenomenon could also be viewed as a process

of offering new social products and social services as well as a process of creating a new organizational form. Overall, even at these meso and macro levels, several questions about social entrepreneurship as a process remains unanswered. For instance, Short *et al*'s (2009) findings suggest that future research needs to distinguish between social entrepreneurship as a process and social entrepreneurship as an outcome. As this field has been characterized by multiple paradigms, it advocates the need to investigate social entrepreneurship as a process through rigorous conceptual and empirical research methods that occurs over a period of time.

In line with SE as a process, Haugh (2007) conducted a qualitative study on five community-led non-profit social ventures and generated a model composing the six different stages of the process of social venture creation. Haugh (2007) also proposed that future research must elaborate how the impact and outcomes of social entrepreneurial processes are created. Santos (2012), through a positive theory of social entrepreneurship, highlighted that social entrepreneurship leads to value creation. This value creation involves operational processes such as resources, strategies and behaviours (Meyskens *et al*, 2010). A study by Tracey *et al*, (2011) was conducted to bridge the gap between the three different levels of micro, meso and macro level institutional processes. As the study was based on a single case study on a social enterprise, several scholars such as Tracey *et al*, (2011) and Saebi *et al*, (2019) have addressed the need for further investigation through a multi-level approach. Thus, future research on understanding the social entrepreneurial processes and activities at the micro-level, meso level and macro-level is an important agenda of my PhD dissertation. Furthermore, Shepherd (2015) proposed that future research could break down entrepreneurial action into its fine-grained constituents and link these activities together to form a larger entrepreneurial process. To investigate the above mentioned research gaps, my doctoral study aims at addressing the following overarching research question: ***How does the social entrepreneurial process manifest at the micro-level, meso-level and macro-level?***

3. Research Questions and Articulation of the Chapters

The main objective of this thesis is to advance theoretical and practical understanding of the phenomenon of social entrepreneurship and the processes that constitute it. In order to investigate the over-arching research question of my thesis as mentioned in the previous section, my doctoral thesis has been divided into four empirical studies- two of which take a qualitative approach and two of which take a quantitative approach. These studies have been articulated below along with the research question it addresses:

Chapter 1: The Threshold-Level Determinants of Social Entrepreneurial Activity

Research Question: *What are the underlying and often necessary economic, cultural and socio-political factors that determine a country's social entrepreneurship activity?*

Market failures and governmental inadequacies often result in activities related to social entrepreneurship. If this is the case, why and how do social entrepreneurial activities (SEA) exist in developed countries like Norway, Switzerland or USA where macro-level factors are conducive to organized and efficient business and entrepreneurial practices? Additionally, since social entrepreneurship is expected to exist among institutional voids and BOP markets, SEA could occur in abundance in developing or least developed countries due to their fractured economic, cultural or socio-political structures. The purpose of this paper is to incorporate Compans and McMullen's (2006) distinctive framework based on supply and demand side theories on entrepreneurial opportunities to empirically test the macro-level factors that stimulate or impede SEA. By employing a number of robust empirical tests across fifty-three countries, this study makes theoretical and practical contributions by proposing that in addition to the existence of certain institutional voids and BOP markets related to weak governance, unpredictable GDP, wealth disparity and lack of personal freedom, a minimum threshold level of economic, cultural or socio-political infrastructure is often necessary in a country for an unstinted amount of SEA to occur. Theoretical and practical implications as well as limitations are discussed.

Chapter 2: Advantages of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship: Evidence from Norway

Research Question: *What are the advantages of hybrid organizing in social entrepreneurship, if any?*

Hybrid organising within the context of social entrepreneurship has been on the rise. At the same time, social entrepreneurial ventures that adopt hybrid organising are often criticized. The literature on hybridity points to particular challenges for social entrepreneurial ventures such as conflicting institutional logics and tensions related to their dual identity and/or mission drift. Drawing on the literature on hybrid organising and social entrepreneurship, in this paper we take a contrary stance and explore the positive aspects of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship. We ask the following research question: “*What are the advantages of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship, if any?*”? Using a qualitative approach, this study theorizes two main advantages of hybrid organising: sustainability of the organisational model

and efficiency of the organisational model. The article also discusses the implications for theory and practice.

Chapter 3: Social entrepreneurship and prosocial crowdfunding: The importance of ‘material’ rewards, ‘natural’ rewards and prosocial motivations

Research Question: *To what extent are natural and material rewards related to crowdfunders’ prosocial motivation and willingness to contribute in a prosocial crowdfunding context (i.e. social entrepreneurial project)?*

Over the last few years, crowdfunding has become a subject of growing research interest, more so, within the context of new ventures, creative industries and commercial entrepreneurship. In this paper, we look at the role of natural rewards (e.g. joy of giving) and material rewards (e.g. gifts) in relation to crowdfunders’ willingness to contribute financially to a social entrepreneurial project. Drawing on self-leadership theory, the purpose of this study is to gain a deeper understanding of rewards in prosocial crowdfunding. Data for the study has been collected from a crowdfunded project for an Indian social entrepreneurial venture that was uploaded on a leading French crowdfunding platform. Results based on 244 survey responses highlight that even though natural rewards attract crowdfunding, material rewards must be strategically tailored to attract contribution. Implications for theory and practice as well as limitations are discussed.

Chapter 4: Creating an identity: Motivation of women social entrepreneurs

Research Question: *How and under what conditions women are motivated to engage in founding and establishing their social entrepreneurial venture?*

Previous research highlighted that women are more likely than men to engage in social entrepreneurship. Despite this growing evidence, inadequate research addresses the integral role that women play in infusing positive social change by founding and establishing social entrepreneurial ventures. This study draws on the literature on social entrepreneurial motivations and benefits from the application of life-course perspective and identity-work. It engages a theory building approach to explore how and under what conditions women are motivated to found and establish their social entrepreneurial venture. Verbal and written narrative accounts of three women social entrepreneurs based in an eastern city in India, along with interviews with relevant organisational members and secondary data have been employed.

Our findings suggest that an unexpected life-event followed by challenging circumstances triggered the women to crave and create their own identity. This channelized the women to adopt and start-up social entrepreneurship as a medium for identity construction. The drive to create their own identity became the primary motivation to pursue social change. Thus, this paper contributes by addressing prior omission in social entrepreneurship research by focusing attention on the gendered aspect of social entrepreneurship. Furthermore, it makes a contribution to the social entrepreneurial motivations literature by adding the new dimension of creating an identity as the main motivational antecedent to social entrepreneurship of the women in our study. Our findings also make a contribution to policy and practice, by identifying that women are not only other-oriented, but also self-oriented enough to attract capital investment to strategize, work-hard and scale up their social ventures. Thus, we conclude by highlighting our contributions to existing scholarship on social entrepreneurial motivations, life-course and identity work, as well as strategic implications for policy and practice.

Table 1 represents the four chapters of my doctoral thesis that cover the three different levels (i.e. macro-, meso- and micro-levels) of social entrepreneurship.

4. Epistemological Reflection and Motivation

As a young scholar, I speculate that today our world is amidst a multi-pronged crisis—a financial crisis, a social crisis and an environmental crisis. Being an optimist, I still dream of a better world and reflect on the ontological commitments (i.e. assumptions that are concerned with the nature and essence of social phenomenon (Cohen *et al*, 2007)) and epistemological commitments (i.e. assumptions that are concerned with the deepest form of knowledge and how it should be accessed and communicated to other human beings (Cohen *et al*, 2007)) that a researcher needs to have with her subject or object of research (Johnson and Duberly, 2003). I believe that the philosophy behind social entrepreneurship is novel and powerful, yet, has a scope for further development in terms of practice and research.

Russell (1946) highlighted that philosophy is that which lies in between theology and science and thus could face attack from both sides. Definite knowledge belongs to science and dogma belongs to theology. Several scholars have contributed to the philosophy of knowledge by dichotomizing knowledge as finding truth through repeated testing or measuring (Hussey and Hussey, 1997) while some others believed in discovering truth through knowledge creation by decoding and translating the naturally occurring processes in the social world (Van Maanen,

Table 1: Brief Overview of the Dissertation						
Chapters	Research Method	Primary Focus			Secondary Focus	Background theory/literature apart from social entrepreneurship
		Macro-level	Meso-level	Micro-level		
Chapter 1	Quantitative Study: GEM 2015 report; database developed from sources such as World Bank, World Economic Forum, Central Intelligence Agency.	Macro-level determinants of social entrepreneurial activity				Compansys and McMullen's Framework
Chapter 2	Qualitative Study: Case studies; interviews and secondary data.		Hybrid Organizing			Hybrid organizing
Chapter 3	Quantitative Study: Survey responses.		Crowdfunding		Motivation (Micro-level)	Self-leadership theory; crowdfunding; motivations
Chapter 4	Qualitative Study: Narrative accounts (oral and written); secondary data.			Motivation	Context (Macro-level)	life-course perspective; identity theory; gender and context; social entrepreneurial motivations

1983). The next section shall discuss epistemological approaches that differ in their assumptions or goals.

4.a Deduction, Induction and Abduction

Wicks and Freeman (1998) conceptualized epistemology as the debate between positivists and anti-positivists. Popper (1977), who belonged to the post-positivist league, claimed that the belief in deductivism arises from knowledge that deals with logical relations. The method of deductive testing, that Popper upheld, must be a set of logical analysis through experience. He described that the logical world of our experience must fulfil the following three criteria: it should be synthetic and non-contradictory; it should satisfy the criterion of demarcation; and most importantly, it must be distinguished by submitting it to testing through experience, thus applying a deductive method.

Popper (1977) explained that the truth of all statements must be conclusively verifiable. This means that all statements must be capable of being verified as well as falsified, as without it, the statement renders no meaning. It is good to recall at this point that Popper (1977) had shared some concerns regarding the positivist logic proposed by the philosophers belonging to the Vienna Circle. Popper did not belong to that league as he did not agree to the positivist logic of the Vienna Circle who promoted and explained verifiability as a statement that could be rendered meaningful if verified through observational evidence (Cadwell, 1991). On the contrary, Popper viewed falsifiability as the criterion of demarcation in place of verifiability as followed by the logical positivists. He found strength in his idea of falsifiability as conclusions and inferences drawn by humans can always miss or fall short of the truth (Popper, 1977, p.374). Thus, Popper was one of the first to criticize some of the works of logical positivists and created some advances through his post-positivist falsifiability criterion of demarcation. He was aware that his concept could face criticism yet he defended falsifiability to show that it led to verisimilitude that could impel researchers to generate more truth and lesser false content in their theories and ideas.

In his book, Popper (1979) referred to Hume and Kant on several occasions to associate the problem of induction with Hume and the problem of demarcation with Kant. According to the philosopher, inductive inferences are generated by singular statements as opposed to his view on universal statements generated through experience. He criticized the fact that inductive

methods do not furnish the community of scientists and researchers with established and well-written rules to uphold its process. This leads to ambiguity. He made it clear that he rejected the inductive logic and partially acknowledged it to its inability to provide a criterion of demarcation, which he treats as the fundamental problem of inductive logic. He defined the problem of demarcation as the problem of being unable to distinguish empirical sciences and logical systems of testing. Several positivists reject induction and subjectivity, as they believe that this leads to singular statements and hence regard it as a non-scientific approach.

Wicks and Freeman (1998) explored the value and assumptions behind positivism and rendered positivists hostile towards ethics in organizational studies. In this regard, referring to the works of Aristotle, Bacon and Newton, Locke (2007) highlighted that novel theory building, especially in social sciences, should be inductive in nature. For instance, several questions in social entrepreneurship are under-researched. These probably cannot be answered only through Comte or Popper's approach towards deductivism or positivism. Therefore, while reading about the famous philosophers such as Descartes, Locke or Kant, I realized the importance of discovery of knowledge through observation and experience. For instance, Locke's stress on empiricism and Descartes stress on rationalism has not only influenced Kant's Kantianism and his dual theory of knowledge, but also how both experience and non-experience based knowledge can be implemented to unfold the process of social entrepreneurship. Furthermore, I also discovered the force of abduction that allows an interplay between what comes from the theory, what is found in conceptual work and what is found through engagement with the data (Van Maanen *et al*, 2007). This leads to the invention of theory which is both meaningful and surprising as it deviates from established theory (Alvesson and Kärreman, 2007). In the process, abduction assigns primacy to empirical evidence that motivates theorizing by complementing induction and deduction.

In other words, I find deductivism, inductivism as well as abduction extremely useful and effective in studying the philosophy behind social entrepreneurship. Being aware of the strengths and the epistemological, philosophical and sociological debates within the field of social entrepreneurship, my thesis engages in framing two chapters through a positivist approach and two chapters through an anti-positivist approach. Of the two chapters following an anti-positivist approach, one adopts an inductive approach and the other adopts an abductive approach.

5. Expected Contribution

This thesis contributes to the growing literature in social entrepreneurship. Previous theoretical and empirical studies have investigated in defining social entrepreneurship, explored the drivers of social change and the key characteristics and motivations of a social entrepreneurs (Bornstein, 1998; Catford, 1998; Prabhu, 1999; Thompson *et al*, 2000; Drayton, 2002; Dearlove, 2004; Roberts and Woods, 2005, Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014). Despite the widespread growth and interest of scholars in social entrepreneurship, several questions remains unanswered. Through the four chapters that compose this thesis, I embrace the opportunity to contribute theoretically, empirically and suggest practical implications of my research to social entrepreneurship in the following ways:

5a. Theoretical Contribution

Contributing to extant literature and theory is an important responsibility of a researcher. Through my PhD dissertation, I have attempted not only to analyze and decode the process of social entrepreneurship, but I have taken keen interest in applying, extending and developing theory. For instance, extant literature has highlighted the strength of identity theory (Fauchart and Gruber, 2011; Seiger *et al*, 2016) or self-leadership theory (Bendell *et al*, 2019; Neck and Houghton, 2006; Stewart *et al*, 2011), which has been under-utilized within the context of social entrepreneurship. Heeding such calls for theory extension, application and development, my research papers have attempted to contribute to existing scholarship on hybrid organizing, crowdfunding, motivations, social entrepreneurial motivations, life-course perspective, identity work, gender and Companys and McMullen's framework.

Further to the above discussion, at a micro-level, key motivations and intentions of social entrepreneurs has been studied to a good extent. Extant literature on social entrepreneurial motivations have often been compared with motivations of commercial entrepreneurs that highlighted entrepreneurial alertness, opportunity recognition or innovation as some important drivers of social change. Several studies also explained that social entrepreneurs not only exhibit prosocial motivations, other-oriented motivations, but also certain self-oriented motivations. However, scholars have highlighted that a more holistic view of social entrepreneurial motivations is needed as it remains under-theorized (Saebi *et al*, 2019; Millet *et al*, 2012). Chapter three of my thesis contributes to the literature on social

entrepreneurial motivations by adding the dimension of identity creation as an important motivational driver for female social entrepreneurs.

Furthermore, several scholars have highlighted the significance of context in entrepreneurship research. Contextualizing entrepreneurship is important as entrepreneurial processes can be better understood within its contexts (Welter, 2010), yet scholars have also asserted that context-specificity has often been neglected (Dacin *et al*, 2011; Shepherd, 2015). Through this thesis, we positioned country, gender and crowdfunding contexts as important conditions to study the phenomenon of social entrepreneurship. For instance, several empirical studies on social entrepreneurship have focused on the context of either developed economy (Shaw and Carter, 2007; Corner and Ho, 2010) or developing economy (Mair and Marti, 2009; Kistruck and Beamish, 2010) or underdeveloped economy (Baker and Nelson, 2005). In this thesis, the first-hand data was collected from France, Norway and India which highlighted very different historical, institutional, social and cultural contexts that provided opportunities and constraints to deepen the theoretical understanding of the process of social entrepreneurship occurring within different contexts.

Additionally, Saebi *et al*, (2019) concurred that most studies have been analyzing social entrepreneurship at only one level. This could misrepresent the processes as social entrepreneurship is a multi-level phenomenon. Understanding the importance of this statement, two of my chapters have contributed by investigating social entrepreneurship across different levels.

5b. Empirical Contribution

Over the last few years, there has been an increasing call for quantitative studies in the field of social entrepreneurship (Short *et al*, 2009; Hoogendoorn *et al*, 2010). However, in recent publications, both qualitative and quantitative approaches have been adopted by researchers. I believe to have contributed by employing a variety of epistemological and methodological approaches through this thesis. The first chapter of my thesis neither takes an interpretive approach nor a deductive approach. Rather, it takes an abductive approach to unfold the mystery behind hybrid organizing. The second chapter adopts a quantitative approach in which surveys were designed, distributed and collected by me. The third chapter of my thesis employed a narrative approach by analyzing oral life stories, written biographies,

interviews and secondary data, thus following an inductive approach. Furthermore, the last chapter of my thesis, again took another approach by statistically analyzing GEM 2015 data.

5b. Practical Contribution

The findings from the different chapters of my thesis highlights several practical implications for social entrepreneurs in order to attract the right crowd as different stakeholders of the organization. For example, chapter two of my thesis highlights two key advantages of hybrid organizing that social entrepreneurs must take advantage of. Furthermore, Bacq and Alt (2018) highlighted that not all individuals that have a prosocial nature become a social entrepreneur. This suggests the prosocial quality of individuals who do not engage in social entrepreneurship could be strategically tapped into social entrepreneurial activities. Chapter two of my thesis makes a deep investigation into the literature on motivations to suggest that individuals with a prosocial motivation have a significant chance of financially contributing to social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding. Moreover, such findings have practical implications for educators and public institutions that should provide resources to stimulate social entrepreneurship.

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Chapter 1

The Threshold-Level Determinants of Social Entrepreneurial Activity

Abstract

Market failures and governmental inadequacies often result in activities related to social entrepreneurship. If this is the case, why and how do social entrepreneurial activities (SEA) exist in developed countries like Norway, Switzerland or USA where macro-level factors are conducive to organised and efficient business and entrepreneurial practices? Additionally, since social entrepreneurship is expected to exist among institutional voids and BOP markets, SEA should occur in abundance in developing or least developed countries due to their fractured economic, cultural or socio-political structures. The purpose of this paper is to incorporate Compans and McMullen's (2006) distinctive framework based on supply and demand side theories on entrepreneurial opportunities to empirically test the macro-level factors that stimulate or impede SEA. By employing a number of robust empirical tests across fifty-three countries and by keeping the analysis at the venture-level, this study makes theoretical and practical contributions by proposing that in addition to the existence of certain institutional voids and BOP markets related to weak governance, unpredictable GDP, wealth disparity and lack of personal freedom, a minimum threshold level of economic, cultural or socio-political infrastructure is often necessary in a country for an unstinted amount of SEA to occur. Theoretical and practical implications as well as limitations are discussed.

Conference Presentation:

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1. Introduction

The last two decades have witnessed considerable interest of researchers in positioning and understanding the activities undertaken by social entrepreneurial ventures (SEV). Even though the field has received subsequent public and academic attention (Battilana and Dorado, 2010), a substantial amount of knowledge gap revolves in our understanding of social entrepreneurial activities (SEA). This paper aims to take an empirical approach to investigate the macro-level factors that stimulate or impede the core execution processes and strategies of SEA that seem to exist among institutional voids and BOP markets (Mair and Marti, 2006; Nicolopoulou, 2014; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006; Zahra et al, 2009). Having a deeper understanding of these factors will not only allow a deeper theoretical understanding of the process of social entrepreneurship, but will also allow social ventures to take full advantage of their macro environment. Additionally, it will also allow stakeholders at the macro-level provide resources that would allow the launching and scaling of social ventures, which in turn will help in creating a broader social and environmental impact.

According to Zahra *et al* (2009), the traditional Schumpeterian social entrepreneurs' activities are undertaken to replace dated structures and processes through innovation. The traditional Kirznerian social entrepreneurs' activities centre on developing new products and services through the recognition and alertness to market opportunities (Zahra *et al*'s, 2009). Finally, Zahra *et al*'s (2009) explanation of Hayek's social entrepreneurs' activities revolve around the social entrepreneur's local and tacit knowledge of the environment by leveraging local resources to create solutions to local problems. As such, Rindova *et al* (2009) explain that “*entrepreneurship*” is an act of bringing new economic, cultural, institutional and social states around the actor's environment. The authors (Rindova *et al*, 2009) contend that future research must undertake a broader examination of “*the various environments in which entrepreneurs take actions*” (p. 480). Additionally, little attention has addressed the macro-level factors that influence SEA (Griffiths *et al*, 2013). Thus, the purpose of our study is to empirically examine the following research question:

Research Question: What are the underlying and often necessary economic, cultural and socio-political factors that determine a country's social entrepreneurship activity?

To address the above research concern, we draw on the literature on institutional voids (Mair and Marti, 2009; Mair *et al*, 2012) and BOP (i.e., bottom of the pyramid) strategies (Prahalad, 2004). We utilize Compans and McMullen's (2006) distinctive framework that classifies entrepreneurial opportunities based on supply or demand side theory on the production function. Compans and McMullen's (2006) elucidation of the process of entrepreneurial opportunity creation and exploitation are based on three distinct schools of thought. These are the (1) economic school, (2) the cultural-cognitive school and (3) the socio-political school. We coalesce the above concepts to build a theoretical framework for our research question.

To conduct our empirical study, we created a database from multiple sources such as GEM (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2016), Central Intelligence Agency and The Legatum Prosperity Index. Our sample encompasses 53 countries (Table 1, see Appendix) that ranges from developed countries like USA and Norway through developing countries like India and Brazil to least developed countries like Senegal. In our sample, the countries with the highest levels of SEA were Senegal (18.1%), Luxembourg (13.8%) and Peru (13.1%) while the countries with the lowest levels of SEA were Spain (1.3%), Morocco (1.1%), and Bulgaria (1%). To understand these differences, our study examined the various macro-level determinants of SEA. We attempted to statistically analyse which combinations of the macro-level factors played a key role in differentiating SEA in different countries.

In order to analyse our data, we conducted canonical discriminant analysis using SPSS. Canonical discriminant analysis helps in predicting group membership based on independent variables or predictor variables. Specifically, this analysis derives canonical variables, (i.e., linear combinations of our interval variables) that summarizes between-class variation. A number of linear combinations of variables can be classified into groups based on their loadings (highest possible correlations) with a canonical variable. In our sample, a total of nine independent variables spread across three dimensions (i.e. economic, cultural and socio-political) helps to predict group membership based on SEA activity of each country. The tests allow the countries to be classified into three groups, namely, 'Leading', 'Evolving' and 'Nascent' nations. After performing the analysis, it was realised that our data had 53 valid cases. This emphasized that in order to bring about new economic, cultural, institutional and social developments, the macro-environment of the actor (i.e., social entrepreneur) must be

able to provide a necessary threshold level of economic, cultural and socio-political factors in order for SEA to flourish.

2. Theoretical Background

Social entrepreneurial activities (SEA) are focused on creating social value leveraged by market based strategies (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Mair and Marti, 2006; Miller et al., 2012; Sharir and Lerner, 2006; Zahra *et al*, 2009). As such, social entrepreneurial organisations adopt different forms of organising methods such as non-profit, for-profit (Townsend and Hart, 2008) and hybrid organising structures (Battilana, 2018; Battilana and Dorado, 2010; Battilana and Lee 2014; Doherty *et al*, 2014; Dorado, 2006; Mitra *et al*, 2017). Moreover, social entrepreneurial organisations have to navigate through different macro-environmental factors such as economic, cultural and socio-political institutions. These formal and informal structures exist in uncertain environments such as BOP markets and at institutional voids. In the following section, the paper discusses the above more in detail.

SEA in BOP markets and institutional voids

BOP markets that consist of four billion people who have been living on less than 2\$ per day, are an exciting avenue for breakthrough innovations (Hart and Prahalad, 2002; Prahalad, 2004). BOP strategies' signal entrepreneurial opportunities by creating and exploiting "*awareness, access, affordability and availability*" of products and services (Prahalad, 2011). The people who represent this market in different parts of the world are affected by different economic, cultural and socio-political factors. As the BOP segment is often controlled by inefficient methods, it has been challenging to embed organised structures, processes and activities in this sector (Kirkstruck *et al*, 2011). Many of these markets arise out of institutional voids that are characterized by highly uncertain environments and extreme resource constraints at the local, national or global levels (Seelos and Mair, 2005; Mair and Marti, 2009). Thus institutional voids are those vacuums in the market created out of weak or absent governance support augmented by the lack of formal and informal economic institutions, cultural institutions and socio-political institutions (Fligstein, 2001; Santos and Eisenhardt, 2009).

SEAs have an important role to play in such spaces inflicted by imperfect market conditions, weak governance, poor infrastructure and inflated prices of products and services (Griffiths *et al*, 2013; Webb *et al*, 2009). Individual entrepreneurs are often better equipped to scan opportunities and develop grassroots-level SEA in such markets (Hart and Christensen, 2002). Furthermore, in order to create economic and social wealth in the BOP and institutionally volatile markets, actors must be able to shape their activities and processes through resource constraints (Mair and Marti, 2009; Mair *et al*, 2012). This idea of working through resource constraints such as lack of funding, human resources, local or national institutional standards, logistical infrastructure and difficulties in accessing the markets has often been associated to social entrepreneurship. Thus, SEA engages in ‘*bricolage*’ by making-do with whatever resources are at hand (Baker and Nelson, 2005) in order to operate in markets and among penurious environments that provide inadequate economic, cultural and socio-political support. In the next section, we build on these three elements through Company’s and McMullen’s (2006) framework on the production processes of social entrepreneurial opportunity discovery, creation and exploitation.

Company’s and McMullen’s Framework

Entrepreneurial opportunity has been described as the opportunity to engage in entrepreneurial activity to produce goods, products, services or engage in new organising methods to create value that is economic in nature (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Social entrepreneurial opportunity is similar to the above description except that SEA produces value that is both social and financial (Bacq *et al*, 2015; McMullen and Warnick, 2015; Zahra *et al*, 2008; Zahra and Wright, 2015). Based on the process of entrepreneurial opportunity creation and exploitation strategies, Company’s and McMullen’s (2006) review explain that three different schools of thought have emerged. These are as follows:

The Economic School

According to the economic school, entrepreneurial opportunity exists as a result of the availability of “*new data of material resources*” or valuable economic information about new means of capabilities and production (Company’s and McMullen, 2006). This information provides competitive advantage for the firm that is able to discover and exploit new solutions

to existing social problems. Such data could exist in BOP markets, such as microfranchising efforts in Kenya, India, Iran and Guatemala as studied by Kistruck *et al* (2011).

The economic infrastructure, the business environment, wealth disparity, institutional voids and labour participation are all important factors that drive the emergence of entrepreneurial opportunities. The proponents on the economic school emphasize on ‘how’ problems are solved given the existing knowledge and resources. For example, the concept of ‘bricolage’ that is often utilised in SEA (Bacq *et al*, 2015; Desa and Basu, 2011; Gundry *et al*, 2011; Zahra *et al*, 2009) can explain how social actors leverage entrepreneurial opportunities through the use of limited resources (Baker and Nelson, 2005) amidst institutional voids (Mair and Marti, 2009). Furthermore, SEAs often obtain substantial amounts of capital resources, grants and funding from federal, state and local governments. Several scholars have highlighted how the economic logic of extending grants and capital for SEAs changed in Europe and elsewhere due to decrease in the availability of public subsidies and government funds after the financial crisis (Defourney and Nyssens, 2010; Kickul and Lyons, 2016; Lumpkin *et al*, 2013; Lyons and Kickul, 2013). Similarly, Smith and Gronbjerg (2006) emphasized how government bodies and economic institutions responded to such unavailability of economic resources by contracting out services to non-profit actors, or extending subsidies to beneficiaries or by regularly renewing grants for SEAs. SEAs reacted to such existing knowledge by developing sustainable hybrid entities that accommodated efficient market-based activities (Battilana *et al*, 2012; Mitra *et al*, 2017).

