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**UNDERSTANDING SOCIAL ENTERPRISE PERFORMANCE  
IN PAKISTAN: ROLE OF BRICOLAGE BEHAVIOR, SOCIAL  
CAPITAL AND SOCIAL INNOVATION**



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**UNDERSTANDING SOCIAL ENTERPRISE PERFORMANCE IN PAKISTAN:  
ROLE OF BRICOLAGE BEHAVIOR, SOCIAL CAPITAL AND SOCIAL  
INNOVATION**



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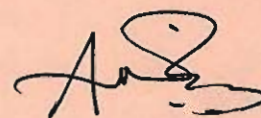
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## ABSTRACT

The dual pursuit of social and financial performance goals poses unique challenges for social enterprises to address the pressing societal problems. While resources and capabilities have been highlighted as important variables to perform in the existing studies, this issue has largely been under-researched in the field of social entrepreneurship. This study sets out to contribute to the understanding of social enterprise performance in an extremely resource-constrained context of the base of pyramid market. Drawing upon the radical view of resource-based theory, this study examines the role of social innovation in mediating the effects of bricolage behavior and social capital on social enterprise performance (scaling of social impact and financial performance). A total of 131 social ventures from different provinces of Pakistan participated in this study. Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling techniques were used to test the study hypotheses. The findings supported the hypothesized direct effects of bricolage behavior and social capital on social innovation. In addition, the findings also supported the direct effect of social innovation on social enterprise performance (scaling of social impact and financial performance). Furthermore, social innovation had mediated the relationship between bricolage behavior and social enterprise performance and social capital and social enterprise performance. In order to achieve the dual performance objectives (scaling of social impact and financial performance), the social enterprises should focus on building upon the resource mobilization strategies of bricolage behavior and social capital as relevant capabilities and resources through the introduction of socially innovative solutions to tackle the societal problems at large which is crucial for the overall wellbeing of the multiple stakeholders. Theoretical and practical implications, along with study limitations and future recommendations, are also discussed.

**Keywords:** Bricolage behavior, Social capital, Social innovation, Social impact, Social enterprises.

## ABSTRAK

Usaha ke arah mencapai dua matlamat iaitu prestasi sosial dan kewangan memberikan cabaran unik bagi perusahaan sosial untuk menangani masalah yang membelenggu masyarakat. Walaupun sumber dan keupayaan diketengahkan sebagai pemboleh ubah penting untuk dilaksanakan dalam kajian sedia ada, sebahagian besar isu ini kurang dikaji dalam bidang keusahawanan sosial. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk menyumbang kepada pemahaman terhadap prestasi perusahaan sosial berdasarkan keadaan sumber yang amat terhad dalam konteks piramid pasaran. Merujuk kepada pandangan radikal teori berasaskan sumber, kajian ini menyelidik peranan inovasi sosial sebagai pengantara kesan gelagat kebolehan upaya dan modal sosial terhadap prestasi perusahaan sosial (skala kesan sosial dan prestasi kewangan). Sejumlah 131 pengusaha sosial dari pelbagai wilayah di Pakistan terlibat dalam kajian ini. Teknik Pemodelan Persamaan Berstruktur Kuasa Dua Terkecil Separa digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis kajian. Dapatan kajian menyokong hipotesis kesan langsung gelagat kebolehan upaya dan modal sosial dalam inovasi sosial. Di samping itu, dapatan juga menyokong kesan langsung inovasi sosial terhadap prestasi perusahaan sosial (skala kesan sosial dan prestasi kewangan). Tambahan lagi, inovasi sosial telah menjadi pengantara bagi hubungan antara gelagat kebolehan upaya dan prestasi perusahaan sosial, serta hubungan antara modal sosial dan prestasi perusahaan sosial. Bagi mencapai objektif prestasi dual (skala kesan sosial dan prestasi kewangan), perusahaan sosial perlu memberi tumpuan kepada pembinaan strategi penggerak sumber kepada gelagat kebolehan upaya dan modal sosial sebagai keupayaan dan sumber dan yang relevan melalui pengenalan penyelesaian inovatif sosial bagi menangani masalah masyarakat dan kesejahteraan pelbagai pemegang kepentingan secara menyeluruh. Implikasi teoretikal dan praktikal, batasan kajian dan cadangan kajian akan datang juga dibincangkan.

**Kata kunci:** gelagat kebolehan upaya, modal sosial, inovasi sosial, kesan sosial, perusahaan sosial.



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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

UN	United Nations
BOP	Base of Pyramid/Bottom of Pyramid
SE	Social enterprises
SMEs	Small and medium enterprises
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
CSE	Center for social entrepreneurship
SDPI	Social Development Policy Institute
NGOs	Non-governmental organizations
RBT	Resource Based Theory
NPO	Non-profit organization
ADB	Asian Development Bank



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of the Study**

The ever-increasing void between haves and have-nots has never been as alarming as it is now, raising a question mark on the man-made market economy with a complete focus on the profit maximization as a bottom line. The quest for sustainable solutions to the most pressing problems of the society for inclusive economies and curtailing poverty is the most important dilemma for most of the developing and under developed countries. Even national and international institutions seem helpless here with the evident inability to meet the Millennium Development Goals set by the United Nations for all 189 UN member states in 2000 to be achieved by 2015 (United Nations, 2018). These were then superseded by sustainable development goals in 2015 unveiling the failure to eradicate poverty, hunger, environmental degradation, illiteracy, disease and discrimination against women.

Entrepreneurship and innovation are indispensable additives in order to cutback poverty (Linaa, 2013; Pathak, 2008). But there has been a recent shift of the spotlight from the traditional profit maximization enterprises to the ones having a double rather triple bottom line, by bringing in the impact of the business activities on the society and the environment, in the radar as well. There has been a surge in the demand for innovative financially sustainable businesses with a focus on the unmet social and environmental needs addressing market, government and not for profit organizations failures (Doherty, Haugh, & Lyon, 2014; Goyal, Sergi, & Jaiswal, 2015; Hurst, 2016; Pless, 2012; C. K. Prahalad, 2005).

This market failure involves doing business in the huge informal economy at the bottom of the pyramid (BOP) also known as base of the pyramid i.e. almost the four billion people (Winn & Kirchgeorg, 2014) living mostly in developing countries. This BOP market lives with almost less than \$2 a day (Ansari, Munir, & Gregg, 2012) or less than \$3000 a year purchasing power parity, making global poverty the top most challenge of this era (Bocken, Fil, & Prabhu, 2016; Guesalaga & Marshall, 2008; Hammond, Kramer, Katz, Tran, & Walker, 2007; London & Hart, 2004; Mair & Lanuza, 2007).

Pakistan is characterized by the presence of a huge BOP population i.e. almost 60 million with an impoverished performance on the key social indicator like healthcare (Shaikh, 2017) and education (Bouri, 2015). According to the economic survey of Pakistan 2018-2019, 4 out of 10 Pakistanis are living under multidimensional poverty comprising 39% of the population which faces deprivation of health, education and basic standard of living (Economic Adviser's Wing, 2019). This burden can be shifted to the shoulders of volatile political situation since its inception and capricious economic growth oscillating between pro-poor and anti-poor, emanating poverty and inequality during different eras (I. Ali, Barrientos, Saboor, Khan, & Nelson, 2016).

There is an observed growing trend of social entrepreneurship in Pakistan since the last couple of years through active participation of its unprecedented youth bulge i.e. 64% (Shah & Shubhisham, 2012; Yasir et al., 2016). It is believed that young people are interested in creating social ventures more as compared to old people (Leadbeater, 2007). However, this sector is still budding and nascent in Pakistan (B. Ali & Darko,

2015; Asif, Asghar, Younis, Mahmood, & Wang, 2018). Despite its rich history worldwide, the specific term of “social enterprise” is almost two decades old in Pakistan that could be traced back to the entry of Ashoka in Pakistan in 1997, the largest global social entrepreneurial network (M. M. Ahmed, Khalid, Lynch, & Darko, 2016). Due to the absence of any legislation for social enterprises so far, they are treated among either not for profit organizations or small and medium enterprises (SMEs). These social ventures are considered crucial to address the alarming issues of poverty and unemployment (Syed, Ahmadani, Shaikh, & Shaikh, 2012) and play its role in economic growth and development (State Bank of Pakistan, 2014).