The Cultural-cognitive School

The cultural-cognitive school posits that entrepreneurial opportunities embedded in the environment are subject to the actors’ interpretation of the opportunity. In this case, entrepreneurial opportunities are subjective in nature as the interpretation of data depends on the moral codes and judgement patterns embedded in one’s culture, tradition and social systems (Companys and McMullen, 2006). Culture has been viewed as fragmented where institutions, agency and embeddedness interact with shared cognitive structures that organises the information received (DiMaggio, 1997). Rachels (2008) explains that in business, ethics and entrepreneurship, every standard and distribution of knowledge about opportunities is “*culture-bound*”. Similarly, Wick *et al* (2010) highlights similar patterns in managerial behaviour in the

global marketplace where personal freedom to make decisions are relative to the individual and the group or culture the actor is embedded in. Thus, the proponents of the cultural-cognitive school challenges the objectivity in distributed data that the proponents of the economic school proposes. The perspective of the cultural-cognitive school highlights that the novelty of the data is not in discovering and exploiting the entrepreneurial opportunity that already exists in the environment. Rather, the competitive advantage lies in new interpretations of existing information that culturally embedded actors can interpret, thus emphasizing the ‘why’ element of shifting preferences. The distribution of knowledge that is asymmetric in nature (Hayek, 1945) can be understood as the quest for maximizing value by producing an alternative solution that is good enough (Simons, 1957).

Over the last few years, a discussion on measuring social impact of SEAs has been underway. As measuring impact has traditionally been interpreted in terms of financial performance or rate of growth of a business, there is considerable amount of ambiguity in how actors embedded in different cultural settings interpret and measure social and environmental impact in case of SEAs (McMullen and Warnick, 2016; Zahra and Wright, 2016). Additionally, Emerson (2003) and Nicholls (2009) advocated a balanced attention to measure social and environmental wealth, yet Emerson (2003) highlighted that measuring such SEAs was difficult due to a lack of common cultural understanding of these issues by different actors in the field. Another notable example is that of Mair *et al*’s (2012) study on social entrepreneurial models. The authors highlight that discovering social entrepreneurial opportunities requires a process of conceptualizing the social problem where the actors (i.e. social entrepreneurs) address the need for “(re)interpreting and (re)defining” (p. 355) the social issue first. The above examples highlight the subjective nature and the cultural embeddedness of social entrepreneurship

The Socio-political School

Companys and McMullen’s (2006) review elucidated socio-political school as the third school that leverages on “*exploiting new data or new interpretations of existing data*” to create competitive advantage. Socio-political processes and governance structures set the rules of the game (Williamson, 2002). That is, social entrepreneurial opportunity exists as a result of social relations and network structures that play an important role for social entrepreneurs in perceiving, mobilizing and exploiting such opportunities. Entrepreneurial opportunities thus exist in between complex networks of social relationships that in turn shape economic activities

(Granovetter, 1985). For example, Powell (1990), in his seminal article, explain that actors embedded in a network of social relations represent a healthy form of organisation through reciprocal communications and exchanges. Additionally, actors placed in different governance structures are exposed to distinctive strengths and weaknesses that the governance disposes (Simons, 1978; Williamson, 1996, 1998, 2002).

Following the above discussion, the cases of Sekem in Egypt and Grameen Bank in Bangladesh are worth mentioning where the entrepreneurial actors acted with significant socio-political skills to perceive social entrepreneurial opportunities and muster resources for exploiting and scaling SEA (Seelos and Mair, 2005). On that note, several studies have highlighted innovation in SEA through “political bricolage” and “social bricolage” of persuading, mobilizing and organising members in the network, as the key to exploit social entrepreneurial opportunities (Baker and Nelson, 2005; Domenico *et al*, 2010). The socio-political school differs from the economic school by attaching meaning and importance to social, political and governance processes instead of material resources. Similarly, it differs from the cultural school by emphasizes ‘who’ was involved in the process instead of ‘why’ the process was taking place. As a result, social norms, networks, governance regulations and coercive rules play an important role in either inhibiting or facilitating the discovery and creation of social entrepreneurial opportunities in order to execute social action (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983).

Drawing on Companys and McMullen’s (2006) review on the three schools of thought, the table 1 (see Appendix) draws an outline of the above explanation. Additionally, the table connects the framework with examples of SEA.

3. Methodology

Our data was gathered recently through the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor report of 2016 (GEM), the World Factbook published by Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), the World Bank Report (2017), The Legatum Prosperity Index (PI) and The Global Gender Gap Index Report 2015 published by the World Economic Forum. The 2016 GEM study reported a special issue on social entrepreneurship and is considered as the largest comparative study in this area

that measured SEA in 58 countries through 167,793 interviews (Bosma *et al*, 2016). The CIA provides updated information related to public interest such as economy, government, people and society. The World Development Report (2017) published by The World Bank provides detailed information about issues related to governance and policy. The Legatum Prosperity Index (2016) assesses 142 countries that accounts for over 90 percent of the world's population. The index is based on 104 different variables that demonstrates the effect on economic growth or on personal wellbeing. This is further categorised into eight sub-indexes, each of which represents a fundamental aspect of prosperity and entrepreneurial ecology. Our study is limited to the 53 countries for which data was available on the level of SEA.

Discussion of Variables

Social Entrepreneurial Activity: Being a multi-country initiative, the 2016 GEM data provides a cross-country comparison of SEA. SEA was measured by considering each economy's proportion of working-age (18-64) individuals who are in the process of starting or leading activities, initiatives or organisations that address any form of social, environmental or community- based goal. Additionally, such individuals and their organisations had to be engaged in market based activities and should have prioritized social value creation over economic value creation (Bosma *et al*, 2016). GEM reported that the average rate of SEA across fifty-eight countries ranged between 1% (Bulgaria) to 18.1% (Senegal). This suggested that while SEA is a rare phenomenon, SEA also varied across countries irrespective of their institutional infrastructure, BOP markets or institutional voids. SEA is the dependent variable in our study (see table 2 in the Appendix for SEA across countries).

Additionally, nine independent variables have been sourced as predictor variables from the three dimensions of economic, cultural and socio-political schools. These variables have been derived from the literature as advocated by Companys and McMullen (2006). These are as follows:

Economic Measures: Four economic measures were utilised for our study.

Gini Index: In our study, the Gini index was useful as it gave a measure of the economic wealth disparity in a country based on the distribution of family income. According to Morgan (1962), it is the best single measure of inequality in a country. It is derived from the Lorenz curve and it ranges from 0 to 100. The more unequal the family income distribution, higher

will be the Gini index and further the Lorenz curve will be from the helping line of 45 degree. Similarly, lower the income disparity in a country, lower will be the Gini index and closer the Lorenz curve will be from the helping line of 45 degree. In our study, Gini index was obtained from the World Factbook published and maintained on line by the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP): GDP is another vital economic indicator that helps to assess the performance of a country. It can be described as the total value of all goods and services produced within a given period by a national economy through domestic factors of production (Ebert and Griffin, 2013). Economists often use this measure to understand the living conditions or the resources used while comparing across countries. We obtained this measure for all the fifty-five countries in our sample from the World Factbook published and maintained on line by the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency.

Labour Participation: Labour participation rate has been sourced from the online database maintained by the World Bank. This variable represents the percentage of a country's citizen in the total labour force as determined by the International Labour Organization, using The World Bank population estimates.

Business Environment: The variable of business environment measures the level of competitiveness, growth and prosperity of a country. Thus, this helps in explaining the economic prosperity of a country.

Cultural-cognitive Measures: Three cultural-cognitive measures were utilised for our study.

Personal Freedom: The personal freedom variable (2015) measures a country's performance in two areas: individual freedom and social tolerance. A subset of the Legatum Prosperity Index, this variable captures the importance of various freedoms—of choice, expression (including press freedom), movement, and belief — and tolerance of minorities and immigrants, for a country's wealth and the wellbeing of its citizens. Societies that foster strong civil rights and freedoms have been shown to enjoy increases in levels of satisfaction among their citizens. When citizens' personal liberties are protected, a country benefits from higher levels of national income.

Gender-gap Index: The gender-gap index was sourced from The Global Gender Gap Index 2015 published by the World Economic Forum. This index is an important measure that

reflects socio-cultural factors that stimulate or inhibit women's rights, labour participation and equality in the society. Studies by Mair and Marti (2009) and Mair *et al*, (2012) highlighted that the impact that SEA in Bangladesh was trying to create was inhibited by cultural, traditional and religious beliefs, where women were not encouraged to participate in market-based activities and their assets were controlled by male members of the family. As a result, several barriers towards empowerment of women were noticed in the microfinance activities operation in Bangladesh and elsewhere due to cultural-cognitive issues. Thus, this index is an important measure to assess the cultural environment of a country.

Social Capital: Social capital is an important measure to understand socially and culturally embedded networks of relationships that firms have with various stakeholders. Social capital is regarded as an important source that provides access to resources that contributes to the success of organisations. National-level social capital focuses on cultural traits that are difficult to alter (Adler and Kwon, 2002). This could lead to negative externalities as it has a tendency of leaving out several stakeholders out of the governance system. Thus, national level social capital helps us understanding the networks around the entrepreneurial ecosystem. Social capital was sourced from Legatum Prosperity Index database.

Socio-political Measures: Two socio-political measures were utilised for our study.

Governance: Improving governance has become a top priority of several global institutions such the World Bank (World Development Report, 2017). Efficient governance signals sustainable growth by promoting respect for its citizens, perceived level of corruption among its citizens and efficient formulation and implementation of regulations (Kaufmann *et al*, 2011). Governance and policy making occurs at the global, national, local and community levels. It is embedded in complex social and political systems that consists of a complex network of actors with a diverse set of interests functioning within it (Kaufmann *et al*, 2011). For example, in their 2009 report, Kaufmann *et al* (2009) highlighted that governance indicators are significantly correlated to per capita income of a country. Lepoutre *et al* (2013) and Defourney and Nyssens (2010) highlighted that depending on the financial policies and instruments through which governments support SEA, social entrepreneurial ventures might design their revenue model leveraged by different levels of market based activities and membership fees. Estrin, Mickiewicz, and Stephan (2013) study concluded a similar relation

between the favourable influence of stable governance institutions and support for SEA. Building inclusive, open and accountable institutions are thus, a sign of good governance.

In this study, the governance measures for the fifty-five countries was sourced from The Legatum Prosperity Index that measures how a country's governance directly affects the quality of life of its citizens. By combining three objective governance variables with a variety of subjective responses to survey questions, the governance sub-index reflects the level of confidence people have in the fairness and predictability of their country's government actions.

Perception of Opportunity: This variable was drawn from the 2015/16 Global Report published by GEM Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. According to their report: "Most entrepreneurs around the world are opportunity-motivated. In the factor- and efficiency driven economies, 69% of entrepreneurs stated they chose to pursue an opportunity as a basis for their entrepreneurial motivations, rather than starting out of necessity. The innovation-driven economies show a higher proportion of opportunity- motivated entrepreneurs, at 78%."

4. Data Analysis and Results

In order to analyse our data, we conducted multiple discriminant analysis using SPSS. Discriminant analysis helps in predicting group membership based on independent variables or predictor variables. In our sample, a total of nine independent variables spread across three dimensions (i.e. economic, cultural and socio-political) helps to predict group membership based on SEA activity of each country. The tests allow the countries to be classified into three groups, namely, 'Leading', 'Evolving' and 'Nascent' nations. After performing the analysis, it was realised that our data had 53 valid cases.

Table 3 and Table 4 (see Appendix) provides an overview of nine independent variables. The means and standard deviations of the independent variables across the three groups (i.e. Leading, Evolving and Nascent) have also been highlighted in tables 3 and 4. The last row of the tables (i.e. COUNT) represent the number of observations in each group, such as 'Leading' represents the SEA of 16 nations, 'Evolving' represents the SEA of 23 nations and 'Nascent' represents the SEA of 14 nations. Furthermore, looking at the means of each variable, the analysis suggests that the means of most variables in each group are fairly

different. However, the means of some other variables, especially cultural factors such as gender gap index and social capital in each group, are fairly close.

Furthermore, our analyses reveal that the canonical correlation of function 1 and function 2 results as 0.885 and 0.847 respectively. The results also show significant differences among the two functions. The Wilk's Lamda values are 0.061 and 0.283, for both the functions respectively. As both values are close to 0, it can be statistically confirmed that the group means are significantly different. This also confirms that there is a variance of 78.32% (square of 0.885) and 71.74% (square of 0.847) in function 1 and function 2 among the three groups in our study.

Table 5 (see Appendix) highlights significant loadings of the three variables in function 1. These variables that are found highly aligned with function 1 are Gini index as the economic factor, personal freedom as the cultural factor and governance as the socio-political factor. For function 2, significant loadings of six variables were observed. These are GDP, business environment and labour participation as economic factors, gender gap index and social capital as cultural factors and perception of opportunity as the socio-political factor. The group centroids further revealed the differences across the two discriminant functions.

5. Discussion

Based on supply and demand side perspectives, Companys and McMullen (2006) created a distinctive framework of entrepreneurial opportunity discovery and exploitation. Their study explained that the economic school invested in 'how' production is being acted, the cultural school invested in explicating 'why' production is being undertaken and the socio-political school invested in 'who' was involved in the production process. The canonical discriminant function graph (Figure 1) gives a visual image based on their three schools and the three groups of nations SEA which has been classified as 'Leading', 'Evolving' and 'Nascent'. Leading (group centroid 3, see Figure 1) are well aligned with function 2 with a group centroid of 2.578. Leaders also have a positive alignment with function 1 with the group centroid reading as 0.087. This explains that nations grouped under this category had higher GDP, good business environment or better perception of opportunity. SEA of countries like Finland, Norway, Switzerland, Sweden and Luxembourg was grouped, thus suggesting that

irrespective of the presence of severe institutional voids, SEA can exist if the macro-environmental factors provide a conducive environment. At the same time, some countries like Senegal and Peru was also grouped in this category. These nations' high SEA was related to different forms of institutional voids such as weak governance or SEA taking place at BOP markets due to the country's fractured socio-political structure.

The Evolving group (group centroid 1, see figure 1 in Appendix) nations were well aligned with function 1 with a group centroid of 2.553. However, they were negatively aligned with function 2 (group centroid of -0.986) that consisted of six important indicators. The SEA of countries like Brazil, China and South Africa was grouped. This highlighted the progress that these countries have been making on various macro-level factors over the last few years. This group also suggests that a threshold level of economic, cultural and socio-political environment is required for SEA to flourish.

Finally, the Nascent group (group centroid 2, see figure 1 in Appendix) were negatively aligned with function 1 (group centroid of -1.829) as well as with function 2 (group centroid of -0.883). This group was slightly better aligned with function 2 (group centroid of -0.883) than the alignment that Follower nations had with function 2 (group centroid of -0.986). Thus, this group represented countries such as Germany, Belgium and Italy that represented six important indicators across the economic, cultural and socio-economic dimensions. However, this group had among all the three groups. Lesser developed countries like Morocco and Egypt were also grouped under this category. This can be further explained due to the negative alignment with function 1 that consisted of three important economic, cultural and socio-economic dimensions.

Contributions

Our study makes three main contributions to the academic literature. Compans and McMullen (2006) suggest that an integrated theoretical framework must be developed to better understand the "*emergence and development of entrepreneurial opportunities*" as well as "*strategies need to discover and exploit new opportunities*" (p. 302). Additionally, Rindova *et al* (2009) raises a concern for future research to investigate the environments in which entrepreneurial action takes place. Our study addressed both the above research concerns by

integrating the socio-political, cultural and governance determinants to highlight the role and levels of macro-factors for SEA that occurs within institutional voids and BOP markets.

Our study also has two main contributions towards policy and practice. First, it uncovers important factors that can lead to appropriate levels of SEA, thus engaging innovation, labour participation and growth of social and economic wealth. The study encourages government and policy to take measures in order to create a platform of support at the economic, cultural and socio-political levels in order to stimulate growth and economic prosperity. Second, it also uncovers the factors that create a vacuum for SEA to take place. Thus, the study stimulates prospective social entrepreneurs as well as businesses that are planning to execute CSR projects by looking into the social and environmental issues that cover wealth-disparity, poor governance, perception of personal freedom and issues related to the generation of negative GDP. Furthermore, the impact of this integrated framework is crucial to understand the entrepreneurial activities that could take place in challenging environments such as institutional voids where infrastructure is poor or absent or at the bottom of the pyramid where producing, marketing and reaching out to consumers is arduous.

6. Conclusion

Our study empirically examines how countries differed in their SEA classifications and which macro factors contributed to a country's SEA. Our analysis enabled us to find a list of discriminating variables between the three classified groups of countries that stimulate SEA. While previous studies and research reports such as Global Entrepreneurship Monitor have provided useful data on SEA across different countries, our study takes an in-depth and critical view towards previous assumptions on SEA based on a country's economic, cultural and socio-political infrastructure. However, we would also like to highlight that there are some exceptions to the rule based on certain meso and micro level factors such level of ambition organisational ambition and social capital of individual social entrepreneurs respectively. Thus, over time, we would like to propose that the effectiveness of other meso and micro level factors need to be customized depending on the macro-level determinants that directly influence SEA of a country. By examining how different macro factors relate to SEA, we shed new light on (1) the economic determinants - such as labor participation and business environment; (2) the cultural

determinants - such as gender gap index and social capital, and (3) the socio-political determinants - such as perception of opportunity in different countries underlie the enabling factors in SEA. Finally, by conducting robust empirical tests, we examined a hierarchy of determining factors that might affect how countries develop and cultivate future SEA. We hope our initial research contributes to an improved understanding of these macro-level determinants that could inform and assist government institutions and policy makers in prioritizing a set of initiatives in order to foster social entrepreneurship from its inception to growth-oriented stages.

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Table 1: Connecting Companys and McMullen’s (2006) framework with SEA

School of Thought	Economic School	Cultural-cognitive School	Socio-political School
Potential for Entrepreneurial Opportunity	<i>“changes in data about material resources”</i>	<i>“changes in interpretation of data”</i>	<i>“changes in the data or changes in the interpretation of the data”</i>
Impact	Enables new solutions to existing problems	Enables transforming the problem	Enables the data as stock, transforming the problem or both within and outside the social system
Emphasis on	Objectively meaningful data at a given point in time	Subjectively meaningful data that requires interpretive processes	Objectively meaningful data embedded in networks or subjectively meaningful data to the actor
Conceived as	‘how’ it is being produced	‘why’ it is being produced	‘who’ is involved in the production process
Example of SEA	Hybrid organising as a solution to existing lack of public funds	Reinterpreting and redefining social problems	Bricolage through sense-making and/or reinterpretation of the constrains by persuading actors within and outside the environment

Table 2: This table lists the 55 countries for which there is a measure of Social Entrepreneurship Activity (SEA). Source: Bosma *et al*, (2016).

Nation	SEA	Nation	SEA	Nation	SEA
Argentina	4.6	Indonesia	3.0	Romania	4.8
Australia	11.1	Iran	1.7	Senegal	18.1
Belgium	6.2	Ireland	11.1	Slovakia	6.4
Botswana	6.2	Israel	12.8	Slovenia	4.6
Brazil	2.5	Italy	5.5	South Africa	2.9
Bulgaria	1.0	Kazakhstan	3.1	South Korea	1.5
Cameroon	8.5	Latvia	2.8	Spain	1.3
Chile	11.5	Lebanon	4.1	Sweden	6.9
China	6.6	Luxembourg	13.8	Switzerland	6.6
Colombia	10.8	Macedonia	3.1	Thailand	2.9
Croatia	7.0	Malaysia	1.7	Tunisia	6.3
Ecuador	2.6	Mexico	2.7	United Kingdom	5.4
Egypt	3.4	Morocco	1.1	United States	11.0
Estonia	7.4	Netherlands	3.6	Uruguay	6.5
Finland	5.9	Norway	7.1	Vietnam	1.4
Germany	2.2	Panama	1.8		
Greece	1.6	Peru	13.1		
Guatemala	5.0	Philippines	10.1		
Hungary	11.3	Poland	7.5		
India	6.6	Portugal	4.5		

Table 3: Group Mean Statistics

Macro-factors	Independent Variables	Group 1: Nascent	Group 2: Evolving	Group 3: Leading	Overall
Economic Measures	Gini	48.8313	32.4130	36.8286	38.5358
	GDP_cap	17.8688	28.2783	34.6357	26.8151
	BUS15	57.6351	58.7567	60.3424	58.8370
	Lab_part	39.8438	41.5739	46.7643	42.4226
Cultural Measures	PERS15	60.7680	70.0422	68.1416	66.7404
	G_gap	.7042	.7091	.7486	.7180
	SOC15	52.7187	53.1440	54.5477	53.3864
Socio-political Measures	GOV15	48.0653	60.5099	64.6163	57.8378
	Per_opp	44.5688	33.8696	55.0429	42.6925
	COUNT	16	23	14	53

Table 4: Group Standard Deviation Statistics

Macro-factors	Independent Variables	Group 1: Nascent	Group 2: Evolving	Group 3: Leading	Overall
Economic Measures	Gini	4.80662	5.39101	10.52180	9.82943
	GDP_cap	11.24928	14.13943	27.90590	18.91592
	BUS15	7.54739	7.62416	8.51070	7.75820
	Lab_part	6.56607	7.78327	2.36338	6.84854
Cultural Measures	PERS15	15.75967	18.33572	18.24270	17.70331
	G_gap	.04828	.05635	.06161	.05753
	SOC15	6.20227	8.12441	6.25962	7.02454
Socio-political Measures	GOV15	9.14535	12.64474	17.26464	14.53282
	Per_opp	7.93958	10.63982	10.45869	13.03859
	COUNT	16	23	14	53

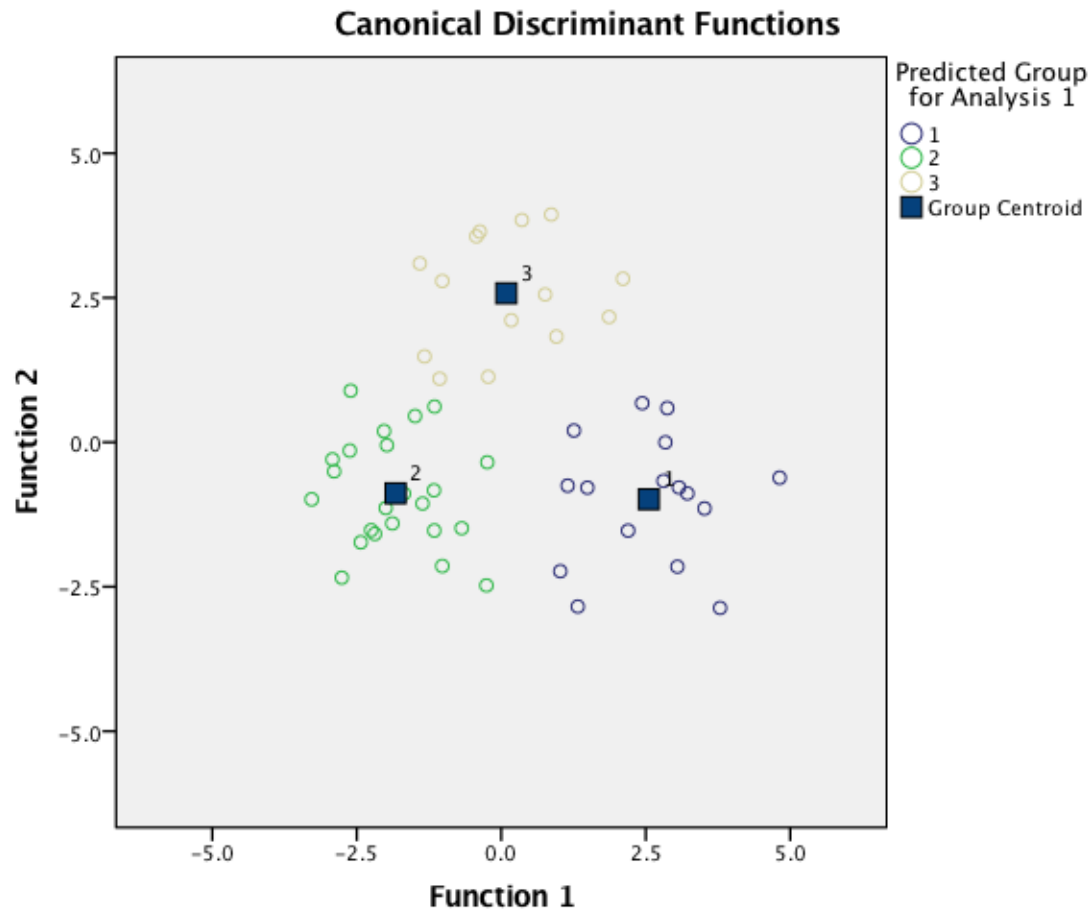
Table 5: Multiple Discriminant Analysis

		Discriminant Function 1	Discriminant Function 2
Eigen Value		3.627 ^a	2.530 ^a
Percentage of total discriminating power		58.9	41.1
Significant function loadings			
Economic	Gini	.535*	-.113
Cultural	PERS15	-.120*	.035
Socio-political	GOV15	-.211*	.207
Economic	GDP_cap	.259	.477*
Economic	BUS15	-.012	.064*
Economic	Lab_part	-.015	.214*
Cultural	G_gap	-.127	.172*
Cultural	SOC15	-.031	.076*
Socio-political	Per_opp	-.055	.265*
Functions at group centroids			
Leading (3) (14 nations)		.087	2.578
Evolving (1) (16 nations)		2.553	-.986
Nascent (2) (23 nations)		-1.829	-.883

^a First 2 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

*. Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function

Figure 1: Discriminant functions in terms of the largest absolute correlation between Function (1) Gini, perceived freedom and governance (2) GDP, business environment, labour participation, gender gap, social capital and perception of opportunity.



Chapter 2

Advantages of hybrid organizing in social entrepreneurship: Evidence from Norway

Abstract

Hybrid organising within the context of social entrepreneurship has been on the rise. At the same time, social entrepreneurial ventures that adopt hybrid organising are often criticized. The literature on hybridity points to particular challenges for social entrepreneurial ventures such as conflicting institutional logics and tensions related to their dual identity and/or mission drift. Drawing on the literature on hybrid organising and social entrepreneurship, in this paper we take a contrary stance and explore the positive aspects of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship. We ask the following research question: “*What are the advantages of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship, if any?*”? Using a qualitative approach, this study theorizes two main advantages of hybrid organising: sustainability of the organisational model and efficiency of the organisational model. The article also discusses the implications for theory and practice.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship, hybrid organising, advantages of hybridity

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1. Introduction

Hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship leads to value creation which is both social and economic in nature (Battilana *et al.*, 2012; Doherty *et al.*, 2014; Santos *et al.*, 2015; Wilson and Post, 2013). Scholars have noticed that some social entrepreneurs intentionally pursue hybrid organising right from the inception of their social entrepreneurial venture (Doherty *et al.*, 2014; Chell, 2007). Some other empirical studies found that some social ventures were circumstantially led to adopt hybrid organising, instigating commercial fund generating activities to support their social objectives (Tracey and Jarvis, 2007; Tracey *et al.*, 2011). Decreased funding, subsidies and grants received from the state, public bodies and private institutions such as foundations and commercial businesses help to drive this phenomenon (Spitzeck and Janssen, 2010; Defourney and Nyssens, 2010). Others explain how social entrepreneurs face more difficulty in acquiring investors in comparison to commercial entrepreneurs (Lumpkin *et al.*, 2013).

Some scholars claim that due to the hybrid nature of social entrepreneurship, such ventures face specific challenges related to their dual identity (Battilana and Lee, 2014), conflicting institutional logics (Pache and Santos, 2013a, 2013b), higher agency costs (Tracey and Jarvis, 2007) and mission drift (Battilana and Dorado, 2010; Foster and Bradach, 2005; Kent and Dacin, 2013). Battilana and Lee (2014, p. 424) highlight that past research has often questioned the sustainability of hybrid organising due to the above mentioned disadvantages and tensions. Yet, there has been a constant rise in the adoption of a hybrid form of organisational structure in the field of social entrepreneurship (Mair and Marti, 2006; Santos, 2012). Additionally, scholars have noted that hybrid organising in the context of social entrepreneurship has been under-researched (Wilson and Post, 2013).