Social enterprises (also known as impact enterprises) are the businesses which are working with the mission of generating a positive social or environmental impact through financial viability and sustainability (Bouri, 2015). Social enterprises are believed to play a significant role in the achievement of sustainable development goals (Littlewood & Holt, 2018a; Social Enterprise UK, British Council, & World Bank Group, 2015). Therefore, in an effort to harmonize its efforts with sustainable development goals, Pakistan has recently officially identified the importance of SEs in the inclusive growth and development through economic empowerment and innovation for unserved BOP market, by developing a center for social entrepreneurship (CSE) under the ministry of planning development and reforms. Nonetheless, despite its description as a promising area, the dominant challenges it faces as pinpointed by the Social Development Policy Institute (SDPI) recently, is limited social enterprise performance measurement along with others (Yasir et al., 2016).

The economic recession in the last decade has paved a path for the governments globally to cut down grants and disbursements (Z. U. Ahmed, Zgheib, Carraher, & Kowatly, 2013) and welcomed social entrepreneurship all over the world (Boschee, 1998; Zeyen et al., 2013) including Pakistan as well. Previously, a number of social enterprises in Pakistan used to depend on the grants and donations predominantly due to the prevalence of philanthropic culture in the society (Bouri, 2015). However, the recent limitations imposed by the government to scrutinize the sources of funding of local and international NGOs, as part of their National Action plan to counter terrorism and money laundering (News Desk, 2019), has put many NGOs to halt. Now most of them are interested in becoming self-reliant to address the weaknesses of short-sightedness and unsustainability associated with the existing system of social impact (M. M. Ahmed et al., 2016; B. Ali & Darko, 2015). These circumstances have prepared the grounds for non-profit organizations to seek relief in social enterprise business models by generating revenues and thereby not depending solely on funds and donations anymore. This domestic demand is complemented by the push of international donors, who also like to support entrepreneurial ventures with a social mindset i.e. hybrid organizations, particularly by allocating a sizeable chunk of their resources in the form of training and grants for the needed boost (B. Ali & Darko, 2015).

Despite being considered as home to lots of potential entrepreneurs and land of opportunity for social entrepreneurs and innovation (Hutchinson & Patel, 2014), there is limited research on social entrepreneurship in Pakistan with no quantitative attempt ever made to estimate the number and activities of social enterprises (M. M. Ahmed

et al., 2016) and their impacts. It has also resulted in several unsuccessful ventures ultimately winding up their businesses (Bouri, 2015). The financial viability and sustainability through positive social impact become a headache for SEs in Pakistan especially when they start or dare to expand their businesses for the creation of social value in the resource-poor environment (B. Ali & Darko, 2015).

The success of social ventures resides in their capability to scale the social impact (Bacq, Ofstein, Kickul, & Gundry, 2015; Desa & Koch, 2014) while generating sufficient profits for the disenfranchised members of the society as well (Griffiths, Gundry, & Kickul, 2013). However, the ways and process of scaling of social impact while being financially viable under a number of inhibiting factors and institutional voids are definitely a road less traveled (Bocken et al., 2016; M. T. Dacin, Dacin, & Tracey, 2011; Desa, 2012; Mair & Marti, 2009).

Of all the controversies surrounding the social entrepreneurship research, the dominance of qualitative research and biases towards origination of western literature are the prominent ones (Doherty et al., 2014). There is a dire need to explore this sector quantitatively in a rigorous way as compared to the previous predominant qualitative researches (Turner, Crook, & Miller, 2014). This study is in line with the suggestions of previous researches to confirm the presence of new generation in innovation system of low-income economies that can mobilize locally available resources to solve locally specified problems (Kaplinsky et al., 2009; Linaa, 2013). It will be the first empirical attempt to understand the factors involved in the financial and non-financial



performance of social enterprises, to better understand the sustainability issues of SEs in Pakistan to the best of the author's knowledge.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

The social enterprise performance measurement has attracted lots of scholarly attention in the recent years due to its ability to introduce sustainable solutions for the most challenging and complex problems of the society (Bacq et al., 2015; Blundel & Lyon, 2015; Chmelik, Musteen, & Ahsan, 2015; Goyal, Sergi, & Kapoor, 2017) arising as a result of government and market failure (Griffiths et al., 2013; Pless, 2012). Several noteworthy studies have contributed towards understanding the factors and variables influencing the financial and non-financial performance of the social enterprises including the capabilities (Bacq, Janssen, & Kickul, 2011; Bloom & Chatterji, 2009; Bloom & Smith, 2010; Desa & Koch, 2014); strategies for scaling (Bocken et al., 2016; Jenner, 2016; Lyon & Fernandez, 2012); business models (Chmelik et al., 2015; Goyal et al., 2017; Jokela & Elo, 2015; Seelos & Mair, 2005; Weber, Wallace, & Tuschke, 2013) and mission-centric studies (Alter, 2007; Peredo & Crisman, 2006; Renko, 2013) to name a few.

As stated in the background of the study, it is of utmost important to understand the factors that lead to social enterprise performance in Pakistan. This sector is relatively nascent in Pakistan (B. Ali & Darko, 2015; Asif et al., 2018) with only two decades old history. Despite the ability of such ventures to address the alarming issues of poverty, unemployment (Syed et al., 2012), stagnant economic growth and development (State Bank of Pakistan, 2014), achievement of sustainable development

goals (Littlewood & Holt, 2018a; Social Enterprise UK et al., 2015), one of the dominant challenges faced by Pakistani social enterprises is limited social enterprise performance measurement (Yasir et al., 2016) due to their resource starved environment.

The access and mobilization of resources are considered crucial in the performance of social enterprises (Dees, Anderson, & Wei-skillern, 2004). This particular barrier to entry and growth can be attributed to the non-existing venture capital industry in Pakistan (Allworld Network, 2012). The performance of social ventures is driven by the ability to attract and assemble resources (Weber, Kröger, & Lambrich, 2012). Therefore, this study has taken into consideration the strategic use of bricolage behavior (Desa & Basu, 2013; Gundry, Kickul, Griffiths, & Bacq, 2011b; Houtbeckers, 2011; Rönkkö, Peltonen, & Arenius, 2014) and social capital (Bacq et al., 2015; Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Blundel & Lyon, 2015; Hasan, 2005; Sunduramurthy, Zheng, Musteen, Francis, & Rhyne, 2016), as relevant resource mobilization strategies, that may lead to the superior performance of the social ventures.

Bricolage behavior can recombine the existing resources for a new purpose and results in improved performance. While social capital can help access, resources embedded in internal and external networks which can then enhance the performance of the social enterprises. One of the possible answers to address the resources scarcity issue can be the recombination of the existing resources at hand for a new purpose or as a solution to new problem resulting in innovative outcomes (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Fuglsang &

Flemming, 2011; Gundry, Kickul, Griffiths, & Bacq, 2011a; Gundry et al., 2011b; Guo, Su, & Ahlstrom, 2015; Katila & Shane, 2005; Klerk, 2015; Sandeep Salunke, Weerawardena, & McColl-Kennedy, 2013; Senyard, Baker, Steffens, & Davidsson, 2014; Senyard, Baker, & Steffens, 2010) and that in turn leads to their performance (Ernst, Kahle, Dubiel, Prabhu, & Subramaniam, 2015; Kickul, Griffiths, Bacq, & Garud, 2018) especially under the resource-poor environment of emerging economies like Pakistan.