Following the above discussion, this empirical study focusses on this above mentioned gap in the literature and addresses the following research question: “*What are the advantages of*

hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship, if any”? Our paper draws from the literature on hybrid organising and social entrepreneurship to understand this recent change epitomized by the adoption of hybrid organising by social entrepreneurial ventures. Our level of analysis rests at the firm level. A case-study based approach has been utilized to explore the above research question. Our data analysis and findings through empirical evidences gathered from Norway suggest that there are two main advantages of hybrid organising in the social context. The study contributes by generating theoretical and practical implications of hybrid organising. Such implications could be of interest to academics, policy makers, government institutions and prospective social entrepreneurs.

Additionally, Wilson and Post (2013) identified that the impacts of hybridity have not received sufficient research focus in the context of social entrepreneurship. The present study participates in this current debate at the intersection of hybrid organising and social entrepreneurship. The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 provides a literature review on hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship. Section 3 discusses the research methodology and data collection strategy. Section 4 provides a brief background of the organisations chosen as cases in this study. Section 5 represents the analysis and findings. Section 6 discusses the contribution, limitation and proposes an idea for future research. Finally section 7 draws the conclusion.

2. Theoretical Perspective

A review of the literature on social entrepreneurship suggests that an overwhelming number of meanings and definitions of social entrepreneurship have been proposed by several studies. Similarly, over the last few decades, scholars have increasingly discussed and debated the concept of hybrid forms of organising in different industries and sectors. The next section shall highlight the literature on the intersection between hybrid organising and social entrepreneurship.

Social Entrepreneurship

Several definitions of social entrepreneurship have been compiled by Zahra *et al.* (2009, p. 521), Dacin *et al.* (2010, p. 39) and Bacq and Janssen (2011, p. 399) that have appeared over

the years. In order to navigate the “*essentially contested*” space of social entrepreneurship (Choi and Majumdar, 2013) and its unclear boundaries and definitions (Hoogendoorn *et al.*, 2010), we first aim to reduce this conceptual ambiguity by clarifying the definition of social entrepreneurship that we use throughout this study. Our study agrees with the works of those authors who epitomize social value creation as the primary goal of social entrepreneurial ventures. Choi and Majumdar (2013, p. 372) assert that in order to define and understand social entrepreneurship, the criterion of social value creation could be accompanied by four other criteria, namely, the social entrepreneur, the social enterprise organisation, market orientation and social innovation. Often, when combined, these five criteria hold as a qualifying condition for an organisation to be viewed as a social entrepreneurial venture. Dacin *et al.* (2010) noted that social entrepreneurship has also been viewed as the execution of organised and business-like approaches in order to address social issues. Their work (Dacin *et al.*, 2010; Zahra and Wright, 2016) also discussed that the execution of CSR (corporate social responsibility) and BOP (bottom of the pyramid) strategies by conventional entrepreneurs have also been defined as social entrepreneurship in some cases. Brenneke and Spitzeck (2010) categorize such social activities by individuals working in big organisations under social intrapreneurship. Our definition of social entrepreneurship excludes those conventional commercial organisations that claim themselves to be social entrepreneurial ventures by executing a few CSR strategies. In this paper, we view social entrepreneurship “*as a process of identifying, evaluating and exploiting opportunities aiming at social value creation by means of commercial, market-based activities and of the use of a wide range of resources*” (Bacq and Janssen, 2011, p. 376). This definition of combining social goals with economic goals leads to our interest in understanding hybrid organising, as described in the following sections.

Hybrid organising

Novel and early research on hybrid organising and hybrid forms of organisational structures was undertaken by Williamson (1975, 1991). These investigations were conducted much before hybridity in social entrepreneurship emerged as an important topic of reflection in academic literature. Powell (1987) explained that hybrid forms of organising represents a strategic fit with new demands of the market and the changing economic landscape. These scholars (Powell, 1987; Williamson, 1975, 1991) empirically as well as theoretically explained that when two or more logics combine in hybrid organisations, the strength of one logic

overcomes the weakness of the other. Thus, Bradach and Eccles (1989) highlighted that hybrid organising, in many other contexts such as public-private services, partnerships and alliances, has often been considered highly effective. More recently, Jay (2013) noted that hybrid organising combines multiple institutional logics that create a paradoxical outcome of innovative solutions to complex problems. Powell's (1987), Bradach and Eccles' (1989) and Williamson's (1975, 1991) explanations of hybrid organising ruminated over partnerships and alliances in advertising, publishing, construction, publishing and craft-based industries. The discussions generally did not extend to social organisations as they were rather charities that ran on personal funds, grants, donations and subsidies during that time. Hence we now consider hybrid organising within the particular context of social entrepreneurship.

Hybrid organising and social entrepreneurship

Today, the concept of combining the logics, paradigms, structures and value systems of a social goal with an economic goal has given rise to scholarly discussions that have identified hybrid organising as a fundamental characteristic of social entrepreneurship (Battilana *et al.*, 2012; Dees and Anderson, 2003; Doherty *et al.*, 2014; Santos *et al.*, 2015; Wilson and Post, 2013). Social entrepreneurial ventures have evolved as a phenomenon that have integrated traditionally separate paradigms and activities related to for-profit organisations with non-profit organisations (Battilana *et al.*, 2012). According to Wilson and Post (2013), this concept gives way to our understanding of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship as the “*activities, structures, processes and meanings by which organizations make sense of and combine aspects of multiple organizational forms*” (Battilana and Lee, 2014, p. 397). Thus, Hockerts (2015) explains hybrid organising as a “*conscious cross-breeding*” of organisational logics.

Block A represents non-hybrid traditional model of social organisations, such as NGOs and charities whose primary objective is to pursue a social goal. Block C represents non-hybrid traditional model of commercial organisations, such as private businesses and commercial entrepreneurs whose primary objective is to pursue an economic goal. Block B represents hybrid commercial organisations, such as businesses or public-private organisations that have a primary economic goal and a secondary goal of catering to CSR objectives and BOP market (Dacin *et al.*, 2010; Zahra and Wright, 2016) strategies. Finally, block D, represents hybrid

social organisations, such as social entrepreneurial ventures that combine their primary mission of pursuing a social goal with an objective of generating revenue. In this paper, our focus is on firms positioned in Block D.

In the table below, we attempt to map out the above discussion in a matrix form (Table 1).

Table 1: Matrix representing traditional organisations and hybrid social organisations

		PRIORITY	
		Social Goal	Economic Goal
		A	B
SECONDARY	Social Goal	Non-hybrid traditional model Priority: Social Goal Example: NGOs and Charities	Hybrid Organising Priority: Economic Goal/Profit Secondary: Social Goal/CSR activities
	Economic Goal	D Intersection of Hybrid Organising and Social Entrepreneurship Priority: Social Goal Secondary: Economic Goal	C Non-hybrid traditional model Priority: Economic Goal Example: Private Businesses and Commercial Entrepreneurs

Hybrid organising has received several criticisms in the field of social entrepreneurship. On one hand, scholars argue that organisations that harness a social mission with commercial activities constantly face conflicting demands of competing institutional logics (Pache and Santos, 2013a, 2013b). The choice of the organisational form of such hybrid entities (i.e. social entrepreneurial ventures) often depends on the existence of ambiguity in the institutional environment (Townsend and Hart, 2008). Hockerts' (2010) and Khavul *et al.*'s (2013) studies pointed to how certain sectoral and macro environmental forces create tensions between social ventures' logic of conducting philanthropic activities and market-based activities. Such logic pluralities evoke tensions that trigger a drift from the organisation's primary social mission (Battilana and Dorado, 2010).

Challenges also emerge due to the divergent dimensions of accountability that social entrepreneurs face from different stakeholder interests (Ebrahim *et al.*, 2014). These divergent stakeholder interests create conflicting goals and obstruct the execution of the social mission of hybrid organisations. Smith *et al.* (2013) participated in this discussion by identifying different types of tensions, namely, tensions related to performance, organizing, belonging and learning, which emerged within social businesses. Kent and Dacin (2013) also focussed on tensions and conflicts among social businesses, focusing on the microfinance context. They suggested that such threats were caused due to permeability. They explained that permeability in hybrid organising allowed some ambiguous and loosely coupled logics to be easily influenced by other stronger logics. This creates an imbalance between the social goal and the economic goal in hybrid organisations. Similarly, Zhao and Lounsbury's (2016) empirical work highlighted that the social logic mitigated the chances of acquiring commercial funding from financial institutions for a particular type of social entrepreneurial venture, such as microfinance organisations.

As illustrated in the above examples, past studies in the social entrepreneurship literature primarily focussed on the challenges associated to hybrid organising. Such challenges increase further for youth-led social entrepreneurial ventures that work towards a double bottom line goal (Clarke and Dougherty, 2010). Sufficient research attention has not been given to our understanding of whether hybrid organising in the context of social entrepreneurship generates any positive impact. Our study investigates this current gap in the literature. Through a qualitative case study based approach, our study attempts to investigate if there are any benefits of hybrid organising in the context of social entrepreneurship.

3. Research Methodology

To answer our research question related to advantages of hybridity in social entrepreneurship, an abductive research approach has been utilized. We chose an abductive approach for two specific reasons. First, such an approach allows the researcher to conduct an interplay of empirical evidences and conceptual work, thus respecting the primacy of both (Van Maanen *et al.*, 2007). Given that our research question emerged as we were engaging in fieldwork for another academic endeavour, this approach seemed an appropriate choice.

Second, it is also referred as a method that creates surprises and mystery that deviates from established theory and creates new theory, thus leading to ‘rethink rules’ (Alvesson and Kärreman, 2007; Pierce, 1978). Given the novelty of our counter intuitive stance (‘what’s going right ?’ while all extant research points to ‘what’s going wrong?’), we believe this ‘deviant’ approach was fitting.

In order to conduct an abductive analysis, we followed the steps prescribed by Alvesson and Kärreman, 2007 (p. 1269) in which, first, an “*established interpretive rule (theory)*” (i.e. challenges of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship) is studied. Second, a surprising phenomenon (i.e. rise of hybrid organising in social entrepreneurship) is observed despite the established theory. The third step prescribes the articulation of the problem in order to resolve the surprise and establish a reason for novel rethinking and retesting of existing knowledge. However, Alvesson and Kärreman, (2007) warn that such an approach invites researchers to “*actively try to reach empirical material*” and thus may create problematization. Additionally, Weick (1999) advised how different research strategies involve trade-offs between accuracy, simplicity and generality. Indeed, in this study, we adhere to Langley (1999) and Pentland’s (1999) arguments that with such qualitative techniques, “*accuracy*” wins over “*simplicity and generality*” rendering the findings high in accuracy and closely fitted to the original data. We believe that using abductive methods is a highly fruitful (and slightly risky) research strategy which can result in novel understandings (Alvesson and Kärreman, 2007). Under such constraints, a small number of cases convey empirical richness (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007).

Our case studies lead us towards rethinking established theory by looking at evidences where the established theory might refuse to hold. Given their richness and in-depth focus, we believe that a case study method is appropriate to explore the dynamics of hybridity. In line with the above explanation, an abductive exploratory approach advances our knowledge through “*rich, empirical descriptions*” (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) to establish different views of a phenomenon across the case studies. We studied two cases to determine if the emergent topic is idiosyncratic to a single case setting or is applicable over more than one context (Eisenhardt, 1989; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007).

Research Strategy: Selection and Design

Today, business schools have the onus of training responsible future leaders and managers, many of whom are expected to provide solutions to social and environmental problems by taking up the role of a social entrepreneur (Glunk and Van Gils, 2010; Tracey and Phillips, 2007). In the Spring of 2015, a meeting was scheduled between two Norwegian social enterprises and a French business school. The meeting was aimed at exchanging information and best practices. The Norwegian based organisations invited one of the authors of this study to visit their premises for a field visit. Further exchanges through in-depth interviews, company reports and presentations followed. One of the organisations that was chosen for this study (Case#2) was involved in training and employing marginalized individuals, namely autistic adults, for software testing. The other organisation (Case#1) was a fifth generation family business that contributed to social development projects through seed funds, grants and exposure through its own business network. Case#1 was also involved with the activities of all its portfolio of social businesses by serving as a chair to those organisations. We chose this organisation as we believed it would be interesting to capture different perspectives on the challenges and advantages of pursuing a combination of both social goals and economic objectives. Moreover, the two members of Case#1 who were interviewed had prior experience with different successful as well as unsuccessful social ventures.

The founders, as well as one key stakeholder were interviewed from both organizations. For Case#1, the director of the social entrepreneurship department and for Case#2, the chairman and shareholder of the company were interviewed. Following an interview protocol, the respondents were asked questions on their organisations' mission, vision and objectives. The discussion also revolved around the social and economic activities of their social entrepreneurial venture. All these interviews and conversations helped in gaining information about the history and background of the organisations, their organisational structures, the challenges that they faced and their future strategies.

The discussion and the questions slightly varied on a case-to-case basis. The interviews lasted between 30 minutes to 150 minutes. All the interviews were recorded through hand-written notes. In short, primary data was collected through four interviews, field visits and field-notes. Additionally, secondary data was collected from company websites, power-point slides, press releases, company documents and videos uploaded on the internet. This

supplementary data helped us to ‘triangulate’, where we intentionally double checked our data by using multiple sources and modes of evidence (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

4. Case Descriptions

This section refers to the cases that are used in this qualitative study.

Case#1: FERD Social Entrepreneurs

FERD is a family owned financial investment company with its history dating back to 1849. The company is headquartered in Lysaker (a suburb of Oslo) and operates only in Norway. In 2008, Johan H. Andressen Jr., who is the fifth generation owner and chairman of the company, launched the social entrepreneurship department and named it FERD Social Entrepreneurs (or FERD SE). FERD SE invests in social entrepreneurship projects - providing resources such as soft loans and grants to social entrepreneurs who share FERD SE’s vision and values. The company assesses projects that are in pre-launch phase - putting them through competitive process whereby they are measured against a set of pre-defined criteria some of which are ‘*measurable social results*’, potential ‘*financial sustainability*’, solution impact and ‘*scalability*’. The social entrepreneurs’ entrepreneurial ability and motivation is also considered.

If successful, the financial resources that FERD SE contributes to the social entrepreneurial venture can extend up to a period of three years and sometimes up to six years. The assessment process continues even after the post-launch stage. After a period of three to six years, the social entrepreneurial venture is expected to adopt entrepreneurial means and survive on a self-earned income. FERD SE also contributes by sharing its expertise in business development, strategic management and exposure to FERD’s network with its portfolio social entrepreneurs. Since 2008, the organisation has contributed towards creating social as well as economic value. Today, some of FERD SE’s social entrepreneurial ventures have been successful while others have either ceased to exist or are still struggling to survive.

Case#2: UNICUS AS

UNICUS is an example of a successful social entrepreneurial venture which resulted from FERD SE and is an active member of the FERD Social Entrepreneurs’ alumni portfolio.

Lars Johansson-Kjellerød founded UNICUS in 2009. Headquartered in Lysaker (a suburb of Oslo) and operating only in Norway, UNICUS' mission is to enhance the lives of individuals diagnosed with Asperger's Syndrome by offering them employment. Individuals with Asperger's Syndrome often face difficulties in communication and social interaction, and suffer from loneliness and depression. They mostly use the left side of their brain, focusing on logical, analytical and detail oriented tasks – tasks which are highly compatible with software testing. UNICUS trains and employs individuals diagnosed with different levels of autism spectrum disorder. The company acknowledges these individuals as a “*strategic resource*” for their organisation and strives to give ‘ordinary jobs’ to people with autism. UNICUS AS is a market-oriented provider of software testing and quality assurance services and provides services to organisations such as Telenor and Statoil. From its third year of inception, the organisation started generating revenues. Today it is a social entrepreneurial venture that believes in pursuing a double bottom-line objective by weaving financial goals to support its prime mission, that is the social mission.

The table in the next page (table 2) gives an overview of both firms.

5. Analysis and Findings

Our research revealed interesting insights on the main advantages generated from a hybrid organisation structure within the context of social entrepreneurship. Following abductive methods, we sought to deconstruct and reconstruct our knowledge in terms of theory and evidence. In the following section, we give a voice to actors in the field, and document their vision of the main advantages of hybrid organising. Two main themes emerged from our cases as to why a double bottom line logic must be pursued by social entrepreneurs.

Advantage 1: Sustainability of the organisational model

One of the main themes that emerged from the cases constantly accentuated how hybridity allowed a sustainable model for the social entrepreneurs. From the analysis of the recorded data, transcriptions, hand written notes, press releases and you-tube videos, the study discovered that it was important for the founders to provide an impetus for an organisational model that is stable and sustainable. The founders also emphasized the need for “*scalability*”

Table 2: Summary of Cases

	Case#1: FERD Social Entrepreneurs	Case#2: UNICUS AS
Year founded	2008	2009
Sector	Social Development Projects in all sectors	Software Testing
Headquarter	Lysaker (suburb of Oslo), Norway	Lysaker (suburb of Oslo), Norway
No. of employees	n/a (extracts HR from other departments of FERD)	22
Name of founder	Johan H. Andresen	Lars Johansson-Kjellerød
Nationality of Founder	Norwegian	Swedish
Person Interviewed	1. Johan H. Andresen (Owner and founder) 2. Katinka Greve Leiner (Director)	1. Lars Johansson-Kjellerød (Owner and Founder) 2. Sverre Weisteen (Shareholder and Chairman of the Board)

by being “sustainable” in the long-term. They believed that one of the ways to achieve this was by actively embedding the social mission along with the commercial activities of the venture.

Founder of Case#1 explained that without being financially independent in the long run, the social goals are difficult to achieve solely through aids and grants. He also mentioned that his experience in the field made him realise that all social entrepreneurs faced challenges when it came to financing resources and activities. The direct verbatim from the founder and CEO and the director of Case#1 are represented below:

“Basically they (i.e. social entrepreneurial ventures) are like any other start-up company... the difference is that they have a social goal... but beyond that they have the same challenges when it comes to growth, recruitment, focus... services”. Additionally, “They are driven by creating social results, and manage to organize the

activity around their solution in a way that gives the company long-term viability”- Founder and CEO of Case#1.

“And they have to be able to make them more, (which is difficult), economically sustainable business models which is a challenge and there are a lot more social entrepreneurs out there who will never be able to do that. But we want to find the ones who pioneer the business model that makes them viable and self-sustainable because the ultimate target is actually to go from expenditure, from the government’s side and to create people out there, youngsters who can handle their lives and bring revenue for the government and for the society”- Director of Case#1.

The Director of Case#1 informed that she constantly evaluated the social impact created along with the ventures’ resource stability. At the same time she evaluated when the social businesses might be financially at risk. The director explained that without creating a sustainable model that generated self-earned revenue, the social entrepreneurs ran the risk of getting close to bankruptcy. This could ultimately lead to the abandonment of the social objectives that the organisation aimed to pursue.

The Founder of Case#2 mentioned similar concerns. He stressed how financial outcomes were very important for the sustainability of their model. He explained that he was driven by values and “*good karma business*” and by “*give(ing) ordinary jobs to people with Asperger Syndrome*”. The surplus generated through commercial activities was used in re-investing in the organisation for activities such as recruiting and scaling. He explained that the financial rents helped his company to remain financially stable and sustainable, but was also a means to reinvest into the sector in which he was operating. In some occasions, when a surplus was produced, it was donated to the Autism Society in Norway. Lars (case#2) believed that reinvesting the profit to improve the lives of autistic people who could not be integrated into the employment sector was another advantage of his organisational model. He also explained that his organisation catered to individuals around the Oslo region. However, even with the surplus, he has financial difficulty and resource constraints to expand in Norway. The founder also expressed that profit maximization was not their goal, however, generating income to remain stable and sustainable was one of their priorities. Hence, our data analysis discovered that the above organisations believed in accommodating a market oriented activity as they

realized that reliance on donations, grants and philanthropy could risk financial stability in the long-term.

Advantage 2: Efficiency of the organisational model and the economic system of the Norwegian state

It was noticed that the organisations emphasised on hybrid goals, that is, on social as well as business related goals as they believed that would create an efficient organisational model. The importance of a hybrid structure in yielding tangible and intangible returns on social investment was a recurrent finding. According to all the interviewees, an efficient model is one that is ‘easily scalable’, creates ‘impact’, and could generate capital for reinvestment. Accommodating both social and business oriented goals within the business model was, thus, very important for them. For example, one of the shareholders and chairman of the board of Case#2 explained:

“I was also in contact with some others (i.e. social entrepreneurs) in an innovational way...and this guy (i.e. founder of Case#2), he got me to look into this..... they (i.e. other social entrepreneurs) have the very drive, but it is not all who are thinking business-wise,”.

The Chairman emphasised that social innovation harnessed with an organised and business-like approach is important for UNICUS to pursue. This eventually would result in organisational efficiency.

The founder and CEO of Case#1 expressed that even in a welfare-oriented state like Norway, the government often reacts slowly to various social and environmental demands and challenges. At FERD, they explain that:

“Historically, we in Norway are accustomed to organizations and companies whose social goals are financed through grants and gifts, largely from public or private foundations. The challenge with this is that these companies depend on their good donors, both private and public, in order to maintain or increase activity. Compared with the needs of the "social market" it is easy to see that the gifts are not reaching. This is a challenge for many big and ideal(istic) actors”.

The founder and owner believes that individuals and organisations have to be proactive by taking action instead of wasting time for external institutions to extend funds. From his past experiences, he realised that social entrepreneurs must accompany their social mission with self-earned revenue. This not only makes the organisations free from external reliance, but also leads the organisation towards efficiency. Thus he explained:

“I do not have a life long enough to wait for the government (to) find solutions”.

Additionally, he expressed that social entrepreneurs have a lot to contribute. At the same time, he believed that applying and waiting for donors or the government to give grants and tax rebates is not the most efficient solution.

The founder of Case#2 explained that they were always trying to create a “*perfect match for software testing*” by recruiting the right employee for their clients. He elaborated that individuals with Asperger’s syndrome were the perfect individuals to conduct monotonous, repetitive and logical jobs such as software testing. He also explained that such people were marginalized in most societies, yet the society does not realize that they have the potential to perform better than an average individual in software testing. At the same time, the software testing is a lucrative sector. This match gave his organisation the competitive advantage which cannot be equated with the leaders in the industry. Their double-bottom line objective reflected an advantage that helped them efficiently run the organisation, through paying rent, employee salaries and buying the necessary resources such as computers and laptops. Additionally, such an approach also benefited the Norwegian state and the society at large. His verbatim explains:

“It is efficient to have one person (in UNICUS) who is on disability benefits - and most likely had been there all his life - out of work, is quite simple”.

The founder of Case#2 explained in detail that one of many reasons their company’s double-bottom line strategy was efficient was because it also created economic value to the Norwegian government. Over the life-time of one employee, UNICUS AS approximately saved the Norwegian government more than one million euro (NOK 11 million) for every employee that they recruit. This created a long-term social impact in the lives of the Norwegians as money incurred by the government through taxes could be used for other activities. Thus, his organisation not only had financial objectives to run efficiently, but their

organisational model also helped in creating an efficient economic system for the Norwegian government.

6. Contribution, Limitation and Future Research

Research on hybridity in social entrepreneurship is constantly growing (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Hockerts, 2015; Hoogendoorn *et al.*, 2010; Pache and Santos, 2013a, 2013b; Santos *et al.*, 2015). Contrary to extant research, which emphasizes the challenges and tensions inherent in hybrid organizing, in this study we sought to expose the advantages generated by combining a social objective with a financial goal. The social venture founders, managers and stakeholders we spoke with expressed the need for their ventures to remain stable, sustainable and efficient. It was this need which prompted them to derive their income from commercial methods instead of relying on philanthropic funds.

Our study contributes to social entrepreneurship theory and practice in two ways. First, this paper contributes by responding to current criticism that hybrid organising often faces in social entrepreneurship. Our study tends to reconcile this debate in the literature by empirically explaining the two main advantages that could be associated when financial goals are linked with social mission. However, we do not discard that certain risks such as tensions related to conflicting logics, dual identity and mission drift could also be associated with hybrid organising. Dees and Elias (1998) validated this concern by highlighting that “*it would be a mistake to exaggerate or oversimplify the gap*” between a social purpose goal and a commercial goal (p.174). Second, our findings also suggest implications for practice as it makes policy makers, mainstream entrepreneurs, educational institutions and prospective social entrepreneurs aware of the problems as well as the advantages associated with hybrid organising. Having an understanding of both the problems as well as the advantages would allow the endorsers of hybrid organising act more responsibly.

In terms of limitations, it can be argued that our findings cannot be generalized or applied to all situations. However, we believe that our abductive approach allowed us to follow a path of unpacking and repacking theory (Van Maanen *et al.*, 2007) from our two cases, leading to a more in-depth understanding of hybrid organising.

7. Conclusion

Social entrepreneurship is undergoing a transition where stakeholders not only want to create social value, but also value for their employees and customers by being sustainable and efficient in the long-term. In other words, financial and macro-level impediments can pose a barrier to social entrepreneurs in achieving their tasks. Once the social entrepreneur achieves the financial freedom, it allows a financially stable organisational model that in turn advances towards long-term value creation. Additionally, paying attention only to a social mission and ignoring a financial objective could create impediments, delays and time-wasting when searching for funding. This could often inhibit the effectiveness of the social impact. Thus, this paper promotes the idea that financial sustainability and creating efficiency in the social and economic system are some of the most important preconditions in order for social entrepreneurs to be able to solve existing social problems.

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Chapter 3

Social entrepreneurship and prosocial crowdfunding: The importance of rewards and motivation

Abstract

Over the last few years, crowdfunding has become a subject of growing research interest, more so, within the context of new ventures, creative industries and commercial entrepreneurship. In this paper, we look at the role of natural rewards (e.g. joy of giving) and material rewards (e.g. gifts) in relation to crowdfunders' willingness to contribute financially to a social entrepreneurial project. Drawing on self-leadership theory, the purpose of this study is to gain a deeper understanding of rewards in prosocial crowdfunding. Data for the study has been collected from a crowdfunded project for an Indian social entrepreneurial venture that was uploaded on a leading French hybrid crowdfunding platform that caters to both reward-based and donation-based projects. Results from 244 survey responses highlight that natural rewards attract crowdfunding due to the funders' prosocial motivation. However, the design of material rewards must be strategically placed on hybrid platforms without diluting the prosocial motivation of the crowd. Implications for theory and practice as well as limitations are discussed.

Keywords: rewards, prosocial motivation, social entrepreneurship, crowdfunding

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1. Introduction

Raising funds for entrepreneurial ventures from traditional funding sources, especially in developing countries, is an enervating challenge (Khavul, 2010; Pissarides, 1999). Individuals living in poverty in several developing countries are unable to participate in market activities and entrepreneurship due to lack of funds, family obligations or absence of supportive infrastructure such as lack of government programs, low interest rates, venture capital or angel investors (Khavul *et al*, 2009; Khavul *et al*, 2013; Mair and Marti, 2009). This challenge has been augmented by the global recession resulting in a reasonable slowdown of philanthropic spending by governments and public bodies with private investors exhibiting scepticism on investing, especially, in social entrepreneurial ventures (Defourney and Nyssens, 2010; Kickul and Lyons, 2016; Spitzbeck and Janssen, 2010). Under such circumstances, crowdfunding could be of strategic relevance to social entrepreneurs based in developed and developing countries.