The social enterprise performance requires social innovation to play its role for mobilizing existing resources (Alvord, Brown, & Letts, 2004). A number of studies have tested the mediating role of different forms of innovations (Senyard, Baker, & Davidsson, 2009) like affordable value innovation (Ernst et al., 2015) and innovative products (Tasavori, Kwong, & Pruthi, 2018) between bricolage behavior and firm growth and performance. Social innovation is endorsed to be studied as a mediator between bricolage behavior and social enterprise performance (Bacq et al., 2015). Therefore, this path to social enterprise performance is not approachable without the mediating role of social innovation between bricolage behavior and social enterprise performance.

Similarly, the mere presence of social capital is not considered sufficient to draw any benefits out of it (Adler & Kwon, 2002). When resources are limited, it is also a common practice to look for a bail out from nearby relations; be it friends, family or colleagues or other stakeholders (Burgers, Stuetzer, & Senyard, 2014). Also, the inconclusive and divergent relationship between social capital and performance is

supposed to be mediated in order to reap certain benefits and outcomes from social capital (Maurer, Bartsch, & Ebers, 2011; Wu, 2008), especially for the social enterprises (Busch, 2014). Social capital is also considered vital in creating social change through similar terms like noticeable innovative solutions (Gundry et al., 2011a), innovation (Dawson, Scott, Thompson, & Preece, 2011) and innovative outcomes (Ozeren, Saatcioglu, & Aydin, 2018). Therefore, this study will also contribute to the body of knowledge by introducing social innovation as a mediator between the relationship of social capital and social enterprise performance.

This proposed theoretical framework is supported by the underpinning theory of the radical view of Resource-Based Theory (RBT). The radical view focusses on the overall wellbeing of the multiple stakeholders and not just profit maximization of the shareholders (Bell & Dyck, 2011). This view works well with social entrepreneurship studies as it is also concerned about multiple stakeholders and explains how various resources (social capital) and capabilities (bricolage behavior) influence the overall wellbeing including financial and scaling of social impact through sustainable innovative solutions.

This study is an attempt to fill five important gaps to contribute towards social enterprise performance; 1) examining the effect of bricolage behavior on social innovation, 2) investigating the influence of social capital on social innovation, 3) exploring the effect of social innovation on social enterprise non-financial and financial performance, 4) exploring the mediating role of social innovation on the relationship between bricolage behavior and social enterprise non-financial and

financial performance and finally, 5) studying the mediating role of social innovation between social capital and social enterprise non-financial and financial performance.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

From the problem statement above, this study sort to answer broad research question whether bricolage behavior, social capital, and social innovation can jointly explain the social enterprise performance. Based on this general research question, the specific research questions are posed for this study:

1. What is the relationship between bricolage behavior and social innovation?
2. What is the relationship between social capital and social innovation?
3. What is the relationship between social innovation and scaling of social impact and financial performance?
4. Does social innovation mediate the relationship between bricolage behavior and scaling of social impact and financial performance?
5. Does social innovation mediate the relationship between social capital and scaling of social impact and financial performance?

### **1.4 Research Objectives**

This study aims at exploring the role of social capital, bricolage behavior and social innovation in improving the performance of the social ventures in Pakistan. However, the specific objectives are:

1. To examine the relationship between bricolage behavior and social innovation.
2. To identify the relationship between social capital and social innovation.

3. To investigate the relationship between social innovation and scaling of social impact and financial performance.
4. To identify the mediating role of social innovation between bricolage behavior and scaling of social impact and financial performance.
5. To examine the mediating role of social innovation between social capital and scaling of social impact and financial performance.

### **1.5 Scope of the Study**

This study investigates the mediating role of social innovation between bricolage behavior, social capital and social enterprise performance in Pakistan. The poor performance of Pakistan on the key social indicators along with huge 60 million BOP population discloses the simultaneous failure of markets, government and typical not for profit organizations. Therefore, the liability of social enterprises, as hybrid organizations with the financial and non-financial goals of social impact, to play their role and perform becomes indispensable under the context of a developing country, like Pakistan.