Over the last few years, crowdfunding (Belleflamme *et al*, 2014; Mollick, 2014; Schwienbacher and Larralde, 2010; Steigenberger, 2017) has become a subject of growing research interest, more so, within the context of new ventures, creative industries and commercial entrepreneurship (Agrawal *et al*, 2014; Short *et al*, 2017). However, three main limitations characterize our current understanding of crowdfunding. First, although crowdfunding has become a popular research topic, there is a need to focus on “*the pool of investors that contribute to crowdfunding campaigns*” (McKenny *et al*, 2017, p. 7-8). Moreover, the literature on crowdfunding suggests that different types of crowdfunders exist (Agrawal *et al*, 2014; Mollick, 2014; Schwienbacher and Larralde, 2010; Steigenberger, 2017). As such, the possible rationale behind supporting a social entrepreneurial crowdfunding campaign shall differ from the rationale behind supporting a crowdfunding campaign related to a traditional venture or a creative project. Knowing what drives individuals that support a social entrepreneurial crowdfunding campaign over traditional entrepreneurial projects would

allow social entrepreneurs to tap into this crowd and acquire wider access to resources. Second, despite being a rapidly growing phenomenon where rewards play a vital role, little is known about the importance of material rewards (e.g., gifts and benefits) or natural rewards (e.g., anticipation of a meaningful social outcome or joy of giving) and how such rewards influence crowdfunders' willingness to contribute financially to a social entrepreneurial project (Cox *et al*, 2018; Thürridl and Kamleitner, 2016). Third, even though scholars have suggested the strategic relevance of crowdfunding for social entrepreneurs (Lehner, 2013, 2014; Parhankangas and Renko, 2017; Schwienbacher, 2015), there is a paucity of research examining crowdfunding within the context of social entrepreneurial ventures.

This study responds to the above research gap and attempts to gain a deeper understanding of the pool of individuals that are motivated to conduct a prosocial act of financially contributing towards a social entrepreneurial venture through crowdfunding. We position self-leadership theory as a key lens to investigate the process of social entrepreneurial crowdfunding. Self-leadership theory (Manz, 1983a, 1983b, 1986, 1990) emphasizes the importance of natural rewards and material rewards in determining the effort expended to complete a task. As rewards are an important component of both crowdfunding and self-leadership theory, we find self-leadership theory relevant to apply to the process of social entrepreneurial crowdfunding in order to gain a deeper understanding of the crowdfunder's motivation to contribute.

The theory of self-leadership emphasizes the prior importance of self-control systems in order to complete tasks that have an appeal for natural rewards, such as feeling good about helping others or achieving a positive emotional state in conducting the act itself (Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004; Neck and Houghton, 2006). The theory also emphasizes that external control systems, such as a material reward, perks or gifting oneself a vacation at the end of successful task completion, have an important, yet, a less imposing role in influencing individuals in performing the activity. In the process, individuals withdraw attention from the unpleasant nature of the task and focus on the rewards attained at the end of the task. Central to self-leadership theory are the feelings of purpose, meaningfulness, motivation and drive that are regulated by internally and externally generated standards in conducting the task (Manz 1986, Stewart *et al*, 2011).

Consequently, the study addresses the following research question: *To what extent are natural and material rewards related to crowdfunders' prosocial motivation and willingness to contribute in a prosocial crowdfunding context (i.e. social entrepreneurial project)?*

To address the above research question, we tested our model on a sample of 244 participants of a crowdfunding campaign for an Indian social entrepreneurial venture. Data was collected via online questionnaire surveys from June 2017 to February 2019, using validated scales adapted from the literature. The project was uploaded on a leading French crowdfunding platform named KissKissBankBank that covers several genres of project such as art, photography, music, food and fashion. This crowdfunding site offers a hybrid platform that caters to reward-based as well as donation-based projects and shares expert knowledge and personal advices to the crowdfunding campaigners (Belleflamme et al, 2015).

This current study contributes to theory and practice in entrepreneurship research. Theoretically, first, self-leadership theory has been applied to several contextual settings including entrepreneurship (Neck et al, 1997; Neck et al, 2013), female entrepreneurship (Bendell et al, 2019) and volunteering in non-profit management (Neck et al, 1998). By applying self-leadership theory to the context of social entrepreneurial crowdfunding, our study provides a first examination of this theory in the emerging context of prosocial crowdfunding in particular. Second, scholars have expressed that even though the knowledge in self-leadership theory has been expanded, the domain remains under-explored and claims future research attention (Bendell et al, 2019; Neck and Houghton, 2006; Stewart et al, 2011). Hence, applying the theoretical lens of self-leadership allows to gain a deeper understanding of the theory itself. Third, investigating the phenomenon of crowdfunding from the lens of self-leadership theory also offers a different perspective towards the process of social entrepreneurial crowdfunding. Moreover, rewards are an integral concept associated to crowdfunding and self-leadership theory. Our focus on rewards emphasizes the suitability of applying the theoretical lens of self-leadership in exploring the crowdfunding behavior of the pool of individuals that wish to support a social cause. Our study addresses these aforementioned theoretical gaps to develop and test the role of rewards and prosocial motivation that could influence individuals to contribute through a crowdfunding platform for social entrepreneurial projects.

In terms of practical implications, our study attempts to deliver an understanding of what motivates individuals to contribute. This has business implications as it allows to identify the factors that could encourage a larger crowd to fund social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding. The increase in supply of more contributions could further lead to increase in demand of more project creators in social entrepreneurship, creating a cycle of enhanced social and environmental impact. Thus we offer empirical evidence on the importance of both material and natural rewards that could be of strategic relevance to social entrepreneurs while designing their call for crowdfunding.

Our findings propose that natural rewards such as the joy of creating social value increases the proclivity to contribute as well as increases the amount of contribution through prosocial crowdfunding. This relationship is further mediated by the crowdfunders' prosocial motivation. This explains that prosocially motivated individuals are more likely to crowdfund for social causes in the expectation of natural rewards. Our model also reflected that the crowdfunder's prosocial motivation mediated the negative relationship between expectation of material rewards and the crowd's willingness to contribute. This suggests that an individual's interest in receiving a material gift is impaired by his prosocial motivation, which has been defined as a temporary state of mind leading to an empathic concern to benefit others. Thus, external forces in the form of material rewards are constrained by internally generated forces could self-lead crowdfunders to contribute for a social cause. However, we concur that material rewards, such as inexpensive thank-you gifts, do not necessarily drive away individuals who wish to participate in prosocial crowdfunding through hybrid platforms such as KissKissBankBank.

2. Background Theory

This section discusses the literature that informs this study. It offers an overview on social entrepreneurship (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Kickul and Lyons, 2016; Mair and Marti, 2006; Townsend and Hart, 2008) and crowdfunding (Belleflamme *et al*, 2014; McKenny *et al*, 2017; Mollick, 2014; Schwienbacher and Larralde, 2010; Short *et al*, 2017; Steigenberger, 2017). Additionally, the paper develops an understanding of self-leadership theory by emphasizing the importance of rewards and prosocial motivation.

Overview of Social Entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship originates out of institutional voids, government failures and non-market disequilibrium (Hockerts, 2017; Mair and Marti, 2009; Townsend and Hart, 2008). It is emphasized that innovation, impact generation, sustainability and scale are the four themes central to managing a social business (Kickul *et al*, 2018). Social entrepreneurs aim at creating innovative solutions to complex social and environmental problems by managing a wide range of resources (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Mair and Marti, 2006; Meyskens, Robb-Post, Stamp, Carsrud and Reynolds, 2010). Additionally, social entrepreneurial ventures can be comprehended as an ideal form of hybrid organisation that balances, combines and decouples a social mission with an economic objective (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Pache and Santos, 2013; Kannnothra *et al*, 2018; Wilson and Post, 2013). These organisations often need to address the challenges of hybridity by generating the advantages and negating the tensions created by competing institutional logics, dual identities and diverse stakeholder interests (Austin *et al*, 2006; Battilana and Lee, 2014; Mitra *et al*, 2017; Mair *et al*, 2015; Moss *et al*, 2011). Additionally, due to their unstable cash-flows and alien governance structures (Calic and Mosakowski, 2016; Gundry *et al*, 2011; Lumpkin *et al*, 2013), social entrepreneurs often face formidable challenges of attracting investors and capital from traditional funding institutions. Among the diverse funding sources available to social entrepreneurial ventures, there are two that are most commonly utilized by social entrepreneurs to secure capital. According to Kickul and Lyons (2016), first, grants and subsidies from governments and philanthropic institutions are often relied upon. Second, commercial activities supported by private sector investment have also become a common, yet unreliable source for raising capital. Consequently, crowdfunding has become an alternative to tapping traditional fund raising mechanisms for social entrepreneurial ventures (Lehner, 2013, 2014; Meyskens and Bird, 2015).

Overview of Crowdfunding

Crowdfunding relies upon a large, dispersed and heterogeneous community (Agarwal *et al*, 2014) that provide financial support and motivation to entrepreneurs and their ideas through a crowdfunding platform (Mollick, 2014). Crowdfunders invest or donate small amount of funds that add up to a larger sum of capital (Lehner, 2013; Schwienbacher and Larralde, 2010). Furthermore, different types of crowdfunders exist that have fundamentally different intentions and expectations from different types of crowdfunding campaigns. For

example, a funder might donate capital for a social mission due to a personal connection with the cause (Kickul and Lyons, 2016). The same funder might be interested on a return-on-investment from another crowdfunding campaign uploaded on a reward-based platform. Some others might want to contribute in order to derive a warm glow out of giving away for a common-good (Andreoni, 1989, 1990) or to generate social value, collective goods and welfare for the disadvantaged (Allison *et al*, 2013; Dees, 1998; Cecere *et al*, 2017). In other words, in return for their contribution, the crowd might act as impure altruists (Andreoni, 1989, 1990) or philanthropists that expect ‘natural’ rewards or intangible incentives such as honor, social approval, reputation or a positive emotional state by giving for a social cause (Ariely *et al*, 2009; Mollick, 2014). The crowd might also give for pure altruistic reasons of helping others to create a social impact and expect nothing for oneself in return (Simon, 1993). Alternatively, the crowd could also pursue egoistic motives by expecting ‘material’ rewards or tangible benefits such as financial return on investment, shares or non-monetary gifts depending on whether the engagement is created through a lending-based, equity-based or reward-based crowdfunding platform (Belleflamme *et al*, 2015; Short *et al*, 2017).

Crowdfunding often takes the shape of a hybrid decision form in which decision making is supported by extrinsic cues germane to traditional investment as well as intrinsic cues germane to prosocially motivated acts of helping others to create a social impact or for the pure joy of giving (Galak *et al*, 2011; Allison *et al*, 2014). Traditional investors through a lending-based, equity-based or reward-based platform are more likely to be influenced by external control systems or extrinsic motivation of obtaining financial or material return on investment (Belleflamme *et al*, 2014; Steigenberger, 2017). Alternatively, in a donation-based funding context, funders are more likely to be influenced by self-control systems or intrinsic motivation of receiving joy and pleasure in the activity of contribution itself (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Additionally, in reward-based or donation-based giving, individuals do not receive an interest on the funds they contribute. Consequently these funders are not motivated by the financial returns. Instead, they are intrinsically motivated to achieve intangible rewards or ‘natural’ rewards such as social approval, social impact, honour, image reputation or a warm glow by supporting an artist or a creative cause (Allison *et al*, 2013; Andreoni, 1990). The decision to contribute through a reward-based or donation-based platform could also be driven by an expectation of tangible rewards or ‘material’ rewards such as thank-you gifts in the form of

pens, t-shirts, mugs or gift-vouchers (Agarwal *et al*, 2014; Cecere *et al*, 2017; Cox *et al*, 2018; Newman and Shen, 2012). As a consequence, crowdfunding for a social entrepreneurial project through a reward-based or donation-based platform, such as KissKissBankBank, also takes a hybrid decision form where crowdfunders could be prosocially motivated to contribute financial resources to achieve a natural reward or a material reward or both.

Several studies have noted that social capital is the key to attract crowdfunding success (Lehner, 2014; Skirnevskiy, Bendig, and Brettel, 2017; Buttice, Colombo and Wright, 2017), followed by lesser critical, yet important factors such as social influence (Cox *et al*, 2018), the role of community of crowdfunders (Josefy, Dean, Albert and Fitza, 2017), incremental innovativeness (Chan and Parhankangas, 2017) and project legitimacy and creativity (Calic and Mosakowski, 2016). At the same time, engaging with the crowd and harnessing such social impulses to contribute remains a challenge. However, what motivates the pool of crowdfunders to contribute to crowdfunding campaigns and the impact that rewards have on the willingness to contribute to social entrepreneurial projects has been under-investigated and thus remains unclear (Cox *et al*, 2018).

Self-leadership theory: Natural rewards, material rewards and prosocial motivations

Manz's (1986, p. 589) self-leadership theory is conceptualized as “*a comprehensive self-influence perspective that concerns leading oneself toward performance of naturally motivating tasks as well as managing oneself to do work that must be done but is not naturally motivating*”. It emphasizes self-influence towards performing tasks that are naturally motivating or tasks that are not naturally motivating, yet needs to be done. The theory (Manz, 1986, 1992) is significantly informed by established theoretical concepts such as motivation, self-influence, and self-management in order to explain how people lead, influence and manage themselves to conduct certain activities (Manz, 1986; Neck and Houghton, 2006; Stewart *et al*, 2011). Furthermore, it explains an interplay of self-control and external control in which internal self-control systems dominated by natural rewards are the focal point and external control systems dominated by material rewards, perks and incentives have lesser importance while conducting certain tasks.

Manz (1986) explained that people could create self-generated internal control system that circumscribe their own values, visions and believes. The theory (Manz, 1986, p. 589)

highlights that “*true self-leadership is based on personal meaningfulness and ‘ownership’ of the individuals governing standards*”. Such internal self-governing control systems are often dominated by the expectation of natural rewards in the form of intrinsic enjoyment in doing the task itself. It draws on the intrinsic motivation literature (Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 2000) that emphasizes self-determination, self-direction and self-motivation in order to behave in ways desired by oneself to perform a task (Manz, 1986, 1992). Such naturally motivating tasks are pursued by individuals due to their appeal for social rewards, joy, and hedonistic recourse (Ryan and Deci, 2001; Waterman, 1993).

At the same time, “*invoking external influence to achieve personally chosen standards is a legitimate form of self-leadership*” (Manz, 1986, p. 589). Thus, exterior to the radius of the internal self-control system lies external control systems that can take command in the form of rewards, appraisals, incentives or punishments. Tasks that are not naturally motivating, yet needs to be done, are pursued by individuals due to the motives of their body such as hunger or thirst (Deci, 1975) or extrinsic appeal, such as external rewards, financial benefits or recognition (Ariely *et al*, 2009; Grant, 2008). In such cases, individuals take self-control of the situation by moving their focus from the unpleasant nature of the task and refocussing on the reward that could be achieved at the end of the task (Neck and Houghton, 2006). A broader view of self-leadership theory, thus, recognises the importance of internally controlled natural rewards that have an intrinsic appeal and externally controlled material rewards that have an extrinsic appeal (Stewart *et al*, 2011).

Self-leadership theory also emphasizes the importance of “*feelings of purpose*” (Manz, 1986, p. 592), altruism and one’s belief in the performance of certain activities that contribute to someone or something other than oneself (Ashton and Lee, 2007 and Bailey *et al*, 2018). Such activities are connected with shared values and shared vision. Manz (1983a) suggests that such feelings of purpose could come from contributing for a cause that benefits others. He refers to altruistic feelings of “*people helping people*” (Manz, 1983b) or people motivated to promote the welfare of others based on a strategy of ‘wanting’ to help others as well as a feeling that they ‘should’ help others (Manz, 1986). In other words, individuals that are concerned with achieving a meaningful outcome by contributing for a social cause are guided by prosocial motivations (Batson, 1998; Grant, 2008). Motivation is described as the psychological state that energizes an inner desire to convert intentions into actions by expending an effort (Deci,

1975; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Thus, activities that bring meaning and purpose to individual actions (Ryan and Deci, 2001; Waterman, 1993), for example, by focussing on the goal of protecting others and promoting the welfare of others, and not oneself, is referred to as prosocial motivations (Batson, 1987).

3. Hypothesis Development

Self-leadership theory explains that natural rewards have an intrinsic appeal that act as an internal force to lead, manage and influence oneself in conducting the task (Manz, 1986; Stewart *et al*, 2011). Intrinsically motivating activities are inherently joyful that results in no formal rewards but natural rewards such as the pleasure and social reward generated in conducting a task, feeling good about helping others, achieving a positive emotional state by creating social impact or gaining the joy of donating for a social cause (Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 2000). Thus, natural rewards are achieved by performing the activity itself as it acts as an internal self-influence and self-control system in leading oneself in conducting the activity (Gagné and Deci, 2005; Neck and Houghton, 2006; Stewart *et al*, 2011). Furthermore, in case of crowdfunding for a social entrepreneurial venture, individuals might not be naturally motivated to give, yet find the act as an important and necessary task that brings a social reward through the joy of benefiting others. This natural or intrinsic motivation depends on the contributors' realization that he shall receive no physical rewards or perks by sacrificing his money for a social cause through a crowdfunding platform. Thus, giving value to the 'natural reward' of generating social good could positively influence the act of contributing through crowdfunding. This leads to our first hypothesis:

H1: Higher valorisation of 'natural' rewards is positively related to willingness to contribute for social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding.

Self-leadership theory, which primarily highlights intrinsic motivation, explicates that external forces such as training, cultural norms or organisational rewards could also have a positive influence on individuals' self-leadership practices (Neck and Manz, 1996; Stewart *et al*, 2011). However, some studies that drew on self-leadership theory confirm that external

forces might only work for individuals that already have a low level of internal self-control or self-efficacy, and not on the ones that have a prior engagement with intrinsic motivation or internal self-control systems and self-leadership practices (Stewart *et al*, 1996). Thus, while conventional economic theory would argue that external forces such as material rewards and incentives would increase the individual's willingness to perform an activity, studies in psychology and recent economic models would argue that external forces, such as rewards and incentives might not work for activities, such as donating or volunteering for charitable causes, which are triggered by an individual's engagement with intrinsic motivations. This can be explained as crowding-out effect where material gifts offered in exchange of their prosocial act are perceived to be controlling the crowdfunders' behaviour. Consequently, participants suffer from reduced self-leadership and react by reducing their intrinsic motivation (Frey, 1997; Frey and Jegen, 2001) and a reduced proclivity to contribute through crowdfunding for a social cause. Thus, giving value to material rewards can have a negative influence on individuals' willingness to contribute for a social good through crowdfunding.

H2: Higher valorisation of 'material' rewards is negatively related to willingness to contribute for social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding.

Individuals have different motivations and expectations for behaving prosocially (Ariely *et al*, 2009). Individuals with pure or impure altruistic motivations (Andreoni, 1989, 1990, 1998) can conduct the prosocial act of monetary contribution for a social cause through non-equity crowdfunding platforms, such as a reward-based or a donation-based crowdfunding platform. Pure altruists are individuals contributing to help others without expecting personal benefits in return apart from a social reward or social impact (Simon, 1993). Impure altruists are individuals contributing for a social cause for the pure joy of giving, where the focus is not on the act of giving money but the act of sacrificing for a social good. Hence, these intrinsically motivated individuals are driven to receive a natural reward that is positively related to their prosocial motivation to contribute for a social cause.

H3: Higher valorisation of 'natural' rewards is positively related to prosocial motivations towards social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding.

Similarly, individuals with egoistic or extrinsic motivation of reaping monetary or material rewards would normally tend to choose equity-based or reward-based crowdfunding platform informed by an investor mindset (Belleflamme *et al*, 2014). Such individuals would be reluctant to contribute financially through a non-equity based crowdfunding platform due to their expectation of gaining a material reward. Thus, their expectation of tangible rewards would negatively relate to their prosocial motivation by taking away their attention from prosocial acts and allowing them to re-focus on equity-based crowdfunding activities.

Several other studies have also shown that monetary or material incentives do not work with certain prosocial acts of charitable giving, such as blood donation or volunteering, as individuals motivated to conduct prosocial acts are often reluctant to receive tangible rewards in exchange of the contribution they make (Lacetera and Macis, 2010; Mellstrom and Johannesson, 2008; Titmus, 1970). It has been explained that in such cases the intrinsic motivation to conduct a prosocial act conflicts with the offered rewards that individuals expect only when motivated extrinsically (Allison *et al*, 2015; Ariely *et al*, 2009; Deci, 1972; Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 2000, 2012; Frey, 1997; Frey and Jegen, 2001). Hence, extrinsic benefits or material rewards could lead to detrimental or negative effects on prosocial motivation.

H4: Higher valorisation of ‘material’ rewards is negatively related to prosocial motivations towards social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding.

Prosocial motivation could be explained through the theory of self-leadership (Manz, 1986), that in turn is informed by the self-regulation framework. According to Batson (1987, 1998), prosocial motivation is a temporary psychological state that self-initiates individuals to expend effort that results into actions intended to benefit others. It relates to behaviours such as helping (Weinstein and Ryan, 2010), volunteering (Finkelstein *et al*, 2005) and showing sympathy and empathy (Eisenberg and Miller, 1987; Roberts and Strayer, 1996) in the absence of physical rewards that benefit oneself (Batson and Powell, 2003). Prosocial motivation has been associated to one’s moral principle (Shamir, 1990), one’s willingness to help others (Grant, 2007) and one’s commitment towards the welfare of others (Grant, 2008). Therefore, expectation of natural rewards can lead to contributing when individuals are prosocially

motivated in doing so. In this case, prosocial motivation acts as a mediator between the crowd's valorization of natural rewards and his willingness to contribute for a social cause. Thus,

H5: Prosocial motivation positively mediates the relationship between natural rewards and willingness to contribute through crowdfunding.

Similarly, prosocial motivation, described as a temporary psychological state of mind experienced by individuals (Batson, 1987, 1998), could increase the effect between the expectation of material rewards and the willingness to contribute for a social cause. As psychological models advocate a reduced willingness or a crowding-out effect towards contribution for social causes when accompanied with material gifts (Frey, 1997; Frey and Jegen, 2001), such as in case blood-donation (Lacetera and Macis, 2010), prosocial motivation would increase this effect leading to a negative mediation effect. Therefore, an increase in the magnitude of relationship between the expectation of material rewards and a crowdfunder's unwillingness to contribute for a social cause shall be realized. In this case, prosocial motivation acts as a negative mediator. This discussion leads to the sixth hypothesis:

H6: Prosocial motivation negatively mediates the relationship between material rewards and willingness to contribute through crowdfunding.

Figure 1 (see Appendix) represents our theoretical model.

4. Methodology

To test the above hypotheses, this study utilized the context of crowdfunding for an Indian social entrepreneurial venture named ISEV (name changed). Founded in 2007, ISEV is a hybrid social entrepreneurial venture based in India. The organisation pursues its social goal by educating, training and empowering women who have experienced sex-trafficking or are at high risk of being (re-)exploited by their families or the society. The organisation pursues its financial objectives by fabricating and selling fashion accessories bags, wallets and scarves made out of recycled traditional clothes.

Research Design and Data Collection

The research design and data collection process was devised into four steps as below:

Step 1: Interaction with founder of ISE V - After an interview with the founder of ISE V, a crowdfunding campaign was designed and uploaded by the founder of ISE V, a student from a reputed French business school and one of the authors of this present study. The proceeds from the campaign was promised to be utilised to recruit a trainer for the victims rescued by ISE V. Consequently, a survey was designed to collect data from the contributors as well as non-contributors to record their motivation behind contributing or not contributing towards a social cause.

Step 2: Designing the campaign and uploading the project on a non-equity-based platform - The project aimed at raising a capital of 700€ (~840\$), a small yet a common sum found in donation-based platforms (Belleflamme *et al*, 2015) that entrepreneurs from developing countries frequently struggle to raise from traditional funding institutions (Allison *et al*, 2013; Allison *et al*, 2014). The project was uploaded on KissKissBankBank, a leading reward-based and donation-based crowdfunding platform in France (Belleflamme *et al*, 2015; Business Insider, 2017). The project was promoted through social media (Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, Instagram), emails, phone messages and word of mouth to the personal and professional networks of the above mentioned three crowdfunding campaigners.

On successful completion of the project, all the crowdfunders were promised a social reward of social value creation by helping the disadvantaged women of ISE V through recruitment of a trainer. Additionally, they were also offered notes of thankfulness, gratitude and acknowledgement. Individuals contributing 20€ and above were also offered thank-you gifts such picture-postcards, success stories and hand-made cards via online transfer.

Step 3: Sending and following-up on survey - The crowdfunding project sought contributions for a two month period from June 2017 to August 2017. Within 36 days, 39 individuals contributed towards the success of the project by raising an amount of 745€ (~894). An online survey questionnaire was sent to each contributor through email and/or by smart phone applications. This was followed by a reminder to confirm their response to the survey. Finally, a total of 36 out of 39 contributors provided complete and usable responses.

Step 4: Survey data collection - The campaigners continued to campaign and spread awareness of the social cause and the crowdfunded project of ISEV among their social networks. As part of this, students at the French business school where the student campaigner was studying were invited to participate in the crowdfunding campaign. In recent years, business schools and business school students have been a fertile source for data collection for studies related to entrepreneurship (Bacq and Alt, 2018; Hockerts, 2017; Shinnar *et al*, 2012). Thus, a few more rounds of the campaign was run from September 2017 to February 2019. This was followed by asking each participant about their willingness to contribute or not contribute to this crowdfunding project of ISEV. Their responses were recorded through the survey questions that was spread to the contributors of the project explained in step 3. Furthermore, to enrich the study, we wanted to generate a deeper understanding of not only why people would contribute, but also why they would *not* contribute to a social cause. Finally, a total of 244 complete responses were collected through the survey for the purpose of this study. Table 1 gives a complete overview of the data.

Measures

We followed Dillman's (2007) suggestion of designing and implementing effective internet surveys. The measures and items are discussed below:

Natural Rewards (IV1): This independent variable captured whether the contributors and the non-contributors valued 'natural' rewards. We asked respondents to rate, "I value the social reward more than the actual reward offered on the platform". Respondents recorded their answers on a 5-point Likert-type (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Material Rewards (IV2): This independent variable captured whether the contributors and the non-contributors valued 'material' rewards. We asked respondents to rate, "I like materialistic rewards more than intangible rewards". Respondents recorded their answers on a 5-point Likert-type (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Prosocial Motivation (M): To measure prosocial motivations, we used a four-item scale used by Grant (2008). The four-items were slightly adapted for the purpose of this study. The items included, "I am (not) motivated to donate because I (do not) care about benefiting others through my donation", "I am (not) motivated to donate because I (do not) want to help others through my donation", "I am (not) motivated to donate because I (do not) want to have positive

impact on others through my donation” and “I am (not) motivated to donate because it is (not) important for me to do good for others through my donation. All the four-items used a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Internal reliability for prosocial motivation was high (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.95).

Willingness to Contribute (DV): This dependent variable recorded the participant’s interest in giving for a social cause through crowdfunding. This was measured in two ways. In case of participants interested in contributing, the exact amount of their financial contribution was recorded in euros. “0” was recorded for participants unwilling to contribute¹.

Control Variables: The study included two control variables, namely age and gender. Both age and gender are likely to have an influence on the willingness to contribute via the crowdfunding platform. In terms of age, it could be an influencing factor since older individuals tend to have access to more funds and resources. A study conducted by Charities Aid Foundation (2017) in the UK revealed that individuals aged between 25 and 44 are most likely to donate whereas older individuals (above 65) are likely to contribute by donating physical goods. Studies by Marom *et al* (2016) and Josefy *et al* (2017) informed that females were more likely to invest in female-led crowdfunding projects. In our study, all the three campaigners were females who were raising capital for female beneficiaries.

5. Results

34 nationalities participated in the crowdfunding campaign and recorded valid responses to the survey. The majority of respondents owned a French nationality (74.6%) while some held a second nationality along with their French nationality (7.5%). This was expected as the project was uploaded in a leading French crowdfunding platform and was mainly campaigned in France. Not surprisingly, another well-represented group were Indians (5.33%) as ISEV and some of its well-wishers were Indians. The data represented 52% females and 48% males. Among our 244 participants, 65.17% showed proclivity to contribute while 34.83% were disinclined for the same. Among females, 74.8% were recorded as inclined to contribu-

¹Additionally, participants not interested in contributing responded “No” (recorded as “0”) and participants interested in contributing responded “Yes” (recorded as “1”).