The organizations whose business activities are primarily based on social ventures models, with the scaling of social impact at their core along with the financial performance, (irrespective of their legal status of profit or nonprofit) are surveyed for this study. All the social enterprises with income generating activities to cast social impact sustainably qualifies to be part of this study, as per this study's definition of social enterprise. It includes all the hybrid organizations in Pakistan irrespective of

their geographic locations, who are simultaneously struggling with the competing logics of the social and market at the same time.

The detailed information is sought from the representative individuals who possess key information about their social organizations or at a better position to provide it like a senior manager, project manager or social entrepreneur himself. It is due to the reason that the performance-related information along with the deliberate strategic choices and decisions on the organization 's part can only be best provided by such key informants.

#### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

This study contributes significantly to the body of knowledge both theoretically and practically. Though Resource-Based Theory (RBT) has been used extensively under various settings, but its radical approach is applied for the first time to explain the social enterprise performance through the lenses of social capital, bricolage behavior and social innovation to the best of this author's knowledge. The introduction of social innovation as a potential mediator under the umbrella of radical RBT will also provide some valuable insights in this theory.

This study will also extend the radical RBT from mature markets to the BOP market to understand how the resources are assembled in resource-poor environment of Pakistan. This study will also contribute to the BOP studies by taking the attention away from treating it just as a potential consumer market for multinationals, to focusing on the social entrepreneurs who understand the market well and give more



practical and affordable solutions to the societal problems. This study will prove to be a deviation from the existing concentration of social entrepreneurship researches around developed countries by focusing on a developing country, Pakistan where there is almost no existing research in this area (Sengupta & Sahay, 2017).

There is a dire need to develop a theoretical model to address the problem of how to assess the performance of the social enterprises who are simultaneously pursuing financial and social goals. Multiple stakeholders are anxious for measuring it (Haski-Leventhal & Mehra, 2016), including investors, donors and community at large due to their vested interests. There is also a significant gap in the literature regarding it as most of the studies are conceptual discussions (Gundry et al., 2011b) and very few have focused on the quantitative empirical studies. These gaps will be addressed through this study.

Moreover, the potential of social capital in explaining the development and performance of social enterprises is always considered crucial (Busch, 2014). Therefore, the consolidation of the social capital lens in this study will enhance our understanding of how social capital plays its role in social enterprise performance. The diverse connections both inside and outside organization play an important role in accessing diversified information and overcome the financial barrier to make innovation happen and solve the social issues and attract impact investors.

This study will contribute towards understanding the process that leads to the performance of social enterprise by introducing social innovation as a mediator. This

will help us understand that how social ventures in resource-poor environment operate and drive long term systematic change by coming up with social innovation as an important factor for the creation of social impact and financial performance.

The social entrepreneurship is a rapidly expanding field in Pakistan, but it is still without any significant government support and institutional support to develop an ecosystem to develop social innovations. With a growing unprecedented youth in the overall increasing population, Pakistan is a fertile ground for social entrepreneurial opportunities and social innovation as also predicted by the international agencies reports. Under this context, the policy makers should identify the potential social entrepreneurs and provide them with necessary means and mechanisms to creatively mobilize their resources and focus on involving stakeholders in an effort to create social value for the deprived segments.

Though the gap between the real state of the world and the ideal version cannot be bridged, but the efforts should be made at encouraging and supporting those who play an important role for solving the persistent problems creatively, ignored by market forces, with same zeal and zest. As it is rightly said that there is always room for improvement, and it fits perfect for improving the living conditions of the base of the pyramid (BOP) population. Given this current era of austerity and continued restriction on the public service provision, there is a dire need to come up with urgent, focused and targeted policies needed to promote the social innovation tailor-made specifically for BOP.