-tion while 25.2% did not. Among males, 54.7% did while 45.3% did not. Table 1 (see Appendix) gives a detailed overview of the data.

In order to test our hypotheses, first, mediation test was conducted assigning the exact amount of financial contribution in euros that the participants recorded to the dependent variable- willingness to contribute. In the second examination, the same The mediation tests were conducted using Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation tests, followed by the use of PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) and bootstrapping in SPSS. Both these tests ensured replicability, generalizability and robustness².

Pearson's correlations and Descriptive Statistics

At first, zero-order correlation analysis using Pearson's correlations were calculated. Significant correlations between natural rewards, prosocial motivation and willingness to contribute were revealed³. Thus, valorization of natural rewards is positively related to willingness to contribute for social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding (hypothesis 1) and valorisation of natural rewards is positively related to prosocial motivations for social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding (hypothesis 3) were both supported. However, as correlations might not be enough to test these hypotheses, further OLS regressions has been conducted.

Similarly, when the exact financial amount of contribution was assigned to willingness to contribute, significant correlations in the negative direction between material rewards and prosocial motivation were revealed, but negative relation was revealed between material rewards and willingness to contribute, yet it was not significant enough⁴.

²The mediation tests were also conducted using the value for willingness to contribute (dependent variable) as a binary variable (Yes=1 and No=0). Once again, this ensured replicability, generalizability and robustness.

³This was true in both cases- first, by assigning the exact sum in euros to the dependent variable willingness to contribute and, second, by assigning binary values to the dependent variable.

⁴Significant correlations in the negative direction between material rewards, prosocial motivation and willingness to contribute were revealed when binary variables were assigned to willingness to contribute (Yes=1/No=0).

Thus, the test highlights that valorization of material rewards is negatively related to willingness to contribute for social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding (hypothesis 2). Valorisation of material rewards is negatively related to prosocial motivations for social entrepreneurial projects through crowdfunding (hypothesis 4) was supported in both tests. In case of hypotheses 2 and 4, the correlation results give an idea of the relationship between the variables. Yet as these results might not be considered enough to fully validate their relationships, our model is also tested through OLS regressions.

Table 2 (see Appendix) shows the descriptive statistics and correlations between all the variables. The study also found positive and statistically significant relations for the control variable of age, but not gender.

Baron and Kenny's Mediated Regression Approach

To test our full model and all our hypotheses, mediated regression approach recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) was first utilised. This is a common approach to test a meditational relationship (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). In this approach, three equations were estimated. First, the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable. Second, the mediator is regressed on the independent variable. In the last equation, dependent variable is regressed on both the independent variable and the mediational variable. To confirm significant results for mediation, the following conditions were met: the dependent variable must be effected by the independent variable in the first equation; the mediator must be effected by the independent variable in the second equation; the dependent variable must be effected by the mediator in the third equation; and lastly, assuming that all of these conditions are statistically in the right direction, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the first equation. Full mediation is supported when the independent variable has no statistically significant effect when the mediator is controlled, while partial mediation is indicated if the effect of the independent variable is reduced in magnitude but still significant when the mediator is controlled (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

In our analysis, hypotheses 1, 3 and 5 were fully supported, thus validating the first part of the study's meditational model. That is, the relationship between natural rewards and willingness to give (hypothesis 1) and the relationship between natural rewards and prosocial motivation (hypothesis 3) was significant in the positive direction. While this was also

supported by zero-order correlations as shown in table 2 (see Appendix), the mediation approach mentioned above was utilized to better understand and evaluate the proposed research model. Our study indicated that natural rewards is fully mediated by prosocial motivation in a positive direction (hypothesis 5). This means that the relationship between natural rewards with willingness to contribute was no longer significant after adding prosocial motivation. Thus, prosocial motivation is an important link between natural rewards and individual's willingness to contribute for social entrepreneurial ventures through crowdfunding. Figure 2 (see Appendix) represents the mediated regression results.

Similarly, mediation tests were also conducted using the variables material rewards, prosocial motivation and willingness to contribute. Our tests revealed support for hypothesis 4 that stated a significant negative relationship between material rewards and prosocial motivation. Hypothesis 2 could not be fully supported, both by regressions and by zero-order correlations. Even though our tests showed a negative relationship between material rewards and willingness to contribute, it was not significant. This result engenders an explanation that crowdfunders that contribute due their internal appeal for natural rewards could experience a draining-out of intrinsic motivation that could negatively influence their joy of giving. At the same time, traditional crowdfunders who are often driven to contribute due to an appeal for material rewards offered on the platform, shall either be attracted to contribute by attractive rewards offered through the social entrepreneurial campaign or might not be attracted to contribute for a social cause due to its low material return on investment.

Furthermore, after adding prosocial motivation in the equation to test for negative mediation, the negative direction of the relationship between material rewards with willingness to contribute was subdued (i.e. value of beta was suppressed). Thus, prosocial motivation is an important link between material rewards and willingness to contribute for social entrepreneurial ventures through crowdfunding. It explains that prosocial motivation acts as a mediator, thus very weakly supporting hypothesis 6. The direct effect shows that expectation of material reward decreases the willingness to contribute through prosocial crowdfunding. However, if prosocial motivation is experienced by crowdfunders, it will have a positive effect on willingness to give as it suppresses the desire for material rewards. However, even though there is a negative mediation, it is not significant. Thus our hypothesis 6 is weakly supported.

Figure 3 (see Appendix) represent the mediated regression results. Tables 4 represent the results of the full mediation model supported by Barron and Kenny's (1986) tests.

Finally, through the mediation tests, the study found positive and statistically significant coefficients for the control variable of age, while gender did not⁵.

PROCESS Macro and Bootstrapping Mediation Analysis

To ensure the authenticity of the previous results as well as investigate further in to the mediation models, we tested for mediation by using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013). This helped by further assessing the indirect effects through bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is a sophisticated technique that treats the data sample as a population and then resamples it a number of times with a replacement, whereby computing relevant statistics for every replacement subsample (Shrout and Bolger, 2002). A 95% bootstrap confidence interval is computed, as a result this technique does not require a normal distribution of the sample. Thus, to explain the indirect effects, the bootstrap confidence intervals were computed by using 5000 replications.

In order to establish the mediation, first, the independent variable should be significantly related to the mediator. Second, the mediator should be related to the dependent variable. Finally, the indirect effect of the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable through the mediator should be significant and supported by the bootstrapping analysis (Hayes, 2013). The results of these tests are presented in table 4 (see Appendix), which show support for the mediation highlighted in our study. In other words, prosocial motivation serves as a mediator between natural rewards and willingness to contribute (hypothesis 5). Prosocial motivation also serves as a mediator between material rewards and willingness to contribute (hypothesis 6). Similar to Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation results, when the outcome variable willingness to contribute was assigned the exact amount of contribution, the control variable for gender did not yield a significant coefficient, while age did⁶.

⁵The study found positive and statistically significant coefficients for the control variable of age and gender when the outcome variable, willingness to contribute, was assigned with 0 or 1.

⁶Similar to Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation results, the present mediation tests found positive and statistically significant coefficients for the control variable of age and gender when the outcome variable, willingness to contribute, was assigned with 0 or 1.

As both mediation approaches highlight same results, these tests offer two important explanations. Prosocial crowdfunders that contribute for social causes could experience impairment of the willingness to contribute when the crowdfunding campaign designed for a social cause offers material gifts. Such prosocial crowdfunders are driven by prosocial motivation to create social value. Thus, less importance is given to material rewards when prosocial motivation is high. To the contrary, traditional crowdfunders that do not experience natural motivation to contribute and simultaneously engage in platforms like KissKissbankBank, might fund campaigns in the expectation of gaining a return from their contribution. Such traditional crowdfunders might experience an increase in their willingness to contribute for a social campaign only when some form of tangible reward is offered through the crowdfunding platform. Additionally, through the mediation tests, the study found positive and statistically significant coefficients for the control variable of age. The control variable for gender did not yield a significant coefficient.

Finally, our tests confirm our theoretical model that highlights that prosocial motivation fully mediates the relationship between the expectation of natural rewards and prosocial crowdfunders' willingness to contribute for a social cause. At the same time, prosocial motivation mediates the negative relationship between the expectation of material rewards and crowdfunders' willingness to contribute for a prosocial activity. However, our tests reveal a partial negative mediation in this case.

6. Analysis of the Results

Prosocial acts, such as blood donation or volunteering for social and charitable causes are driven by various expectations and motivations (Ariely *et al*, 2009). These could emanate from altruistic or intrinsic motivations of gaining a warm-glow through giving or creating a social good. It could also be driven by egoistic self-interested or extrinsic motivations of gaining material rewards such as tax-breaks, financial return on investment or non-monetary gifts (Bénabou and Tirole, 2006). For example, on one hand, some studies explain that gifts, incentives or material rewards impair intrinsic motivation and sabotage warm-glow, thus reducing the desire to conduct a prosocial act (Bénabou and Tirole, 2003; Deci, 1972, 1975; Frey, 1997; Frey and Jegen, 2001; Newman and Shen, 2012; Titmus, 1970). On the other hand,

some other studies revealed that donors are not reluctant to receive in-kind gifts and non-monetary rewards in exchange of their prosocial effort (Lacetera and Macis, 2010, 2013; Costa-Font *et al*, 2013; Mellstrom and Johannesson, 2008).

In this paper, a different prosocial act is devised through the context of crowdfunding for a social entrepreneurial venture that aimed at rescuing, training and employing female victims of sex-trafficking. A crowdfunding campaign was uploaded through a non-equity-based crowdfunding platform named KissKissBankBank- a platform that is considered both donation-based and reward-based (Belleflamme *et al*, 2015). Donation-based crowdfunding platforms have become intermediaries for charities and non-profit organisations that offer ‘natural’ rewards such as gratitude, acknowledgements and warm-glow to the funder in exchange of their contribution. Reward-based crowdfunding platforms have some elements of donation-based platforms as it also incentivizes funders through ‘natural’ rewards and ‘material’ rewards such as pens, caps or mugs. Although rewards are seen as an important motivation to participate in crowdfunding campaigns (Agarwal *et al*, 2014; Belleflamme *et al*, 2015), based on past research, it is unclear whether such ‘natural’ or ‘material’ rewards are effective and how these can be used as a strategic tool to attract contributions from funders (Cox *et al*, 2018), especially in the case of prosocial crowdfunding. Consequently, this current study examined three important determinants, that is, ‘natural’ rewards, ‘material’ rewards and prosocial motivation that influenced the decision to contribute to non-equity-based crowdfunding platforms.

Drawing on self-leadership theory, we find support for our theoretical model. Self-leadership theory helps to elucidate factors such as internal forces that facilitate valorization of ‘natural’ rewards emanating from intrinsic motivation, but also accommodate external forces that facilitate valorization of ‘material’ rewards emanating from extrinsic motivation. For example, organisations and their leaders often empower their employees by creating opportunities for intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards (Stewart *et al*, 2011). Additionally, applying self-leadership theory to the phenomenon of prosocial crowdfunding and social entrepreneurship is theoretically beneficial as both phenomena exhibit hybrid properties. Scholars (Galak *et al*, 2011; Allison *et al*, 2014) suggest that crowdfunding is supported by extrinsic cues as well as intrinsic cues. Similarly, social entrepreneurship has also been defined as an ideal form of hybrid (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Doherty *et al*, 2014) that is supported by

other-oriented motivations as well as self-oriented motivations of individuals (Ruskin et al, 2016; Van de Ven et al, 2007). This probably helps to explain why higher expectation of ‘natural’ rewards increases the propensity to contribute via prosocial crowdfunding whereas higher expectation of ‘material’ rewards partially decreases the propensity to contribute for social entrepreneurial ventures that prioritize social value creation over profits. Due to social entrepreneurial ventures’ unique hybrid nature, traditional crowdfunders could treat social businesses as non-for-profit entities where return on contribution is low. Hence, individuals looking to gain ‘material’ and financial rewards would tend to invest in purely reward-based platforms or equity-based platforms.

Our study also revealed that an important link between rewards and propensity to contribute is an individual’s prosocial motivation. Thus, a high prosocial motivation positively influences the relationship between ‘natural’ rewards and interest in financial contribution. Alternatively, high prosocial motivation suppresses the negative relationship between ‘material’ reward and financial contribution in prosocial crowdfunding. Thus, again the theory holds as the negative mediation elucidates that self-leadership is less driven by external forces, yet, it can be rightly argued that self-leadership allows influence of extrinsic cues as well as intrinsic cues. Therefore, in line with Newman and Shen (2012), providing inexpensive thank-you gifts, such as gift-cards or picture post-cards, might not be a universally bad idea to attract both intrinsically motivated as well as extrinsically motivated prosocial crowdfunders interested in social entrepreneurial projects.

7. Conclusion

Given the alarming social, environmental and financial crisis that our society is facing today, we believe that our research has important implications for theory and practice by offering a deeper understanding of prosocial crowdfunding for social entrepreneurial ventures that pursue a social mission along with financial objectives. The study contributes theoretically, first, by introducing self-leadership theory within the context of crowdfunding of social entrepreneurial projects as an over-arching theoretical framework to explain whether ‘natural’ and ‘material’ rewards stimulate or impede prosocial contribution. In the process, a potential contribution to self-leadership theory is offered as the theory has often been criticised for its

scant application (Neck and Houghton, 2006; Stewart *et al*, 2011). Additionally, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time, self-leadership theory has been applied to the context of crowdfunding of social entrepreneurial ventures. Second, so far, the effect of rewards have been empirically tested on different forms of prosocial and charitable acts, such as blood donation or community volunteering. For example, previous studies make a contrasting prediction about the effects of non-monetary incentives, as some studies explain that non-monetary incentives, such as unconditional gifts, vouchers or charitable exchange purchases, have a positive effect on prosocial contributions (Alpizar *et al*, 2008a, 2008b; Briers *et al*, 2006; Falk, 2007; Holmes *et al*, 2002; Shang and Croson, 2006) while other studies explain a negative effect (Ariely *et al*, 2009; Déci *et al*, 1999; Frey and Jegen, 2001; Heyman and Ariely, 2004; Lacetera and Macis, 2010; Mellström and Johannesson, 2008; Titmus, 1970). Our study attempts to fill this gap in the literature by revealing that an appeal for ‘natural’ rewards attracts crowdfunding for social entrepreneurial projects, but more importantly, an appeal for ‘material’ rewards might or might not attract crowdfunders depending on their profile and intention. This means that traditional crowdfunders might expect a ‘material’ gift in return for their monetary sacrifice while non-traditional crowdfunders might be repelled by the same. Thus, ‘material’ rewards should be strategically tailored to attract funding from traditional as well as non-traditional crowdfunders. Third, this present study offers theoretical insights to the phenomenon of crowdfunding within the context of social entrepreneurship, an area which has received lesser attention in comparison to crowdfunding of traditional or artistic ventures (Lehner, 2013, 2014). Thus, our study investigates the promise of crowdfunding for social entrepreneurship. Additionally, it has been suggested that self-leadership theory has been developed largely within the cultural setting of United States. Thus, Neck and Houghton (2006) raised a call for future research across settings outside USA. Our research responds to this call by developing the study within the context of France.

The study also contributes by offering practical implications. First, understanding the characteristics of two main types of rewards can help crowdfunding campaigners strategically design their crowdfunding appeal in order to boost motivation of individuals to contribute. Pooling higher number of individuals and collective crowds as resources would ensure improved societal health and well-being, thus averting social and environmental damage. Second, this research highlights the strategic relevance of ‘natural’ rewards. Thus, fund seekers

of social projects should enhance the warm glow experience of funders by avoiding to offer monetary rewards or any form of expensive material gifts. Due to prosocial crowdfunders' reduced focus on monetary benefits, it might be less expensive to execute such crowdfunding projects for social entrepreneurs. At the same time, since the importance of 'material' rewards could not be ignored, it is recommended that inexpensive thank-you gifts must be proposed to crowdfunders making higher amounts of contributions. Thirdly, rewards should be tailored to enhance prosocial motivation. Thus, to garner support, the crowdfunding campaign should be designed using entrepreneurial narratives and emotional language that should trigger funders' prosocial motivations (Allison *et al*, 2013; Guillaume *et al*, 2018). Furthermore, the narrative and the fund raising appeal should be framed to stimulate the need for reciprocity and sense of relatedness that eventually activate prosocial motivation. Hence, social entrepreneurial crowdfunding campaigners should first identify individuals, such as family members, close friends and meaningful associates, who are likely to feel related or connected to the cause and feel prosocially motivated to help. Finally, similar to the findings of Cox *et al*'s (2018) study, our empirical research did not support a significant correlation between gender and willingness to contribute. However, our calculations showed that 74.2% women in our study showed an inclination to contribute compared to only 53.8% men. Nevertheless, several studies noted that women tend to contribute more towards humanitarian or charitable giving (Cecere *et al*, 2017) or women tend to support more women (Marom *et al*, 2017; Josefy *et al*, 2017). Our study found mixed evidence of this claim, and hence suggests future empirical investigation on this topic.

Several limitations to our study pertain. For example, our investigations could not confirm to what extent 'material' rewards attract or repel funding in prosocial crowdfunding. Moreover, it does not explain how crowdfunders chose the amount of contribution that matches with different levels of rewards on the platform. This conflicting findings make an important ground for future research. Additionally, a high percentage of individuals holding a French nationality (73.5%) as well as the student community (83.8%) is perhaps over-represented in our sample. Having said that, this crowdfunding project was open to individuals from various other nationalities and different statuses (i.e. employed, home-maker, retired). Additionally, since the French business school where the campaign was extended had a highly international student community, the effect was controlled through the presence of international students.

Additionally, like many other studies in entrepreneurship, our research design does not allow us to study the actual behaviour of all the participants. However, what is different about our study is that previous studies mainly concentrated on crowdfunders. Our research design included individuals who contributed as well as those who did not contribute. Hence, our research design helps in gaining a deeper understanding of a wider pool of individuals who can act as potential resources in improving the role that social entrepreneurial ventures have in dispersing and scaling positive social impact for individuals and communities they serve.

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Appendix:

Figure 1: Theoretical Model

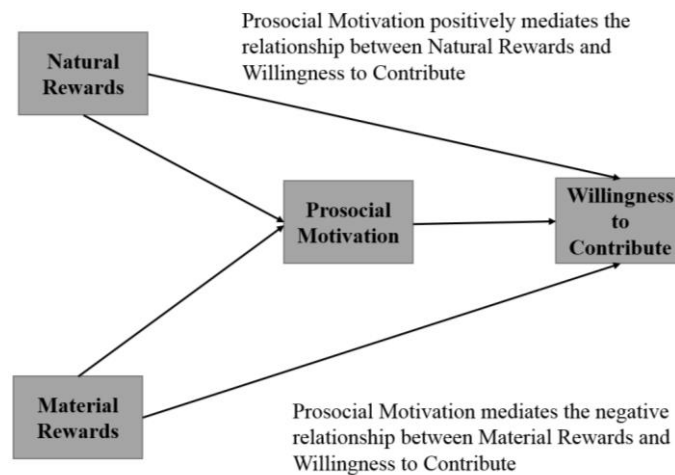


Table 1: Detailed Overview of the Data

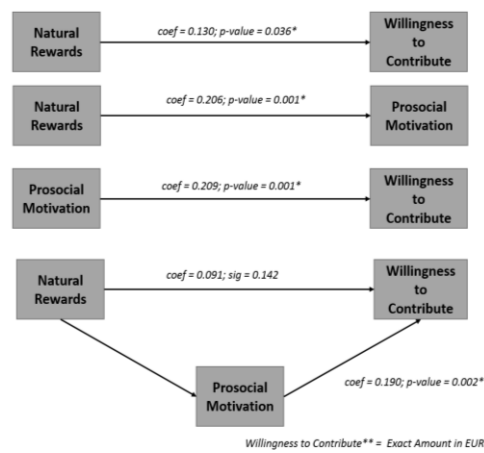
Data Collection	Total Valid Responses	Total Males	Total Females	Total Male Contribution	Total Male Non-Contribution	Total Female Contribution	Total Female Non-contribution
Jun-Aug 2017	36	21	15	21	N/A	15	N/A
Sept-Nov 2017	113	57	56	21	36	37	19
October 2018	36	15	21	8	7	16	5
Feb 2019	59	24	35	14	10	27	8
TOTAL	244	117	127	64	53	95	32

Table 2. Correlation Results 2: Willingness to Contribute (Exact amount in euros)

	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Age	—	—	—					
2	Gender	—	—	.12	—				
3	Natural Reward	3.86	1.04	.09	-0.10	—			
4	Material Rewards	2.61	1.17	-0.11	0.14*	-0.15*	—		
5	Prosocial Motivation	3.99	1.09	0.12	-0.12	0.23*	-0.22*	—	
6	Willingness to Contribute	8.77	14.7	0.3*	-0.04	0.16*	-0.07	0.25*	—

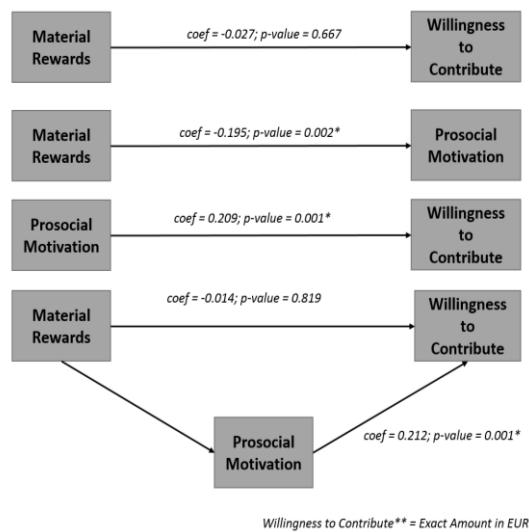
* significant at the .05 level.

Figure 2: Barron and Kenny's Approach: Natural Rewards, Prosocial Motivation and Willingness to Contribute (Exact amount in euros)



** significant at the .05 level.*

Figure 3. Barron and Kenny's Approach: Material Rewards, Prosocial Motivation and Willingness to Contribute (Exact amount in euros)



** significant at the .05 level.*

Table 3: OLS results: Regression on contribution in EUR

	Model 1 (CV only)			Model 2 : M on DV			Model 3 : IV on M			Model 4 : IV1 on DV (without M)			Model 5 : IV2 on DV (without M)			Model 6: IV on DV			Model 7: IV1 Mediation (add M)			Model 8: IV2 Mediation (add M)			Model 9: Full Model		
	coef	SD	p-value	coef	SD	p-value	coef	coef	SD	p-value	SD	p-value	coef	SD	p-value	coef	SD	p-value	coef	SD	p-value	coef	SD	p-value	coef	SD	p-value
Age	0.307	0.722	0.000*	0.279	0.722	0.000*	0.092	0.722	0.143	0.293	0.722	0.000*	0.304	0.722	0.000*	0.292	0.722	0.000*	0.272	0.722	0.000*	0.281	0.722	0.000*	0.274	0.722	0.000*
Gndr	-0.077	0.501	0.214	-0.049	0.501	0.426	-0.088	0.501	0.165	-0.062	0.501	0.315	-0.073	0.501	0.247	-0.061	0.501	0.332*	-0.041	0.501	0.504	-0.051	0.501	0.413	-0.044	0.501	0.479
Prosoc Motvtn				0.209	1.092	0.001*													0.190	1.092	0.002*	0.212	1.092	0.001*	0.194	1.092	0.002*
Nat Rwrđ							0.206	1.037	0.001*	0.130	1.037	0.036*				0.129	1.037	0.039*	0.091	1.037	0.142				0.093	1.037	0.136
Mat Rwrđ							-0.195	1.166	0.002*				-0.027	1.166	0.667	-0.010	1.166	0.874				-0.014	1.166	0.819	0.023	1.166	0.711
R ²			0.94			0.137			0.100			0.111			0.095						0.144			0.137			0.145
Adjusted R ²			0.087			0.126			0.085			0.100			0.084						0.130			0.122			0.127

* significant at the .05 level

Table 4: Regression Results and Mediation using PROCESS macro and Bootstrapping (DV: in EUR)

	M = Prosocial Motivation		DV = Willingness to Contribute		Mediation			
Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>LLCI</i>	95% <i>ULCI</i>
CV1 = Age	0.17	1.76	5.53	4.46*				
CV2 = Gender	-0.24	-1.77	-1.20	-0.67				
IV1 = Natural Rewards	0.22	3.27*	1.29	1.47				
M = Prosocial Motivation			2.56	3.06*				
IV1 M DV					0.55	0.23	0.18	1.09
R ²	0.07*		0.14*					
CV1 = Age	0.16	1.72	5.7	4.57*				
CV2 = Gender	-0.23	-1.65	-1.48	-0.82				
IV2 = Material Rewards	-0.18	-3.07*	0.18	0.22				
M = Prosocial Motivation			2.85	3.4*				
IV2 M DV					-0.52	0.22	-1.01	-0.16
R ²	0.07*		0.14*					

Chapter 4

Creating an Identity: Motivation of Women Social Entrepreneurs

Abstract

Previous research highlighted that women are more likely than men to engage in social entrepreneurship. Despite this growing evidence, inadequate research addresses the integral role that women play in infusing positive social change by founding and establishing social entrepreneurial ventures. This study draws on the literature on social entrepreneurial motivations and benefits from the application of life-course perspective and identity-work. It engages a theory building approach to explore how and under what conditions women are motivated to found and establish their social entrepreneurial venture. Verbal and written narrative accounts of three women social entrepreneurs based in an eastern city in India, along with interviews with relevant organizational members and secondary data have been employed. Our findings suggest that an unexpected life-event followed by challenging circumstances triggered the women to crave and create their own identity. This channelized the women to adopt and start-up social entrepreneurship as a medium for identity construction. The drive to create their own identity became the primary motivation to pursue social change. Thus, this paper contributes by addressing prior omission in social entrepreneurship research by focusing attention on the gendered aspect of social entrepreneurship. Furthermore, it makes a contribution to the social entrepreneurial motivations literature by adding the new dimension of creating an identity as the main motivational antecedent to social entrepreneurship of the women in our study. Our findings also make a contribution to policy and practice, by identifying that women are not only other-oriented, but also self-oriented enough to attract capital investment to strategize, work-hard and scale up their social ventures. Thus, we conclude by highlighting our contributions to existing scholarship on social entrepreneurial motivations, life-course and identity work, as well as strategic implications for policy and practice.

Conference Presentation:

Mitra, P., Byrne, J. and Janssen, F. 2017. Family, gender and social entrepreneurship: three exploratory cases from India. *XXXI RENT (Research in Entrepreneurship and Small Business) Conference*.

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1. Introduction

Research evidence indicates that women are playing a critical role in bringing about B Corp movements and more broadly, social entrepreneurship through social change, environmental development and structuring communities and activities associated to social causes (Dimitriadis *et al*, 2017; Grimes *et al*, 2018; Hechavarria *et al.*, 2012; Zhao and Wry, 2016). Females are more likely to participate in the non-profit sector (McCarthy, 2001; Themudo, 2009) and work longer hours in volunteering activities (Taniguchi, 2006; DiMaggio and Louch, 1997). A few empirical studies conducted in the UK, USA and Canada, highlighted that women are over represented in the third sector and social enterprises, yet, women are under-represented in the higher positions within these organisations (Mailloux *et al*, 2002; Sampson and Moore, 2008; Teasdale *et al*, 2011). Prior findings also revealed that women are more oriented towards pro-social, pro-community and pro-environmental values (Brush, 1992; Carter *et al*, 2003; Eagly, 2009; Zelenzy *et al*, 2000) that amplify their propensity to engage in social entrepreneurial activities (Hechavarria *et al*, 2012). These studies indicate a gendered aspect of social entrepreneurial opportunities, decisions and outcomes. Although there is a higher representation of women among social entrepreneurs, to date, very little work has addressed gender and *social* entrepreneurship (Humbert, 2012; Lyon and Humbert, 2012; Teasdale *et al*, 2011).