## **1.7 Definition of key terms**

### **1.7.1 Social Enterprise**

“Social enterprises are socially driven businesses which are more market-driven and pursue revenue generation for financial sustainability thus ensuing the double bottom line of social value creation like non-profits and financial goals of private organizations independent of donations and grants” (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Domenico, Tracey, & Haugh, 2010; Emerson & Twersky, 1996; Martin & Osberg, 2007).

### **1.7.2 Bricolage Behavior**

Bricolage is defined as “making do by applying combinations of resources at hand to new problems and opportunities” in penurious and resource-constrained environment (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005, p. 333).

### **1.7.3 Internal Social Capital**

Internal social capital reflects social ties between employees or units/departments, and the assets embedded in and available through these ties (i.e. trust and cohesion) (Adler & Kwon, 2002).

### **1.7.4 External Social Capital**

External social capital can be understood as social links with external entities, such as suppliers and partners, and the assets embedded in these links (i.e. mutual understanding and trust) (Dai, Mao, Zhao, & Mattila, 2015, p. 42).

### **1.7.5 Social Innovation**

Social innovation is defined as “practical application of ideas for the development of new and improved products, processes, methods and/or services, for the resolution of social problems structured as unsatisfied social demands in the areas of education, health, employment, culture, environment and/or social services” (Unceta, Castro-Spila, & Fronti, 2016, p. 8).

### **1.7.6 Scaling of Social Impact**

“Scaling social impact is the process of expanding or adapting an organization’s output to better match the magnitude of the social need or problem being tackled.” (Desa & Koch, 2014, p. 148).

### **1.7.7 Financial Performance**

The financial performance is defined as importance and satisfaction attached with certain finance-related items like sales level, sales growth, profitability, net profit, gross profit and ability to fund enterprise growth with profits (Iakovleva, 2005).

## **1.8 Organization of Thesis**

This thesis is systematized into five chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the background, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, scope and significance of the study.

Chapter 2 starts with the landscape of the social entrepreneurship. Further, it provides an extensive review of the literature about the concept of performance in social

enterprises which includes the existing empirical studies along with the strategic resource mobilization choices of bricolage behavior and social capital for social enterprise performance. Past studies on the possible mediation and social innovation as a mediator between bricolage behavior and social enterprise performance and social capital and social enterprise performance are also explained in detail. It ends up by describing the underpinning theory and the research framework.

Chapter 3 focuses on the explanation of research methodology, which begins with operational definitions and research design. It further elaborates the content validity, pre-test, data collection procedures and data analysis method.

Chapter 4 explains the statistical analysis, which starts with response rate, data screening, common method variance, demographics description of the respondents and descriptive analysis. Afterwards, the measurement model, as well as the structural model which are assessed using the Smart PLS version 3.2.7 software package, are reported. Consequently, results of the hypotheses based on the assessment of the structural model are reported.

Chapter 5 discusses the research findings based on the research objectives. Furthermore, the chapter provides the theoretical and practical contributions and implications of the findings of this study. Later, the chapter describes the limitations of research and suggests directions for future research. Lastly, the conclusion of the research is presented.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter builds upon the review of the literature on the resources and capabilities that lead towards the achievement of the dual goals of social ventures i.e. scaling of social impact and financial performance. Specifically, this chapter starts with shedding some light on the landscape of social entrepreneurship followed by the concept of performance in social enterprises. Then the overall empirical studies regarding the social enterprise performance are briefly reviewed with a specific focus on the strategic choices for resource mobilization afterward for improving the performance i.e. bricolage behavior and social capital. Subsequently, the studies between the bricolage behavior and social capital with social enterprise performance are reviewed with the introduction of possible mediator i.e. social innovation. The last section explains the radical view of resource-based theory (RBT) as an underpinning theory to explain the proposed theoretical framework.