Furthermore, the past few years have witnessed considerable interest towards the rapid identification, launch and growth of social entrepreneurial activities (Kickul *et al*, 2018; Saebi *et al*, 2019; Shepherd, 2015). On that note, social entrepreneurship can be described as an entrepreneurial activity that creates innovative solutions to complex social problems such as poverty, hunger, lack of healthcare and hygiene facilities or inequality towards weaker social groups such as women, minorities and disabled individuals (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Dacin *et*

al, 2011; Mair and Marti, 2006; Renko, 2013). Social entrepreneurial ventures pursue a primary social mission coupled with market-based activities by taking advantage of a hybrid organising structure (Battilana and Lee, 2014; Haigh *et al*, 2015a, 2015b; Mitra *et al*, 2017). Within the context of social entrepreneurship, scholars have raised a call for generating a more holistic view of the motivational antecedents of social entrepreneurs (Saebi *et al*, 2019). Some critical entrepreneurial studies have explored aspects of sensemaking (Kimmitt and Munoz, 2018) or political dimensions of social entrepreneurial motivations (Jarrodi *et al*, 2019), yet, at its current state, the literature on social entrepreneurial motivations remains undertheorized (Miller *et al*, 2012).

Additionally, several studies have pointed that entrepreneurship is a platform for its founders to express their motivations and identity (Cardon *et al*, 2009; Fauchart and Gruber, 2011; Hogg and Terry, 2000; Seiger *et al*, 2016; Shepherd and Haynie, 2009). Yet, scholars have emphasized that theory on identity has not been prominently linked to entrepreneurial opportunity recognition and development processes (Sieger *et al*, 2016). Especially, there is a lack of engagement between the literature on social entrepreneurship and identity (Dacin *et al*, 2011; Wry and York, 2017, p. 439). It has been argued that identity processes affect the type of opportunities recognised and developed by entrepreneurs that motivate them to create and develop social entrepreneurial opportunities (Wry and York, 2017). Thus, applying an identity perspective could generate deeper insights for social entrepreneurship research.

Moreover, scholars have asserted that context-specificity is often neglected and, thus, have advocated the importance of context in entrepreneurial research (Brush *et al*, 2009; Dacin *et al*, 2011; Shepherd, 2015; Thébaud, 2015; Zilber *et al*, 2008). Elder *et al*, (2003) explained that very little scholarly attention has been given to the generation of theoretical knowledge on life course perspective, more so, by excluding the importance of geographic contexts and cultural borders. Highlighting the salience of gender and context in shaping social entrepreneurial engagement, our paper sourced data from India. Ranked at 108 for global gender gap ranking and at 142 for economic participation of women among 149 nations (World Economic Forum, 2018), recent reports suggest that women-owned micro, small and medium sized businesses represent about 10% to 14% in India (International Finance Corporation and World Bank Group, 2014; International Monetary Fund, 2019). Plagued by patriarchal forces and institutional segregation, culturally and historically India has had a different trajectory of development and progress at its aim to achieve sexual equality for women in the family and in the society (Datta and Gailey, 2012). Thus, India provides a rich context to enhance our

theoretical, methodological and practical understanding of social entrepreneurial motivations of females.

Heeding the above mentioned research calls, our study aims at responding to these gaps in the literature. By applying the lens of identity-work, our research examines the life course of women social entrepreneurs in order to investigate their motivation behind the launch of their social entrepreneurial venture. We adopted a life course perspective (Elder, 1985, 1994, 1998; Elder et al, 2003) to study the life experiences, life trajectories and transitions that influenced and motivated the women to make social entrepreneurial choices. More specifically, we address the research question: How and under what conditions women are motivated to engage in founding and establishing their social entrepreneurial venture?

To answer the above research question, a theory-building qualitative case study based approach, focussing on the life-course and significant life-events of three women social entrepreneurs based in Calcutta, an eastern city of India, has been utilised. Narratives of the female founders have been collected in the form of verbal life stories and written biographies that reflect the narrative construction of the narrators' personal journey. Narrative approaches contribute by reinforcing or contesting dominant practices by drawing on rich, complex and in-depth stories derived from ordinary people, especially women, who are often omitted from research projects (Anderson and Jack, 1991; Frazer, 2004; Riessman, 1993). Narratives, such as story-telling, are a credible tool that allows scholars to engage in theorizing in entrepreneurship (Johansson, 2004; Larty and Hamilton, 2011). In addition to the narrative stories, interviews with organisational members were conducted and secondary data was collected.

We applied a structural approach to our narrative data (Hamilton, 2006; Larty and Hamilton, 2011) that helped in demonstrating a critical analysis of the narrative plot embedded into the historical and cultural context of Calcutta in India along with the broader context of social entrepreneurship. This was followed by a further in-depth analysis of emergent themes in entrepreneurship. Findings reveal how a significant life event triggered identity processes and identity work that shaped, and in turn were shaped by, the motivations and actions of these female social entrepreneurs. We explored that the women's self-narrative reflected identity creation as an important motivation behind the launch of their social entrepreneurial venture.

The study contributes to theory and practice in the following ways. Whilst acknowledging that social entrepreneurial motivations have been studied at some length (Bacq and Alt, 2018;

Ruskin *et al*, 2016; Yitshaki and Kropp, 2016), our paper suggests that there remains an important gap regarding how the social attribute of gender influences motivations and motivational antecedents of female social entrepreneurs. Thus, our study not only contributes by offering an understanding of the gendered aspect of social entrepreneurship, but also contributes to the social entrepreneurial motivations literature and identity work enacted by women. The study highlighted a significant life-event followed by the quest for identity creation as a motivation that has not been discussed in the extant literature on social entrepreneurial motivations. These findings have implications for policy and practice by highlighting the role that social entrepreneurship plays in empowering and emancipating women through labor participation as well as creating jobs for others, which ultimately leads to the nation's economic development.

2. Background Theory

In order to investigate our research question, our theorization begins by drawing on the social entrepreneurial motivations literature, followed by an understanding of the theoretical framework of life-course perspective and identity-work.

Social Entrepreneurial Motivations

Motivation is conceptualized as the link between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial action (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011). Scholars explain that social entrepreneurs are driven by other-oriented motivations, such as compassion and empathy, that drive them to engage in social entrepreneurial action (Mair and Marti, 2006; Mair and Noboa, 2006; Miller *et al*, 2012). Some studies recognized that social entrepreneurs manifest both entrepreneurial as well as social motives (Yitskahi and Kropp, 2015). While social entrepreneurial motives are associated with prosocial behavior and altruism (Yitskahi and Kropp, 2015; Batson, 1987, 1998) entrepreneurial motives could be driven by an interest in career advancement and income generation (Hessels *et al*, 2008). Moreover, autonomy and independence are also some self-oriented factors that motivate social entrepreneurs towards embarking a social entrepreneurial journey (Ruskin *et al*, 2016; Shaw and Carter, 2007). Prabhu (1999) explained that, like commercial entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs could also be high risk takers with an urge to experiment. This is because they perceive their failure or success as a rich learning experience. In their empirical study, Ruskin *et al* (2016) analyzed the needs and

drives of social entrepreneurs and recognized the fundamental importance of both self-oriented motives as well as other-oriented motives of these individuals who lead and run a social venture. However, to date, theoretical perspectives of social entrepreneurial motivations are inadequate and needs research attention (Miller *et al*, 2012; Saebi *et al*, 2019). This is more relevant in case of women social entrepreneurs, as current understanding of why more women engage in social entrepreneurship has remained ostensibly overlooked.

Life Course Perspective

Life course theory is considered as a preminent perspective to study human lives (Elder *et al*, 2003). The theory conceptualizes how peoples' lives that are embedded in dynamic structural, social and cultural contexts, can be impacted by life-events, social transitions and personal circumstances (Elder, 1985, 1994, 1998). Integrating a life course perspective helps by offering a theoretical framework that stresses the profound influence life events usher into the life-trajectories and life-pathways of individuals. Life events, such as a marriage or the birth of a child, might involve a substantial change in the direction of one's life. Life transitions coerce individuals to construct or be shaped by their own life-events or life trajectories, thus forming very basic elements of the life course theory (Mayer, 2009). Furthermore, within the options and constraints available during changing life events and environments, individuals construct their life trajectories and chose their pathways. According to some studies (Burton and Bengston, 1985), life-events and transition experiences lead to a concatenation of positive or negative influences termed as "*cumulating advantages and disadvantages*" followed by a turning point of developmental processes for human lives (Elder, 1998). As abundant mechanisms of micro, meso and macro levels operate (Mayer, 2009), life course is viewed as a constructionist and multi-level phenomenon (Elder, 1994). Life course theory has been applied to several domains of study, including entrepreneurship (Davis and Shaver, 2012; Jayawarna *et al*, 2012; Haynie and Shepherd, 2011). For the first time (to our knowledge), we mobilize this theory to examine a gendered aspect of social entrepreneurial motivations.

Identity construction through identity work

An identity lens is useful in entrepreneurship research as it provides insights on entrepreneurial behaviour which is reflected through the entrepreneur's identity (Fauchart and Gruber, 2011; Seiger *et al*, 2016). Identity theory has been built on the insight that society shapes individual identities that in turn shape social behaviour (Stryker, 1980; Stryker and Burke, 2000). Identities are, thus, complex constructs that result from continuous dialogue and

constant negotiation processes between self and externally encountered social structures. For instance, individuals often derive their meaning of self-identity from their organisations and work-groups, where their professional identity becomes significantly important than their ascribed identities of gender, race, religion or nationality (Hogg and Terry, 2000).

Furthermore, identity theory explains the presence of multiple identities that explicate different motivations (Stryker, 2008; Ramarajan, 2014), values, beliefs and feelings within individuals (Hogg and Terry, 2000). By the virtue of multiple identity categorizations, actors might hold and exercise varied identities simultaneously (Stryker, 2008). From that perspective, identities are dynamic in nature (Leitch and Harrison, 2016) and actors can have multiple, and often conflicting identities (Stryker, 2008) that could evolve over time. For example, hybrid identities of entrepreneurs are interesting for research as they reinforce the elements of tensions and conflicts as founders strive to create a balance between pursuing a personal self-interest and advancing a social cause (Seiger *et al*, 2016).

Tajfel (1972) emphasized that individuals belong to social groups from where certain emotional and value significance is exchanged. Group membership provides self-identification, and psychological connectedness to the group. It generates orientation through self-evaluation processes that help individuals in defining and creating one's place in the society (Stryker and Serpe, 1982; Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Accordingly, one generates self-worth if social identity aligns with one's pursued behaviour and actions (Turner *et al*, 1987; Stets and Burke, 2000; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). As a result, social groups reinforce intergroup perceptions, social stereotyping or prejudices that evoke individuals to evaluate, create or define their own place and role in the society (Tajfel, 1972). One of the important advantages of applying an identity lens is its possibility to distinguish the level of inclusiveness through group membership starting from being highly involved with the group's goals by advancing group actions (Harb and Smith, 2008) to being least motivated to engage with the group's goals by pursuing personal ambitions (Brewer and Gardner, 1996). Thus, in-group and out-group comparisons and evaluations are motivated by an underlying need for distinctiveness and self-esteem through identity work (Turner, 1975).

A key to the development of in-group or outgroup membership requires identity work. Actors enact identity work to create, maintain, strengthen, update or change self-identity in order to affiliate group membership (Sveningsson and Alvesson, 2003). This results in a sense of belongingness and security while legitimizing oneself through social or group membership

(Leitch and Harrison, 2016). For example, highlighting a gendered perspective, on one hand, acceptance and strengthening of an already established identity, such as a maternal identity associated to child-care (Greene *et al*, 2013), is a form of identity work. On the other hand, reversing roles between a maternal identity and an entrepreneurial identity which is common among female entrepreneurs, is also regarded as another form of identity work. For instance, evidence shows that women entrepreneurs need to undertake identity work to claim entrepreneurial legitimacy. Undertaking identity work helps in their effort to bridge the gap between undervalued feminine identities in the face of masculinized entrepreneurial discourses (Swail and Marlow, 2018). Furthermore, identity building focuses more on internal self-evaluation processes that often draw upon agentic tactics to shape the significance of self-identity under particular circumstances (Roberts and Creary, 2013). Thus, Seiger *et al* (2016) highlights that an identity lens enables scholars to interpret and understand individual choices, behaviours and actions, including entrepreneurial behaviour during the venture creation process.

3. Methodology

Narrative approaches have started gaining popularity (Dhunpath, 2000; Fraser, 2004) as it offers fruitful insights into theory-building and reconceptualization of entrepreneurial processes (Gartner, 2007, 2010; Johansson, 2004; Larty and Hamilton, 2011). Narratives are also fundamental in the way humans make sense of the world and provide a basis to construct their identities, motivations and actions (Bruner, 1990; Czarniawska, 1997; Riessman, 1990; Plummer, 1995). In this study, we utilised a narrative approach to explore the life of three women social entrepreneurs to understand the reasons behind the launch and establishment of their social entrepreneurial venture.

Given extant research overemphasis on developed contexts (e.g., UK, Canada and North America), to address our research question, we purposely sampled three women social entrepreneurs in a developing world context—the city of Calcutta, India. India is a country with diverse cultures, and so, through purposive sampling, we focused on social entrepreneurial ventures based in one city (i.e., Calcutta) and on women social entrepreneurs originating from one single community (i.e., Bengali community) and one religion (i.e., Hindu). This assisted in controlling for the environment and the diversity of India (Yin, 2009). Given our life-course perspective, it was also important that the women's social enterprise were sufficiently mature

in order to capture data over a sufficient timeline. We thus chose women whose SE ventures were at least 10 years old. We also chose high-profile ventures to maximise the secondary data available to us. High-profile ventures also signalled that these women had gained recognition and legitimacy.

We positioned this study under the contextual constructivist paradigm. The narratives and life-histories of the three women social entrepreneurs highlighted a plot embedded into a social, cultural and institutional context based in the eastern city of India. Thus, the study follows a contextual paradigm as context is important to understand their life-stories (Zilber *et al*, 2008). At the same time, constructivism is supported as the oral and written narratives prompted the women to construct and create a meaning of the events and experiences of their life. The focus of narrative discourse is not the accuracy of facts composed by the narrator. Rather, it is a method that reflects personal stories, meanings and self-representations that the narrator constructs through the act of story-telling (Dhunpath, 2000, p. 545; McKenzie, 2007). For this reason, narratives are also supported by a constructivist approach.

Data Source and Research Strategy

We began with eliciting oral narratives of the three women social entrepreneurs based in Calcutta. Through the oral narratives, the narrators were asked to narrate key life chapters, significant events, important scenes and challenges of their life (McAdams, 1995). The narrative interviews, each of which were two to three hours long, were conducted through a field visit in February 2017 by one of the authors of this study. Each of these narratives were recorded and transcribed later. By spending a day at the head-offices of the organizations, informal observations and conversation snippets were converted in to extensive notes. The field visit also included a social event, a training session and a cultural dance performance at the premises of the organizations.

Following the narrative interview, after a month, each social entrepreneur was invited to provide a written biography of their life covering their childhood, youth, venture motivations, experiences at pre- and post- launch stages, growth motivations and future motivations. The focus of such oral and written narratives reflected the narrator's personal stories and the way she experienced her world through constant interaction with her interpersonal environment such as family members along with the institutional environment (Huberman, 1995; Myers, 2013) such as a community or society. Additionally a written biogr-

Table 1: Overview of Data sources

Name	First launch of social venture	Date of birth of social entrepreneur	Sector operating	Interview Participant	Data Sources
SE1: CS1	2004	1955	Children with disabilities	1. Founder and Director (SE1) 2. Sister of Founder (Sister1) 3. Vice President (VP1) 4. Ex Vice President (EVP1) 5. Assitant Secretary (AS1)	<u>Primary Data:</u> Oral narrative of founder; biography of founder; interviews with organisational members; Handwritten notes during field visit including a cultural performance. <u>Secondary Data:</u> Company archives; youtube videos; television broadcast; mail conversation; company website; newspaper and magazine articles.
SE2: CS2	1997	1962	Individuals with mental disabilities	1. Founder and Director (SE2)	<u>Primary Data:</u> Oral narrative of founder; Biography of founder; Handwritten notes during field visit including training sessions. <u>Secondary Data:</u> Youtube videos; company documents; company website; mail conversation; newspaper and magazine articles.
SE3: CS3	2007	1970	Trafficking and sexual exploitation of females	1. Founder and Director (SE3) 2. Psychological Counselor and Networking Co-ordinator (PC3)	<u>Primary Data:</u> Oral narrative of founder; biography of founder; interview with organisation member; handwritten notes during field visit including a social event. <u>Secondary Data:</u> Youtube videos; company website; mail conversation; newspaper and magazine articles.

-aphy helped to affirm the voice of the narrator, interpret and link critical episodes (Dhunpath, 2000). We feel this method to be appropriate as narratives represent narrative truth and make references to past, present and future actions (Lieblich *et al*, 1998; McAdams, 2005).

Furthermore, we supplemented the oral life-stories, written biographies and field visits with 1) five more interviews with relevant organizational members (e.g. vice president, ex-vice president, psychological counselor) and 2) additional secondary data sources published till April 2018. We reviewed more than twenty articles that were published in newspapers and magazines about the social entrepreneurs, their organisation or their motivation to create impact. These secondary sources of data helped contextualize, triangulate and verify information presented in the oral and written narrative accounts. We also retrieved internal documents of the social enterprises, their organisational reports, company websites, youtube videos, and other relevant materials. In total, more than 360 pages of primary and secondary data was collected. The data served as a validation tool in considering the narratives and helped construct the chronology of events, in order to better understand the plot, sequences, links and overlaps (Eisenhardt, 1989; Pettigrew, 1990). An overview of the above details has been represented in table 1.

Structural Framework for Narrative Analysis

One of the common challenges of narrative research involves overcoming the sheer quantity of rich, complex and in-depth information. We took measures while wading through the mass of information by trying to identify coherent, pertinent and novel trends. In order to do so, two of the authors of this paper separately coded the data manually as well as by using Nvivo.

Furthermore, to guide our analysis, we drew on and adapted Larty and Hamilton's (2011, p. 231) structural approach to analyze narrative material. In stage 1, we first paid attention to the plot of the narratives and how the events were pieced together. Then we studied the role of the narrator, other characters and the purpose of each story. We then (stage 2) considered contextualization of narrative production by paying particular attention to their co-construction and their embedded nature within social, historical, cultural or institutional contexts. Acknowledging this helped us identify other areas, avenues or emerging themes worthy of further analysis (stage 3). This technique of analysis is effective when analysing gender-based discourses in entrepreneurship (Larty and Hamilton, 2011). The interviews with the other members of the organisation as well as the secondary sources of information increased the richness of the data analysis process and allowed us to verify, interpret and link the events described by the women.

Furthermore, to surface common patterns within and across our data set, we applied a thematic analysis (Braun and Clark, 2006). We employed a latent approach to thematic analysis that we conducted on the data. This is because, our analysis is not independent of theory and epistemology. At the same time it commits less to the theory driven approach adopted by pure grounded theorists. Thus, we adopted a latent approach and positioned the paper at the interpretative level. Through our analysis, we identified and interpreted beyond the semantic content of the oral and written data. In the process, the analysis involved broader structures, conceptualizations and assumptions that goes beyond the surface of what the participants said or wrote to produce theorization.

4. Analysis and Findings: The Narratives of the Women Social Entrepreneurs

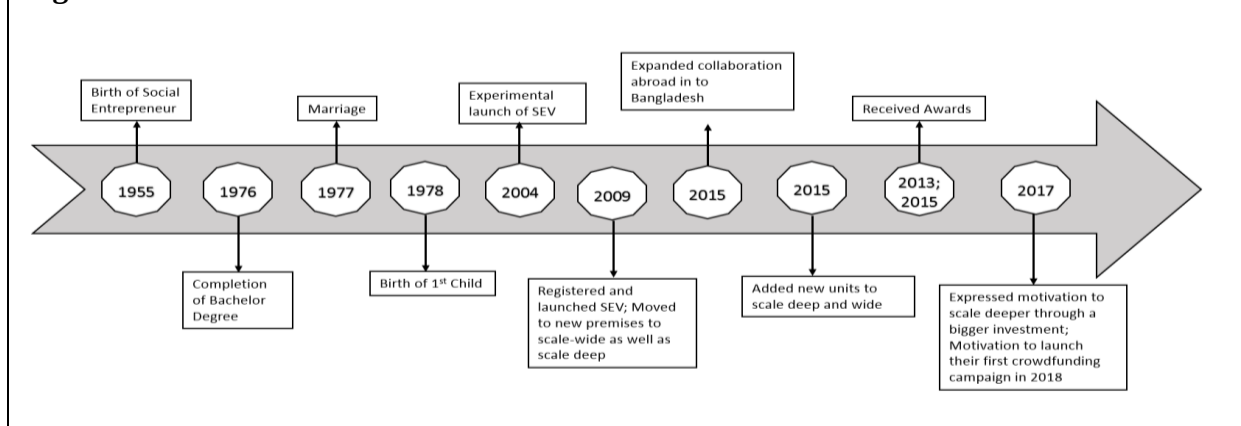
Extracts from the narratives of the three women social entrepreneurs are presented in this section. Our analysis explores the circumstances under which the women in our study chose social entrepreneurship. The findings identified the motivations that drove them to launch their social entrepreneurial venture. In the following three cases, we begin by analysing the narrative plot: - a significant and crucial aspect that represents the sequence of their life-event and life-course, and the context that influenced in shaping the narrator (Larty and Hamilton, 2011; Hamilton, 2006).

The analysis of the plot that comprised of different incidents revealed that all the three women in our study experienced an important life event in their family or social circle that triggered other actions and overlapping events. These events activated a series of hardships in the women's daily, personal and professional lives. These challenges evoked conflicts that lead the women to search and create their own identity which was intricately entangled with their desire to benefit others. They employed personal ambition and identity work to advance their primary desire for self-help as a motivation to launch and establish their social entrepreneurial venture. In the following section, SE1, SE2 and SE3 have been used to identity the three female social entrepreneurs and CS1, CS2 and CS3 have been used to identity their social entrepreneurial venture, respectively.

Case Study 1: CS1

Description: At the age of 49, SE1 experimentally launched her social entrepreneurial venture in the year 2004. Drawing on her experiences with her own son who was born with Downs Syndrome, she set up dance training classes and movement therapy for children with similar disabilities. With the support of other parents, who consider themselves a part of the “CS1 family”, she expanded the organization by adding lessons in music, art, craft and painting for the beneficiaries. As demand for admission grew, in 2009, SE1 moved her organizational premises to the central part of the city of Calcutta and legally registered it as a social entrepreneurial venture. The number of children involved each year continued to grow, and the organization added other activities such as fabricating incense sticks, paper bags, handkerchiefs, hand-made greeting cards and costume jewelry, which were then sold via pop-up stalls, exhibitions and other channels. In line with this expansion of activities, new trainers and coaches had been recruited continuously. The organization also collaborated with some national and international clubs and cultural institutions.

Figure 1: Timeline of SE1 of CS1



For the past few years, CS1 has expanded its collaboration to several other cities in India. In 2015, a new collaboration was launched in neighboring Bangladesh. Around the same time, they launched a spice packing and pickle making unit. SE1 mentioned that the new location provided more space to accommodate new members as well as newer activities that not only keep the beneficiaries engaged, but also generated surplus that promise organizational survival and growth. More recently, the organization set itself the goal of buying a land to build a campus village or home for the beneficiaries to fulfil deeper demands and create higher social

value. As of 2017, SE1 employed seven trainers and catered to 25 families that have a child with special needs. Recently, the organization had opened up its services to children who have been diagnosed with other disabilities, such as autism. CS1 seeks funding through a variety of means and launched its first crowdfunding campaign in 2018. Their goal was to recruit a new permanent trainer in order to offer their services to a higher number of beneficiaries. Above, a timeline (figure 1) highlights a sequence of events in the life of SE1.

CS1 Analysis: Birth of differently-abled son, struggles and identity establishment

Life-event: Birth of differently-abled son

SE1 started her story by narrating that as a young girl she was “*mischievous*”, “*very popular*” among her friends and enjoyed singing. She had a “*happy childhood*”, could “*play the guitar*” and led an “*affluent lifestyle*”. However, her marriage at the tender age of twenty-two to a man belonging to an “*ordinary family*”, brought in several changes in her life. Marriage made her move from the city of Calcutta to a nearby town named Durgapur. She had to adjust with her husband’s family members who lived in the same house.

SE1 had met her husband through pen-friendship that resulted in a love-marriage. Both the concepts of pen-friendship and love-marriage were uncommon and fairly unacceptable in the Indian society during her time. In this context, SE1’s sister (Sister1 hereafter), described her as someone who was modern for her time, Sister1 said,

“So, before her marriage, I would say, she was a very smart type of girl. It's not like she would be introvert”- Sister1, Interview

SE1 had explained that marriage to her husband was her personal decision. She was inclined to conform to the circumstances of her husband and his family’s economic status. She explained,

“I was aware that my husband came from an ordinary family, but I was willing to adapt as I had found a man who was not only kind but also supportive. He was an only child so I had to live with his parents. It was a big change as I left the comfortable home of my parents to settle into a less affluent lifestyle.”- SE1, Written Biography

Her marriage was immediately followed by the birth of her son at the age of twenty-three, which again brought in another set of confusions into her newly married life. In her case,

the birth of a son who was born with incurable Down's Syndrome, was an important and unexpected life-event that triggered a series of challenges. SE1's experiences as a young mother of a disabled child represents an unwelcome and significant life-event, one that evoked disbelief, helplessness and sorrow. She narrated:

"In 1978 on the 1st of September, my son was born. I was immediately informed by the doctor that he had Down's syndrome. He would never be like other normal children as he was mentally retarded. I could not believe what I heard—such a fair healthy baby was "special!" I was filled with sorrow. I prayed hard, "Dear God, please make him normal" I did not know at that time that mental retardation or Down's syndrome cannot be cured. It is not a disease. Slowly I came to terms with what had happened." - SE1, Written Biography

In collective and patriarchal societies, such as in India, motherhood is replete with symbols of respect, completeness and a societal preference for, especially, male progeny designed to cultivate a unique self-identity. As a consequence of the birth of her disabled son, the psychological impact of this life-event was profound on SE1. Her experiences were compounded by the realization that her life would be different from other mothers that gave birth to a normal child. SE1 recounted her personal struggles and despondency when she first learned of her son's diagnosis with Down's syndrome and recounted how creating 'a place' or 'space' for him in society became her driving force. She narrated:

"I got married, and then I had thought that I will do a masters. But as my son's condition was like this, I did not feel like doing anything anymore. My aim at that time was how to create a place for him in the society. It was the challenge." - SE1, Written Biography

Struggles of a wife and a mother of a disabled child

SE1 explained *"Right from the very beginning I have had to struggle"*. Her own self-narrative of being a mother of a disabled child terminated her interest in pursuing further studies, pursuing a career or even becoming a mother of a second child. She faced several challenges emanating from her daily life and personal well-being including her son's disability, societal disgrace for giving birth to a disabled child, long-term financial costs associated with child-care, unavailability of educational, medical or child-care services, mobility due to husband's job and daily financial expenditure. Her sister, Sister1, who was a retired teacher from a reputed convent school in Calcutta and who worked as a volunteer at Anwesha-The Quest, vehemently expressed the same. She said,

“There were lot of struggles. Life is not that easy. What usually we are expected to get from husband's side, always she didn't get that support financially. These are also factors. And with this special child, really she struggled. That's why sometimes I feel if she would have joined a school or college- that would have been standard earning for her. But she didn't do that for the sake of her child. For sake of her son she didn't want to be mother of a second child, because maybe the second one may not accept this.” - Sister1, Interview

Furthermore, SE1 had known VP1, the vice-president of CS1, for several years. VP1's daughter was also diagnosed of Downs Syndrome at birth. Being mothers of disabled children, VP1 and SE1 shared a friendly relationship, care and understanding for each other, yet, both shared several differences. Unlike SE1, VP1 was also a mother of an older son who was well settled with his family in Germany. VP1 explained, *“I have always have to adjust to the fact that they are abroad, 3.5 hrs behind. So I tend to stay awake. And I teach.”* Furthermore, being married to an economically stable family with a husband who worked for the Indian government, who earned an adequate salary and who received a tidy pension after retirement, VP1 had always enjoyed economic stability and often travelled around the world to see her family or for her vacations. Moreover, being educated herself, VP1 was a retired teacher from one of the most reputed schools in Calcutta. During her free time, she gave private tuition to students. As a result, VP1 never struggled while bringing-up her male-child nor did she face identity struggles.

However, on being interviewed, VP1 could relate to SE1's sufferance and struggles as a mother of a disabled child. She elucidated these psychological and emotional struggles as different overlapping phases of confusion starting from *“denial”*, *“anger”*, *“shock”* as well as *“bonded love”* for her child with every passing day. VP1 also explained that the struggles of a mother with a disabled child was aggravated by the lack of external support systems offered by the government, especially in the eastern part of India, or the infrastructure at large. There was lack of financial aid, legal rules, special schools or employment opportunities for individuals with disabilities.

CS1's ex-president, EVP1, who was a father of a disabled son, expressed that a high level of stigma was attached to disabilities or parents who bore disabled children as the society and the relatives often describe disabled individuals as *“Ah, they are mad. He is mad!”* VP1 highlighted the same explaining that the society showed a very low level of tolerance towards the parents of disabled children.

“Till today in India a special child is a curse- your luck is bad. It is your karma, your last life's karma. So they do not accept it.” - VP1, Interview

These conversations explicated that the birth of a disabled child in a family casted a passive social liability along with an active dialogue that was thought to bring bad karma. The impact of the birth of a disabled child had ramifications that navigated through past and present generations casting a dark long shadow on the family at large. SE1 added to this and explained that at times, even family members react unfavourably to such events. She mentioned,

“One more thing, I have seen here that both parents support the child, but in places I have seen the mother's will support because they have given birth, but fathers won't support. They don't get that support from the father!” - SE1, Oral Narrative

SE1's story unfolds shock and disbelief at the initial phases of motherhood. It took her a few years to accept that neither her son would be able to lead a normal life nor would she be able to lead a normal life as a mother. With every passing day, SE1 realised her increasing love, sympathy and compassion for her disabled son who could not fare well in his studies, yet who grew up to be an obedient child. While fighting her battles of motherhood, facing societal stigma and institutional inadequacies, she realised that her son had a liking and inborn talent towards dancing. At this point, she was keen on cultivating her son's dancing talents by taking him to several dance classes offered by famous Indian classical dance *gurus*. She narrated,

“My son began to grow. He was always a quiet, obedient child. He could not study very much. However I noticed that he had a fascination for music and dance. Whenever any music began to play he began to dance. So I began to teach him dancing.” - SE1, Written Biography

SE1's story gives an account of how an unexpected life-event associated to the birth of her differently-abled son augmented her hardships. She felt helpless while feeling concerned about the quality of care available in India for disabled individuals, her child's future employment opportunities along with other financial pressures. The birth of a disabled son also had societal ramifications as giving birth to an abnormal child was not perceived positively in the Indian society. Accordingly, SE1 was also concerned about her own struggles as a mother of a disabled child. With time, she bravely faced her life's challenges to seek an opportunity out of it.

She endured her life's struggles as she started believing that God had entrusted her with a mission in life. She explained,

“As I watched him grow I thought God must have sent him into my life for some purpose. It was my responsibility to establish him in life, to create place for him in society.” - SE1, Written Biography

Identity work: Establishing son’s identity along with her own

SE1 started gathering the strength and determination to create a place for her only child in the society. She aimed at establishing her son’s identity as an able citizen who contributed to the progress of the society. Sister1, explained that SE1 worked tirelessly and was dedicated in her mission to accomplish a social identity for her son, highlighting how SE1’s self-identity as a mother was informed by closely held beliefs related to the roles, duties and responsibilities of bringing-up an able son. As a result, she never wished to have a second child. Sister1 explained,

"He is the only son. She doesn't have any other issue (i.e. other children). And everything, her everything depends on that child". - Sister1, Interview

SE1 struggled and persisted to work on her identity by working on establishing her son’s identity first. She claimed that she was successful in her mission to establish her son in the society. This happened when her “special” son developed proficiency in Indian classical dances, received invitation to perform in several places and acquired financial rewards, scholarship and awards for his skills. Consequently, while struggling to establish her son, SE1 worked on her own identity and claimed herself as a “successful mother”. In the process, she gained a certain notoriety and societal recognition which brought her a sense of personal success and achievement. She narrated,

“He learnt creative and semi classical styles of dancing. He slowly began to make a name for himself. He performed in various places in Calcutta, New Delhi, Mumbai, Udaipur (Rajasthan), Lucknow and Secundrabad (Andra Pradesh). He was invited to perform in various functions and competitions. News about his proficiency in dance spread and many newspapers and television channels began featuring him and his astounding success. Many famous danseuses like Priti Patel, Mamata Shankar, Alokana Roy, Thanku mani Kutti praised him and his outstanding creativity. So my son became a well-known dancer. The first part of my dream had come true. I was able to establish my special child in society. I was able to successfully overcome the first challenge life had thrown at me. (..)

I, too, was acknowledged as a successful mother. I received many awards from various organizations 'The Aparajito' award from Ananda Bazar Patrika, ' Adwitiya' from Ebela, LIC, also from Calcutta Doordarshan (TV) and AMRI Hospital etc.” - SE1, Written Biography

Once her son became a famous dancer that allowed him social respect and recognition, SE1 could claim her identity as a “successful mother” who would no more be cursed by the society.

Launch of social entrepreneurial venture

It took several years before SE1 realised that she could do the same for other victims of Downs Syndrome. While struggling and fighting her own battles and moving from one city to another due to her husband’s job, SE1 admitted her son in special schools in Lucknow and then in Delhi that trained disabled children. While nurturing her son and working closely with these schools, SE1 gained relevant work-experience in caring, interacting and coaching a group of differently-abled children. She explained,

“In Lucknow and Delhi, my son was in special school. From there also I took some experiences, how to handle the special children. Though I know because my son is special, but to handle so many special children, that thing I got from Lucknow School”. - SE1, Oral Narrative

Furthermore, when SE1’s son became a reputed dancer, earned money and several scholarships and awards, she discovered a social entrepreneurial opportunity that needed attention. Moreover, she explained that the idea of experimentally launching a social entrepreneurial venture dawned on her when several parents of disabled children requested her to launch an initiative. At this point, SE1, who was in search of warm, close connections with other parents suffering from similar struggles and societal discrimination, was convinced and determined to find a solution for the child victims and their mothers. She narrated,

“Actually my son has mental disabilities, I don’t call them handicapped. He is mentally challenged. When I was bringing him up, shaping him for future and trying to create a space for him in the society, I had to fight a lot. And when I was struggling, I thought that if I could fight this battle for my son, why not try to fight this same battle for some more children who are mentally challenged. Because I realised that not all mothers have the capability to fight this battle. I thought to myself that I could show the path to such children and their mothers. So I decided that I will create an organisation where such mentally challenged children can

come and learn something. In the process, I will try to create a respectable space for such children in our society. But this task is extremely difficult. And this is easier said than done” - SE1, Secondary Data

The above verbatim reveals attributes of SE1’s character such as perseverance, vision and leadership qualities, which are similar to an entrepreneur. On this perspective, her sister and one of the parents, who is also the assistant secretary (AS1) of her social enterprise revealed,

“That temperament is there. She alone, she is going and meeting the ministers and all those things. Often I call and she doesn’t have a car, but she is always on the move.” - Sister1, Interview)

“In fact imagine that people at this age, she is just going to Big Bazaar, she just carries all the raw materials from there alone, she just carries that alone! (...). She has spondylosis but still she is carrying all raw materials from Big Bazaar. From there she brings it here for our students. Hats off to these!” – AS1, Interview

VP1, a close friend of SE1 rounded up the story. She explained, that one cannot decide to become a social entrepreneur in one day. It takes several years to make up one’s mind before reaching a point where one becomes driven to launch a social enterprise to benefit others. It was the same for SE1 when she decide to experimentally launch her venture at the age of 49 in the year 2004. She wanted to set an example to help mothers and disabled children not fall in a trap of societal stigma and discrimination. VP1 thus explained,

“Actually you know what happened. She (i.e. SE1) is the one who is the inspiration behind this (i.e. social entrepreneurial venture) because once her son was born, you know, at that time in India, there was very little scope of any sort of thing for special children. So she said that ‘why should not he lead a life like other people’. Then what happened is that she took it as a challenge and she wanted to say that ‘why shouldn’t he be able to do what other children can’. So she saw that what is he (i.e. son) interested in and he was interested in dance. So accordingly, she gave him training in this and then you know, he went a long way. Like, he got a scholarship from the government. She will be able to give you all the details of her son. Long list! He has really achieved a lot. I mean in normal:- what I mean by normal special children don’t normally, they do not achieve the amount he has achieved. So after that she said that “why not let me try and inspire some other people”. She is one, and she had got many awards

for it. She has been recognised for that. Because you know, in the line of special children, this is quite rare.” – (Vice-president, Interview)

The above timeline (Figure 1) and life-story of SE1 highlights that the birth of her son with an unexpected illness was an important life-event that changed the trajectory of her life-path. This life-event triggered several struggles and hardships in her personal and social life. This was followed by her desire to improve the future prospects of her son and by establishing him in the society along with her motivation to create her own identity were pivotal in her decision to start her social entrepreneurial venture. In the process, she found an opportunity to enhance the quality of life of disabled children and their mothers through social entrepreneurship.

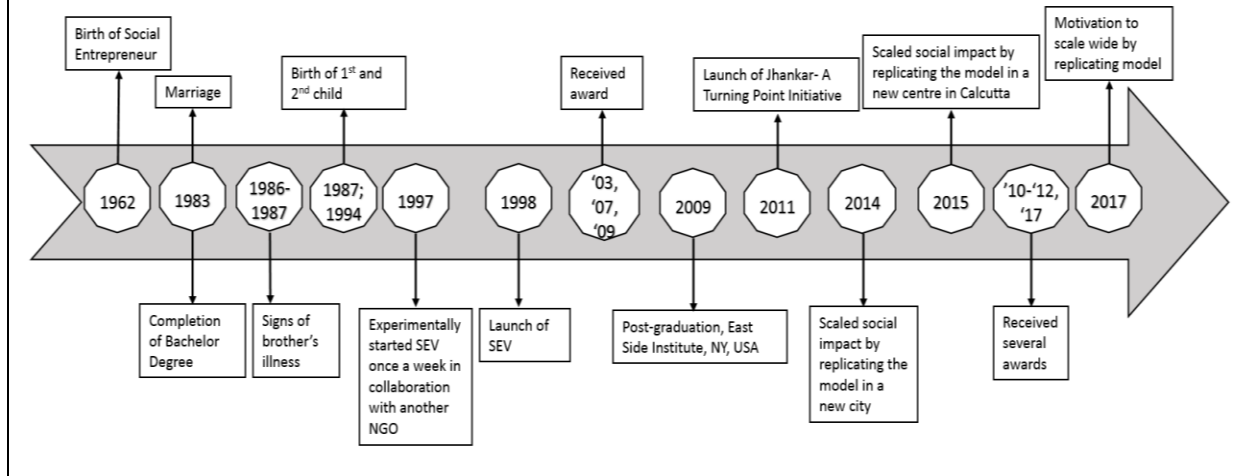
Case Study 2: CS2

Description: In 1997, at the age of 35, SE2 began to provide therapeutic treatments to schizophrenic individuals who were unable to claim a place in the city’s re-habitation center. It all started when she realized that her own brother was experiencing signs of mental illness. She started the organization experimentally by providing coaching and skills training to mentally disabled individuals once a week.

As demand for the coaching and therapy classes increased, SE2 expanded her services from one day a week to seven days a week. A year later (i.e. 1998) she founded and launched her social entrepreneurial venture. Her organization served as a training and rehabilitation center catering specifically to individuals suffering from mental illness. Beneficiaries with sufficient intellectual capacity are trained in computer skills and spoken English. Others, who are severely mentally challenged, can attend vocational training on crafts such as painting, pottery and jewelry-making.

In 2007/2008, SE2 furthered her knowledge in psychology by pursuing a degree in social therapy from New York. She returned to India and in 2011, launched another CS2 initiative. Through this new entrepreneurial initiative of CS2, the founder aimed at transiting advanced level beneficiaries into meaningful employment through entrepreneurship. In 2014 and 2015, SE2 also helped in setting up two new training centers (one in north Calcutta and another in Asansol).

Figure 2: Timeline of SE2



With increasing number of students, she recruited new coaches and business development managers for various activities such as speakers at exhibitions and fashion-shows. She instigated awareness raising programs in schools, corporations and public places. As of 2017, CS2 engaged in various collaborations with retail shops and universities. The social venture was officially endorsed by the WFSAD (World Fellowship for Schizophrenia and Allied Disorder) and her training program was promoted as a model for mental health services in other developing countries. Above, a timeline (figure 2) highlights a sequence of events in the life of SE2.

CS2 Analysis: Brother's sudden illness, personal crisis and craving for an identity

Life-event: Brother's sudden illness

SE2 described her childhood as happy and stress-free. She was “*energetic*”, “*creative*” and “*an avid reader*”, always curious about historical events and the lives of freedom fighters. She described herself as a nature lover and was concerned about recycling daily household waste products. Her father was an IAS (Indian Administrative Services) officer, a premier civil service position in India, suggesting that SE2 originated from a privileged family background.

SE2 described herself as sharing a close bonding with her parents and sibling. Her family members valued education and gaining knowledge. Seeing her mother as a happy and respectful house wife, she realized and accepted this stereotypical role of women in society.

Even though she was being educated by her parents and fared well in her studies, she believed that her future role was to be a happy housewife. SE2 narrated,

“My mother was a house wife and both my parents were almost like the ideal couple. They used to love and respect each other and had interdependence on each other. At that time, career of a woman was not given priority at my home though acquiring knowledge and learning was a must at all homes. I dreamt of a life which should resemble the life of my mother. Being a happy wife was my dream of life and I was very romantic in nature. I was almost in a dream world and expected life would be bed of roses.” - SE2, Written Biography

SE2 completed her bachelor degree in psychology, where she stood second in her cohort. This was immediately followed by her marriage at the age of twenty-one to a railway doctor, whom she had an affair with. Marriage, which was an outcome of a love-affair was uncommon in the society during that time. However, marriage with her husband implied mobility, travelling as well as adjustments to her newly married life from time to time. Even though this hampered her interest in higher education initially, she pursued further studies by completing her master's degree in counselling and psychotherapy. These events, such as marriage to the person of her choice and continuing higher-education after marriage, suggest that SE2 grew up into a modern and confident individual. During this time, while SE2 was juggling between married life, post-graduation, relocations due to her husband's job, her brother's mental health conditions severely deteriorated. She explained,

“I have my own brother who started suffering from Schizophrenia few years after my marriage.” - SE2, Written Biography

Her brother's sudden illness was an important life-event as it uncovered several realities. For instance, at this time, SE2 was exposed to the harsh medical and societal treatment that schizophrenic individuals received in India. By the time her brother was diagnosed of schizophrenia, SE2 was a trained psychologist. She could closely observe the unpleasant realities of mental illness that emanated from societal unawareness and lack of medical research, experimentation and care services. She described her personal annoyance and frustration at how treatment for mental health conditions had not evolved in India. She exclaimed,

“So I visited all the centers that were there in West Bengal. And everywhere they are locked in a particular room. They are given some medicines and they have no life. Even now things have not changed very much. So I thought that when someone is suffering

from Schizophrenia basically they have high IQ. Even if you administer drugs, even if you keep them under supervision, they shouldn't be locked up! They should be doing something, otherwise how would they feel!" - SE2, Oral Narrative

Crisis of an educated woman

After her marriage, SE2 observed the deterioration of her brother's mental health conditions. Her brother's untimely illness was an important life-event that triggered multiple and overlapping frustrations and crisis in her personal life. This sudden life-event enhanced the confusion, distress and marital conflict that her parents showed in their new role. For example, her brother's exclusion from society and other opportunities had resulted in extreme anguish for her family. In the Indian society, a certain amount of stigma was attached to such medical conditions. SE2 explained that family members and the patients are often treated derogatively while the society called them names, saying, *"Oh, they are mad! Oh they cannot do anything!"* Being close to her parents, she could realize their pain and distress as she saw them suffer regularly. The impact of this situation was profound on SE2 as she suffered emotionally and often felt frustrated at her inability to assist her family members. She related,

"Each and every day I used to see my mother crying, my father crying and we were very happy family. And I saw that just an illness is making us totally different and at that point of time it is very difficult to understand each other's problems, understand the person who is suffering and even as a psychologist also at that point of time I used to become emotional. Because I am a family member" - SE2, Oral Narrative

Her sense of frustration in observing her family members experiencing emotional pain was worsened by the feeling that the society denied the potential of people with mental illness or disability. She thought it was unfair to label such individuals as someone lacking apathy or drive. Furthermore, being professionally trained in psychology, counselling and psychotherapy herself, she was surprised at how psychologists, doctors and other educated professionals reacted un-empathically to the situation. Similar to SE1, SE2 wanted to convince the society that individuals suffering from mental health conditions indeed were valuable members of the society,

"When I asked for opinions, many people told me that see it is not possible for them (i.e. patients) to do something positive and so there is no such center. And that became the biggest challenge to me that I want them to do something. I want the world to see that they can perform like all of us." – (SE2, Oral Narrative)

In parallel to her brother's illness SE2 started facing another conflict. She described that after her marriage that was followed by her post-graduation and birth of two children, she was unsatisfied with her personal life. Being a trained psychologist, therapist and counsellor, she had the desire to diminish her brother's and family's sufferance. Thus, SE2 started designing a career project to treat mentally-challenged individuals like her brother. This professional project was different from the practiced medical norms in Calcutta that promoted medicinal treatment or locking up Schizophrenic patients in a room. Moreover, she observed that the existing re-habitation centres made the schizophrenic patients to conduct tasks such as gardening or book-binding. SE2 thought that those tasks were inefficient methods that discouraged the patients who already suffered from a lack of drive and societal deprivation. Thus, her brother's illness made her feel inclined to launch a non-medical therapeutic treatment for such victims. However, her close family members that comprised of her father, mother and husband, initially resisted to her career plan. She explicated that not only external stakeholders, but also her own family members, were against her career objectives who described her career goals as "funny" and waste of "your time and energy". She narrated that her husband and mother would discourage her by saying,

"what you are doing is really funny. No one is doing this. He (i.e. husband) always used to tell me 'No one is doing this and you are doing this'. So if there is any possibility then there should be some center like this. So I think you are wasting your time and energy." - SE2, Oral Narrative

Additionally, *"my mother was having conflict because everyone is telling that nothing can happen. So she was thinking that why I should waste my time and energy when nothing can be changed. So it was almost like a challenge to me."* - SE2, Oral Narrative

Identity Work: Craving for an identity

In addition to being an educated woman, SE2 had to play the role of a wife of a doctor, a mother of two kids, a sister of a brother diagnosed of schizophrenia and a daughter of suffering parents. At this point, being unable to convince her family of her career objectives, SE2 endured the crisis of not being able to create her identity. SE2 situated her brother's illness as an important life-event that triggered her desire to work on creating an identity that later evoked her engagement with social entrepreneurship. She described,

"I failed to gain satisfaction only from my marriage. Probably I was craving to create my own identity and career. Life was not easy too and new challenges of life started peeping

in my life. At this time my brother started suffering from Schizophrenia too.” - SE2, Written Biography

Like her mother, she always wanted to be a happy housewife and never thought of pursuing her own career. Yet, few years after her marriage, she started questioning her personal-identity and career motivations. She emphasized a linkage between her identity and her career-oriented cognitions that resulted in her desire to pursue an occupation that was important to distinguish herself as a capable psychologist. She had to face several obstacles not only from experienced professionals in her field, but also from family members about the career path she wanted to choose. She described herself as “*obstinate*” while trying to work on her identity to establish herself as an educated and successful career woman. As she worked on building her identity which was different from the stereotypical gendered norms, SE2 explained:

“So it was almost like a challenge to me. And I thought that somehow I have to do it. I don't know how, but I have to do it.” She added *“But I am little bit obstinate. If I think of doing something and if I think that I should try, so I tried and of course afterwards, after I have done it for one year, then those psychiatrists who never supported me at the beginning, they started supporting me. Because they have seen the transformation in their patients. So the support came after I have done the program for two or three years.”* - SE2, Oral Narrative

Launch of Social Entrepreneurial Venture

SE2 weaved her experience of her brother’s diagnosis with schizophrenia into her venture startup narrative. Her story reflected that her initial entrepreneurial motivation sprang from her first hand exposure and proximity to human suffering at a particular point in her life. Whether it be due to her family or professional domain, she was acutely aware of serious societal problems that lack adequate solutions. For SE2, a brother who was suddenly diagnosed with schizophrenia later in life, exposed her to the lack of externally provided support for individuals impacted with physical and mental disabilities or illnesses in Calcutta. Her experiences instilled a desire to change things for her loved ones which initially started as an experimental launch of her social entrepreneurial project. She expressed,

“So at that point of time, I thought that I must do something. That is the only thing that came to my mind and we started with another NGO who used to give us the spares and we started experimentally once a week. And within few months we saw that there are lots of changes in their behavior. The quality of life is improving. They are enjoying it. So I thought

that we would extend it to whole week.” She added with a sense of elation, “I started almost experimentally but later on actually World Fellowship for Schizophrenia and Allied Disorder (WFSAD), they accepted this as the model developmental program for all developing countries. They taught it in different countries” - (SE2, Oral Narrative)

The above mentioned desire to benefit others through her social entrepreneurial venture was intricately intertwined with her motivation and personal drive to create her own identity. SE2’s sense of relatedness which she derived from her contact with her suffering family members along with the suffering patients and their families was reframed in to a social entrepreneurial opportunity that could be linked to her desire to persevere and experimentally launch her social entrepreneurial venture. Thus, what started as her motivation to ease the anguish of her parents as well as the suffering of her brother was later combined with her own suffering as an educated woman who was craving to construct her own identity. She expressed,

“I started 20 years back, so at that point of time there were no facilities available apart from in-patient facilities. I thought that I must start it experimentally. That came just because of course from my own urge.” - SE2, Oral Narrative

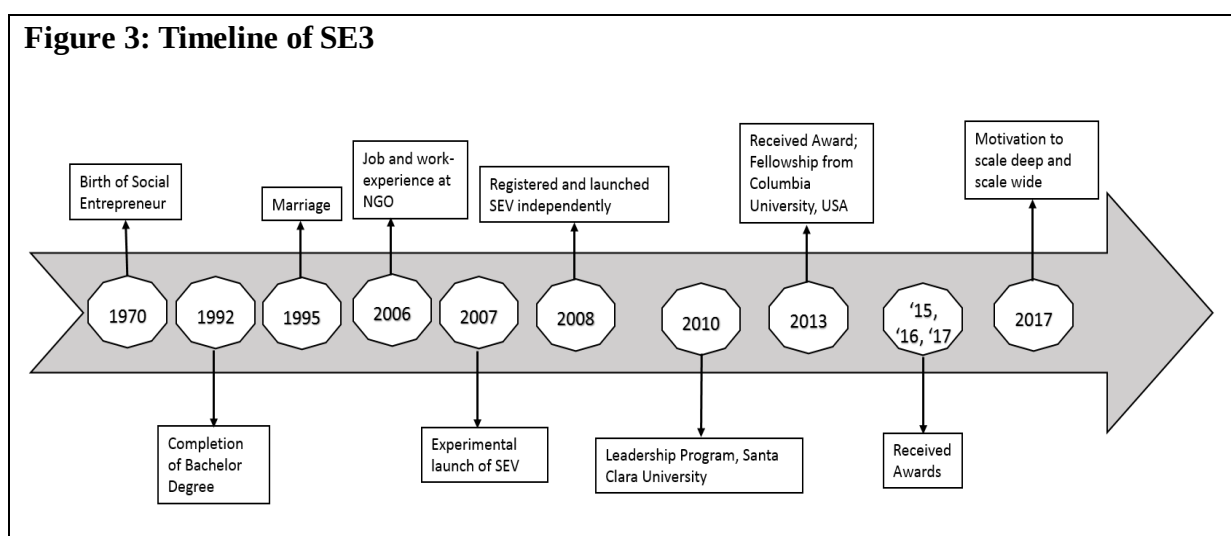
Case Study 3: CS3

Description: After gaining work experience with a non-governmental organization in the human trafficking sector, SE3 experimentally launched her social enterprise in 2007, in the city of Calcutta. While working on the field at her previous job, SE3 realized that, once rescued from trafficking and forced prostitution, young women and child victims as well as children of the victims were at high risk of being re-exploited given their low levels of social capital and lack of family or institutional support. Through her social venture, SE3 not only aimed at rescuing and providing safe shelter for exploited women and children, but also to empower them through skills development and enable them to secure employment opportunities to generate income. With every rescued victim, she starts with providing medical treatment, legal support, followed by literacy and vocational skills training.

During the venture launch stage in 2007, SE3 received financial support from a US based non-profit organization and a family foundation. In 2008, she registered her SEV as an independent body that started running mostly from its own revenues. Today, CS3 runs as a hybrid model and is divided into two working units- the foundation and the business unit. The

foundation is comprised of the social unit with the mission to rescue, train and empower women who have been victims of sexual exploitation and trafficking. The business unit handles market activities, where the beneficiaries learn to use recycled saris, weave or block print on different fabrics to create products such as yoga mats, bags, wallets, scarves and quilts. These products are then marketed and sold by the business unit in various countries across the world. As of 2017, CS3 rehabilitated more than hundred women, economically empowered its beneficiaries by providing training, housing, healthcare, fair wages and medical insurance. The business unit of CS3 employs around 25 full-time women employees who fabricate different products, 5 staff members who help in running the organization and 5 trainers. Many of her beneficiaries originate from neighboring Nepal and Bangladesh. SE3 claimed to spend considerable time collaborating with different foundations, universities and corporate partners across the world. She wishes to expand and develop the business unit and open more training and production centers in the city to integrate more beneficiaries and create a strong network. She also intends to build a transition shelter home for young-adult female survivors. Below, a timeline (figure 3) highlights a sequence of events in the life of SE3.

Figure 3: Timeline of SE3



CS3 Analysis: Work experience, frequent battles and creating an identity

Live-event: Job in the human trafficking sector

SE3 described herself as “*a shy and quiet, observant child*” and recounted her siblings were all “*smarter and brighter than me*”. She liked painting and at one time dreamed of being an artist. SE3 highlighted how personal independence and education were important values

pursued by her and her family members. Being the youngest among the three social entrepreneurs in this study (i.e. 15 years younger than SE1 and 8 years younger than SE2), she grew up under different societal pressures and family expectations. As a result, her upbringing was different from that of SE1 and SE2. She narrated,

“As I grew up, because my mother, she encouraged us all the time to be independent. I was never told that I would get married, and that I would be taken care of by somebody. She would be always encouraging. Actually I grew up in a no pressure environment. (..) But at the same time I was made to understand that independence is important, I have to be independent to be able to take care of myself. (..) They just encouraged me to study and be independent.” - SE3, Written Biography

Ongoing civil unrest in her home town in Assam meant her family had to move to the city of Calcutta. She went on to study business there, a choice very much influenced by peers. Soon after, she looked for employment as she realized that she no longer wished to depend on her ailing father for financial support. She completed a computer training course at night before finding employment as a receptionist at a tea company. She recounted how “surprisingly” she got married the next year which was a result of family persuasion. She got married at twenty-four to her husband whom she knew through her job. She narrated,

“It was a little bit of a family decision, because they saw an eligible groom, and then I also thought it is okay to get married, and that I liked the guy’s personality, a direct approach, what do you call it? (I) gave into the pressure and happily, I won’t say I was very sad, I thought ‘it’s okay, let’s get married’” - SE2, Written Biography

After her marriage, SE3 took a break from her job for a few years. Later, she resumed working for some organizations in different fields. In 2006, SE3 landed up with a job at a non-profit organization that rescued women from forced prostitution and trafficking. Her job was mostly on the field. This resulted in developing close contact, sympathy and compassion for the women whom she trained during her field visits. During one such occasion, she invited one of the victims to stay at her place for a few days. She narrated,

“I came across a victim from Bihar who needed a place to live as she was facing issues with the inmates of the shelter home she was residing at. I brought her to my house and she stayed with me for about 3 days. Later, we found her a better shelter home to live. I remember her waking up early in the morning because of the horrifying experiences she had encountered. In those three days, we exchanged many dialogues and hence, formed an emotional attachment

with one another. While I was somewhere sad for her life situation, I also experienced happiness as I felt content for helping her in the difficult time.” - SE3, Secondary Data

Indeed, SE3’s job in the human trafficking sector could be situated as an important life-event that exposed her to a form of human suffering that she was unaware of. It triggered her interest in engaging herself to solve a social problem faced by women coming from disadvantaged families and vulnerable societies.

Personal and professional battles

SE3’s life story exhibited professional struggles of various forms at her new work environment. After landing up with a job at the non-profit organization in Calcutta, she realized that her work was not easy due to unsupportive work-culture. She expressed her resentment at having to juggle between office politics and unaccommodating colleagues. Her interactions with different stakeholders often made her ponder about the challenging environment she was working in. She described,

“I continued working at that place for several years. Even though I made several good friends there, at the same time I faced a lot of office politics and had to struggle. I was put down because I did not have a social work degree. Being efficient was not always taken very positively. In spite of office politics I continued just because I loved my work. During my tenure there I was put into different capacity from time to time mostly to test my capacity, that was challenging but it helped me learn.” – SE3, Written Biography

SE3 also encountered difficulties while working on the field and visiting victims of sex-trafficking and their children in the red-light district. Her interactions with the women inflicted distress that often gave her grief due to their helpless conditions where their own family even betrayed them. On interviewing the psychological counselor and networking co-ordinator, PC3 who worked at CS3, she expressed the same opinion as SE3. She explained,

“They have to move on, but once they move on we have noticed that often they get lost. Often they get into the same situation again. Because they are very vulnerable. They can't go back to their families because there is that social taboo that is there. So they are kind of, you know they remain in a confused state. But they are working, they are very hard working” - PC3, Interview

Even though SE3 struggled, she realized that while working with the victims on the field, she had ended up creating a bond, a sense of relatedness and compassion for the women

who would wait for her to come and coach them on social, literacy and numerical skills. She explained,

“I felt sick on my frequent visits to the red light area and thought I won’t be back here again, I felt uncomfortable as men would stare at me (..), which was extremely uncomfortable for me which I have never experienced. I accepted a job position to start a program there!! And it was challenging to even spend an hour. I went back home and shared my experience with my family member. Next day confused I would go there again and I saw the women in that area are cooperating as if they understood my discomfort and want to help me!! (..) They would come and walk with me and that made me little comfortable.” - SE3, Written Biography

Furthermore, her professional struggles were compounded by her personal struggles. SE3’s narratives revealed her personal struggles with her family-in law. She described herself as suffering from grief and unhappy feelings realizing that she needed more personal accomplishment, recognition and a sense of worth to feel better about herself, but also to be more positively evaluated by her family-in-law. She stated,

“People looked down upon me. I did not know why I was being compare with other successful (or not) women of my age. If I am suitable to my husband. Being not very beautiful or successful, on several occasions, family members at my in laws asked me what I am good at and I did not know what to answer. I was unhappy and lost confidence totally.” - SE2, Written Biography

The above analysis disclosed that her job had a direct link with her struggles, which was compounded by her grief caused by relatives. This activated a series of overlapping discomfort and events that brought her closer to discovering a social entrepreneurial opportunity.

Identity-work: Creating an identity

Marriage brought some unexpected changes in SE3’s personal life. The period post-marriage accentuated her need to distinguish herself as a capable and independent individual. Even though she had a supportive husband, she explained,

“So I got married and then, it was very tough time. I realized that I was not happy. Not doing anything, not able to do anything I wanted to, and most importantly not knowing what exactly I want to do.” - SE2, Written Biography

SE3 explained that she was searching to achieve something beyond marital bliss. Even though initially, she thought “*it’s ok, let’s get married*” at the age of twenty-four, her personal struggles, specially evoked by members in her new family, made her crave to work and re-create her own identity, a stable career and the independence her mother had cultivated in her since childhood. She expressed,

“(I realized) I can’t be a support to my family and be a completely dependent individual on husband and in-laws and I don’t have any other identity except being someone’s wife and that I don’t have much freedom to take my own decisions.” - SE2, Written Biography

She decided to focus on self-development through education and training. She followed a course on marketing management and invested considerable time in building her professional work experience. In other words, she engaged in identity construction in order to reposition herself that could give herself a sense of distinctiveness. As she started gathering momentum through her job with the non-profit organization, she achieved a sense of identification and sympathy for the women whom she trained during her regular field visits. She expressed that having a positive influence and impact on the behavior and life course of the women in the red-light district made her feel that she was valued by others. She informed,

“They were hot dirty tiny shanty rooms but there would be group of women interested in learning the alphabet everyday - waiting for me to learn and that changed my life!! From that point I think my life changed, after a couple of years of working, I understood that this is where I want to be. And I really loved my work.” - SE2, Written Biography

Launch of Social Entrepreneurial Venture

Finding a job in the human trafficking sector was an important event and pivotal towards her choice in continuing to work in this area. Moreover, SE3’s work experience facilitated a sense of connectedness with the suffering of the women in the red light district. There she realized that the women’s vulnerability was a result of their low self-esteem, but also how beyond rescue efforts, local authorities were doing little to help these women build sustainable futures once they had been removed from their immediate situation of exploitation. Her personal drive towards self-independence, a desire to construct her own identity and work to solve social causes were the key motivations during the initial start—up phase. Eventually, she engaged in launching her social entrepreneurial venture. She explained,

“I got exposed to NGO work and got involved initially as a volunteer. For the first time I got to learn about human trafficking visited red light area and much later shelter home. I became very curious and took serious interest in that work.” – SE2, Written Biography

With time, she gathered a sense of obligation or feeling that she ‘*had to do*’ something for the victims who were quietly enduring pain, violence and exploitation. This was triggered by her realization that existing NGO efforts (in which she participated) rescued the women from their tragic situations but often did little to give them increased employment opportunities to help them avoid prostitution in the future. Here, she spotted an important gap and recognized a social entrepreneurial opportunity. She was attracted to meet this unmet need and create a social change. She questioned herself,

“It strikes me. Where do the rescued girls go after they are 18 and out of a shelter home? What kind of work they do? Who guides them? Who trains them? Women in the brothel are not here by choice. They have been forced in the past and what is their way out?” - SE2, Oral Narrative

These unanswered questions finally led SE3 to discover an entrepreneurial opportunity. She launched her social entrepreneurial venture and offered employment opportunities that attempted to empower women and children who had experienced trafficking. She narrated her drive for equality,

“I wanted to do something where I could improve people’s lives and add to their well-being and that I have seen inequality at all level which bothered me a lot.” - SE2, Secondary Data

SE3 exhibited a motivation to help others through self-help. Her desire to search and create her own identity was one of the reasons which extended beyond helping her beneficiaries by raising a concern about how the unprivileged feel or how they should be treated. Thus, she started her venture to shape the actions of people while liberating herself and the victims.

Moreover, SE3 could relate to her past experiences with the victims as their sufferance often emanated from helplessness, lack of self-confidence and unsupportive family and institutional context. Once SE3 started gaining back her self-esteem through personal development and employment opportunities, she was determined to benefit others while also benefitting herself through gaining complete self-identity and independence. She explicated,

“Despite being educated myself I often faced inequality and suffered from low self-esteem. But there was a fire inside me to bring about social change, and while seeking my own independence I found the strength to dream and start Destiny” - SE3, Secondary Data

5. Discussion

This study draws on the literature on social entrepreneurial motivations and benefits from the application of life-course perspective and identity-work. It engages in a theory building approach to explore how and under what conditions women are motivated in founding and establishing their social entrepreneurial venture. A structural analysis of the narrative material revealed key themes and sub-themes that allowed the development of our interpretation. This further explained how the sequence of events fitted together to highlight common themes and patterns in the overall story of the three cases in our study, which has been explained below.

Precedent Common Themes

The three women in our study were approximately 7.5 years apart in terms of their age. Each of them originated from an affluent middle-class Hindu Bengali family which revealed the context and their group membership to the same class, religion and community (Turner, 1975). All the women claimed to share a cordial relationship with their family members, such as their parents and siblings, and were educated. Education had an important role to play in the lives of the women as education offers the knowledge, skills and attitudes such as autonomy, competence or self-determination (Murcia *et al*, 2009) to critically analyse and deal with problems of contemporary life (Tyler, 2013). Moreover, they experienced a smooth and happy childhood and none of their stories revealed any form of gender discrimination faced by them during their childhood phase. However, SE2 and SE3 did reveal that based on the gendered norms of the society, they had almost none or very limited career motivation while growing up. While education was important, the parents did not encourage them to pursue a future career. The timeline of their personal life also highlighted that all of them were married at a young age, that is, 22yrs for SE1, 21yrs for SE2 and 24yrs for SE3. However, interestingly, their marriage was not a traditional Indian marriage arranged by family-members. Rather, they knew their fiancé before-hand. This suggests that all the three women in our study had a strong character and defied the accepted norm of the Hindu Bengali society during their time.

Life-event

A significant life-event is described as an event that could trigger a substantial change in the direction and life-course of an individual's life. Transitions of such form may have life-long implications that might shape later events and experiences (Elder *et al*, 2003). The narrative accounts of all the three women social entrepreneurs in our study unveiled an important life-event that initiated certain changes in each of their life. For SE1, the birth of a disabled son was an unexpected life-event that forced her in choosing a different life-style. For SE2, her sibling's sudden illness was the cause of extreme anguish in her family that influenced her in making some life choices. For SE3, landing up with a job in the human trafficking sector was a significant event that influenced her life-trajectory.

Furthermore, each of their significant life-event exposed them to closely experience a social cause that they later got involved with. For SE1, her son's disability unwrapped the opportunity for her to earn the experience of taking care of children with disabilities. SE2 was exposed to the harsh realities of schizophrenia through her brother's illness as well as through her education in psychology and counselling. SE3's up-close interaction with the victims of sex trafficking at her job provided her knowledge and skills to deal with such an issue. Thus, life-event had a profound influence on the women and exposed them to a social cause that attracted their attention.

Struggles

A critical analysis of the lives of the three main characters in our study also highlighted the key theme of struggle. However, for all the cases, the struggles were of two forms. The first form of struggle was directly linked to the life-event. The second form of struggle was not directly linked to the life-event. For example, SE1's struggle was a direct outcome of the birth of her son that implied social stigma, lack of support or childcare facilities for her disabled child, inadequate employment opportunities in future and her inability to pursue higher studies and a career for the same. This was compounded by financial struggles due to her marriage in an ordinary family, which was not directly linked to the life-event. Similarly, for SE2, increasing tensions in her family, exclusion of her brother from social and institutional opportunities, lack of care or treatment facilities and social stigma inflicted her emotional pain was a direct outcome for her brother's schizophrenic conditions. These struggles were heightened when her family members resisted to her career motivations, thus a reason for struggle that was not directly linked to the life-event. For SE3, she struggled to work at the red-

light district as she found it extremely uncomfortable while she faced a hostile organisational environment. She also struggled as she failed to appease her family-in-law who thought she was good at nothing. Thus, while the former cause of struggle was directly linked, the later was not directly linked to the life-event.

Identity Search

Through their narratives, a very important theme that stood out was their interest in creating their own identity as they wanted to be perceived more respectfully by the world. Gendered aspects played a key role that influenced them to work on their identity. As SE1 wanted to establish her disabled son as a citizen who contributes to the welfare of the society, she started working on her maternal identity to be perceived as a “*successful mother*”. Being educated, SE2 worked on her identity to be perceived as a woman with a career. Similarly, SE3 worked on her identity to be perceived as a woman who is good at something. Thus, the struggles, challenges and hardships that they endured ushered agentic tactics that drove them to work on identity building.

Founding and Establishment of Social Entrepreneurial Venture

Challenges of a serious nature are some critical drivers of entrepreneurship. A negative personal circumstance, such as a traumatic experience, challenging life event, hostile situation or an enduring hardship of a cognitive or emotional nature may play an influential role in motivating individuals in becoming effective entrepreneurs (Miller and Le-Breton Miller, 2017). What drives ‘social’ entrepreneurship then? Our findings suggest that a life-event related to a complex social problem such as lack of healthcare, inadequate employment facilities or social stigma associated to disabled children, schizophrenic individuals and victims of sexual trafficking as well as the context are important drivers of ‘social’ entrepreneurship. Moreover, given that women are more pro-social and pro-community oriented by nature (Brush, 1992; Carter *et al*, 2003; Eagly, 2009; Zelenzy *et al*, 2000), such social issues attract the attention of women more than men under a similar context. This was also the case of the three women in our study.

Additionally, being overlooked or marginalized by the social environment can harm one’s sense of identity (Bourdieu, 1977). This manifests into a sense of having to struggle with a larger effort than others who achieve similar objectives with minimal effort (Miller and Le-Breton Miller, 2017). Such hardships convert into emotional, mental and physical suffering. In order to cope with friends, individuals of the opposite sex and the society populated with more

able people, individuals suffer from personal struggles or endure hardship. Such struggles confront uncertainties that make them question how they can lead a normal and respectful life. Similar was the case of the three characters in our study who were craving and searching for an identity as they realised that they were not being valued. Search for an identity became the primary motivation of the women social entrepreneurs that lead them to found their social entrepreneurial venture.

It is also important to note that individuals who suffer from pain or hardship could emerge to be more persistent, more willing to accept challenges or cope with failures than others who have achieved goals with minimal effort (Haynie and Shepherd, 2011). They end up doing things differently (De Clercq and Honig, 2011), such as by drawing on innovation, bricolage (Baker and Nelson, 2004) and by being creative (Miller and Le-Breton Miller, 2017). In our study this was the case of all the three women where they all experimentally launched their social business plans without the fear of failure. Once the experimental phase was successful, within one to five years, SE1, SE2 and SE3, legally launched and established their social entrepreneurial ventures.

6. Conclusion

Verbal and written narrative accounts of three women social entrepreneurs based in the city of Calcutta, in eastern India along with interview transcripts of relevant organisational members and secondary data had been employed to theorize the reasons and motivations of women behind the launch and establishment of their social entrepreneurial venture. The findings of our study highlighted several contributions. First, scholars have argued that entrepreneurship (Seiger *et al*, 2016), and especially social entrepreneurship could profit from the theory on identity (Wry and York, 2017), yet very little work has explored this link. Our findings suggest that an unexpected life-event stimulated substantial challenges in the life-course of SE1, SE2 and SE3. To overcome their struggles, the women galvanised identity work that required departure from prevailing conventions and cultural norms. Thus, they re-constructed their own identity through enacting social entrepreneurship. In the process, our study benefitted from the application of life-course perspective and linked identity work to social entrepreneurship and eventually contributed to the literature on social entrepreneurship, life-course perspective and identity-work.

Second, some research evidence indicates that the process of social entrepreneurship is gendered. Yet, little theorizing investigates the gendered aspect of social entrepreneurship. This omission is surprising as growing research evidences show that women are playing a leading role in social movement, and more broadly in social entrepreneurship (Grimes *et al*, 2018; Hechavarria *et al*, 2012). By focusing attention on this issue, this paper contributes by revealing that the adoption and start-up of their social entrepreneurial venture was a medium through which the women in our study enacted identity work and identity construction. For example, the gendered nature of their life chapters were embedded into a broader social context that constructed and influenced their experiences as a daughter, wife, daughter-in-law, sister or mother. The social ascription of gender imposed and constructed by the broader Indian Hindu Bengali society constructed the way the women were influenced to make meaning of their lives and experiences, which they later re-constructed and re-positioned through identity work.

Third, it is particularly fruitful to study narrative construction of identity issues in entrepreneurship (Gartner, 2007, 2010; Johansson, 2004; Zilber, Tuval-Mashiach and Lieblich, 2008), yet this area has not received its due attention in entrepreneurship research (Downing, 2005). Moreover, as narrative accounts reflect a plot that reveals identity issues in entrepreneurship along with the actors' activities that are considered as part of their life-course (Downing, 2005; Foss, 2004; Johansson, 2004), they serve as a basis for identity creation through speech acts and story-telling about the narrator's life (Bruner, 1990; Czarniawska, 1997). Thus, even though there is a growing interest and increasing role of applying narrative approaches to study entrepreneurship (Gartner, 2007, 2010), especially female entrepreneurial identity as a narrative construction (Bjursell and Melin, 2011; García and Welter, 2013; Hamilton, 2006, 2014; Hytti, 2003), ours is an addition to this call for research from a social entrepreneurial context.

Fourth, according to narrative psychologists, context is regarded as an important aspect towards understanding life-stories. Context is also vital in understanding and interpreting identity stories, yet, context has not been examined enough as the literature on narratives emphasizes more on textual data and less on the context (Zilber, Tuval-Mashiach and Lieblich, 2008). In our study, the rich plot of a Hindu Bengali Indian social and cultural society emphasized a rich context where women face heightened liabilities and legitimacy challenges associated to gender-bias, gender-stereotypes and gender discrimination mounted up by patriarchal forces and institutionalized segregation (Datta and Gailey, 2012). It was thus interesting to discover how social entrepreneurship became a means of overcoming such

gender-discrimination and liabilities through SE1, SE2 and SE3's identity work. Moreover, highlighting the salience of gender and context, our study tracks this move from being a wife, mother or home-maker to a social entrepreneur.

Fifth, current research also states that the literature on social entrepreneurial motivations remains undertheorized (Bacq and Alt, 2018; Miller *et al*, 2012; Ruskin *et al*, 2016; Saebi *et al*, 2019; Yitshaki and Kropp, 2016). We believe our theorizing makes an important contribution to the social entrepreneurial motivations literature by adding the new dimension of 'creating an identity' as the main motivational antecedent to social entrepreneurship of the women in our study. Even though previous research highlighted that women have prosocial values that attract them to social entrepreneurship (Hechavarria *et al*, 2012), our study offers a deeper understanding and takes a contrary stance to previous research findings. Instead of positioning prosocial motivation as the primary motivation behind social entrepreneurship, our creating their own identity was revealed as the primary motivation that influenced the women to launch their social ventures to pursue social change.

Lastly, our findings also make a contribution to policy and practice, by identifying that women are not only pro-social and other-oriented, but also self-oriented enough to attract capital investment in order to strategize, work-hard and scale up their social ventures. Hence, as investors or donors have biased views about female entrepreneurs (Dimitriadis *et al*, 2017) it is high time to give serious acknowledgement to women owned social businesses. Moreover, for several women, social entrepreneurship could be a mechanism to gain self-identity, emancipation or financial empowerment. Thus, government, policy and educational institutions must provide tools to support women and minorities in this journey. Thus, we conclude by highlighting our contributions to existing scholarship on social entrepreneurial motivations, life-course and identity work, as well as strategic implications for policy and practice.

There are several limitations in our study. Given that India is a developing country that ranks low in the gender gap index, it is difficult to assume that our results will be valid in other countries or other contexts which are closer to gender parity. Nevertheless, globally there still remains an average 32% gender gap to close (World Economic Forum, 2018). This gives us some confidence that our results are useful in a global context. Moreover, since our research is mainly based on narrative accounts of the three women social entrepreneurs, we admit that narrative approaches surface tensions and maybe be prone to bias (Dhunpath, 2000; McKenzie,

2007; Myers, 2013) as narrators could have a tendency to knit favourable episodes by “flattening”, “sharpening” or “rationalizing” different parts of their stories (Gartner, 2007). This is also a reason why we purposely sampled social entrepreneurs whose social ventures were at least 10 years old. This maximized our chances to verify the narrative accounts using interviews of organisational members and secondary data. It must also be highlighted that interpreting identity construction through narrative accounts can offer glimpses of entrepreneurial processes, which are dynamic and constantly evolving (Warren, 2004; Foss, 2004). Hence, as for future work, we would call for a longitudinal study to gain a nuanced understanding whether identity is constructed and re-constructed during different phases of entrepreneurship (Zilber *et al*, 2008).

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Conclusion

1. Introduction

Research on social entrepreneurship has been on the rise. The last few years have witnessed considerable interest of scholars in positioning the literature around social entrepreneurship. My research interest lies at the intersection of entrepreneurship, strategy, social responsibility and ethics. Through my thesis, I addressed different processes of social entrepreneurship that occur at the macro-level, meso-level and micro level. At the macro-level, I have looked at threshold level macro-environmental determinants of social entrepreneurial process as well as social, institutional and cultural contexts that affect social entrepreneurship. At the meso-level, my research interest circumscribes hybrid organizing from a strategic management and governance perspective. Here, I have looked at transaction cost economics theory, governance structures and institutional logics that explain why hybridity should be adopted by social entrepreneurs. Similarly, I have looked at the strategic importance of crowdfunding campaigns for social entrepreneurial ventures. At the micro-level, my research agenda focused on examining social entrepreneurial motivations and the motivation of a dispersed crowd to contribute for a social cause through crowdfunding. In this context, I am continuing to study the underlying literature that explains motivations such as intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, prosocial motivation, self-oriented motivation and other-oriented motivation. Additionally, I have been investigating these issues from a developing country perspective as well as developed country perspective where I have been collecting data from India, France and Norway, among others. The above investigations and analysis are drawn from field-visits, in-depth interactions through narratives and interviews of social entrepreneurs and other relevant stakeholders. Additionally, my studies utilize quantitative methods where I have designed surveys, collected data through various techniques and built databases from different sources.

2. My Dissertation

My dissertation is composed of four papers. The first paper of my dissertation empirically investigates the macro-level determinants of economic, cultural-cognitive and socio-political contexts that either stimulate or impede social entrepreneurial activities (SEA) across a range of 53 countries. The study makes theoretical and practical contributions by proposing that, in addition to the existence of certain institutional voids and BOP markets related to weak governance, unpredictable GDP, wealth disparity and lack of personal freedom, a minimum threshold level of economic, cultural or socio-political infrastructure is often necessary in a country for an unstinted amount of SEA to occur.

The second paper of thesis is a qualitative paper that investigates hybrid organizing from a strategic management perspective. The paper takes a contrary stance to the criticisms that hybrid organizing has faced due to conflicting institutional logics, tensions related to their dual identity, higher agency costs and mission drift. Through a qualitative inquiry and an abductive analysis, the paper captures the advantages of hybrid organizing in social entrepreneurship. It explains that hybridity offers stability, sustainability and efficiency of the organizational model in the face of depleting financial resources offered through philanthropy, government bodies and private institutions. This paper has been published in the *International Review of Entrepreneurship*.

The third paper of my dissertation examines how social entrepreneurial ventures could capture the benefits of crowdfunding as an alternative to traditional sources for raising capital. Although very little empirical work has been conducted at the intersection of social entrepreneurship and crowdfunding, recent studies show that people are willing to contribute to social entrepreneurial ventures. The purpose of this study is to better understand the motivations of these individuals who are willing to contribute to social entrepreneurial ventures through crowdfunding. The study draws on self-leadership theory to propose that prosocial motivation of individuals mediates the positive relation between natural rewards and individuals' willingness to contribute. The model also explains that prosocial motivation suppresses the negative relationship between material rewards and individuals' willingness to financially contribute to social entrepreneurial projects.

Last but not least, the fourth paper of my dissertation contributes by addressing the gendered nature of social entrepreneurship, an area that has received less research attention. The study focusses on the integral role that women play in pro-social and pro-environmental

activities by engaging in social entrepreneurship. By addressing this prior omission in the social entrepreneurship literature, this study highlights how a significant life-event triggered identity processes and identity work that shaped the motivation of the female social entrepreneurs to engage in social entrepreneurship. Drawing on the literature on life-course perspective and social entrepreneurial motivations, we argue that a complete understanding of how and under what conditions women engage in social entrepreneurship benefits from the application of identity-work. Through analysis of narrative accounts, interviews and secondary data, this study highlighted that identity creation was the primary motivation of the women that influenced them to adopt social entrepreneurship. Thus, the launch and establishment of their social ventures was a medium that helped them in enacting identity work and identity construction.

3. Other Research Interests

Apart from the research areas mentioned above, I have also been taking significant research interest in the area of social entrepreneurship education. In this area, I have published a paper in *Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy* in 2018. In 2019, another paper on social entrepreneurship education that explains how hybrid organizing should be taught in business schools has been published in the journal of *International Review of Entrepreneurship*. I have also published case studies in the area of social entrepreneurship and international expansion strategies of start-ups embedded in the French fashion business sector.

4. Future Work

For the years to come, I intend to investigate other dimensions of social entrepreneurship by drawing on different theoretical arguments as well as from other disciplines that have implications for entrepreneurship and strategy. For example, I am interested to advance work on social entrepreneurship incubators, bricolage, jugaad innovation, blended value and critical aspects on social entrepreneurship. I believe that my desire to continue to explore the above mentioned areas will make significant contributions, fill important research gaps and offer insights that will enable researchers to advance understanding and extend scholarship in the topic of social entrepreneurship. Additionally, through my research, I also wish to create an impact in businesses and society that will allow

practitioners to create more hybrid ‘social’ entrepreneurial ventures that would pursue financial objectives along with a social mission.

5. Conclusion

My research project and the findings from my studies have highlighted that the philosophy behind social entrepreneurship is powerful and its strategic implications can cause a positive transformation among businesses and in the society. The distinguished features of this phenomenon can create a change of mind-sets and work practices. It is this that I aimed to study and find truth through deduction or (re-)generate theory through induction (and abduction). This is the fundamental reason why I chose this topic as the main focus of my PhD thesis. My passion for this topic instigates me to continue working in this area in order to actively participate in this phenomenon, create impact and distribute knowledge.

To conclude, social entrepreneurship has considerably attracted the attention of scholars and different stakeholders such as educators, investors and government institutions. Social entrepreneurial ventures primarily pursue social and/or environmental objectives through commercial activities and by utilizing a wide range of resources. Over the last few years, the field has witnessed an abundance of theoretical, conceptual and empirical papers that have made social entrepreneurship navigate from a nascent stage of development to an area of rapid growth with a surge of research output. Despite this development and growth of this field, there is lack of a complete understanding of the process of social entrepreneurship. My PhD research contributed by shedding light on the multi-level nature of social entrepreneurial process by examining how the social entrepreneurial process manifests at the macro-level, meso-level and micro-level. The four chapters of my dissertation drew on theory from the field of management, as well as outside management, such as psychology, to investigate the different dynamics of social entrepreneurship, through induction, deduction and abduction.

The first chapter of my thesis drew data from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2015 report and contributed by examining the external environmental factors that stimulate or impede social entrepreneurial activity at the macro-level (i.e. macro-level process). The second chapter of my thesis is a qualitative study that focused on the structure of hybrid organizing (i.e. meso-level process). The current literature on hybrid organizing in social entrepreneurship highlights the different tensions evoked by this structure. In this chapter, my research took an

abductive approach that allowed the deviation from this current discourse. The study took a contrary stance and explored two main advantages of hybrid organizing in social entrepreneurship. The third chapter of my thesis is a quantitative inquiry that primarily investigated crowdfunding (i.e. meso-level process) as a strategic alternative to the fund raising process for social entrepreneurial ventures. The fourth chapter of my thesis primarily explored the motivation of women social entrepreneurs (i.e. micro-level process), thus teasing out the reason why women, more often than men, are motivated to engage in social entrepreneurial processes. The findings from the above studies not only generate a deeper theoretical understanding of this field, but also contributed by suggesting that social entrepreneurship is a unique and complex multi-level process that is rare yet constantly growing.



Thank- You