#### **2.2 The Landscape of Social Entrepreneurship**

According to Adam Smith, no matter how selfish the men may seem to be, he will always be interested in the fate of others. Such a keen interest ignites the desire to seek other's pleasure through his own philanthropic deeds within him. According to the words of Bill Drayton, Founder of the Ashoka as mentioned by Abu-Saifan (2012):

*“Whenever the society is stuck or has an opportunity to seize a new opportunity, it needs an entrepreneur to see the opportunity and then to turn that vision into a*

*realistic idea and then a reality and then, indeed, the new pattern all across society. We need such entrepreneurial leadership at least as much in education and human rights as we do in communications and hotels. This is the work of social entrepreneurs”.*

According to different studies, almost 4 billion people live under the conditions of considerable poverty and experience the challenges of socio-economic and environmental threats, termed as BOP (Hammond et al., 2007; London & Hart, 2004; Winn & Kirchgeorg, 2014). Poverty alleviation has always been a concern for everyone especially states but now the businesses targeted at BOP and inclusive markets are considered better option and a critical approach for its eradication (Peredo & Crisman, 2006; Yessoufou, Blok, & Omta, 2017), especially by the international institutions like Asian Development Bank (ADB) (Engstrom, 2016). This is unlike many existing programs focusing on traditional philanthropic solutions or ‘charity’ (Halme, Lindeman, & Linna, 2012; C. K. Prahalad, 2005) promoting dependence by undermining one’s self-esteem (Dees, 1998) rather than supporting durable solutions with local self-reliance. According to the words of Nobel Laureate Muhammad Yunus, founder of Grameen Bank, charity is not a solution to poverty rather it takes the initiative away from the poor (Yunus, 2012).

Overall entrepreneurship is considered as a creative process of radical social change. But recently, social entrepreneurship has gathered much attention for inquiry as an economic activity to address the needs of those neglected areas by the state which are also perceived unprofitable by the private sector (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Domenico et



al., 2010; Haugh, 2012; Hossain, Saleh, & Drennan, 2017). The resource-poor environment of the developing and under developed country is a natural hotbed for social businesses (E. Y. Zhao & Lounsbury, 2016) where they are struggling hard to meet social needs by becoming financially viable at the same time, in the face of multiple challenges like absence of proper infrastructure and lack of institutional support (Bocken et al., 2016).

The concept of social entrepreneurship has a rich history with a number of initiatives targeted at solving social problems by early independent social entrepreneurs like William Lloyd Garrison, Jane Addams (Barendsen & Gardner, 2004; Drayton, 2002) and Florence Nightingale (Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010). However, the term was conceptualized not very long ago and the field start using it for social change makers and it was successful in gaining the attention of government and academia (Alvord et al., 2004; Christie & Honig, 2006; Dearlove, 2004; Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010) in the late '90s (Dees, 1998).

The early evolutionary attempts were made by practitioners, like Bill Drayton who founded Ashoka foundation in 1980. His inspiration was to use the unique capabilities of entrepreneurs for solving the social problems, which included the capability to identify those opportunities perceived as a problem by others and then channelizing their resilience and resourcefulness (Bagchi, 2014). With the start of the new millennium, the practitioner attempts were followed by academicians who came up with a number of conceptual and empirical researches (Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010).

### **2.2.1 Evolution of the Social Entrepreneurship**

All the early research attempts at social entrepreneurship ultimately join either European or US research streams. This development took place almost parallel to each other, but no attempt was made to combine them until 2005-2006. The conceptual development of the social entrepreneurship on both sides can be traced back to the “third sector”, i.e. all forms of the non-profits, not looking for profits for their major stakeholders (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010).

In some of the European countries, this third sector was also labeled as a social economy. It gained the popularity due to increase in structural unemployment, the need to reduce state budget deficit while tackling the ever-increasing exclusion of some groups like low qualified, people with a social problem and long unemployed, and underdeveloped social services provision. The development of new legal forms to deal with the various forms of the third sector included every organization with a social purpose in this debate. This third sector was influenced by the change in the funding policies of the public institutions (Jenner, 2016) i.e. a cut in the grants and funding with a subsequent rise in the commercial income.

On the other hand, in the US, this area is rooted in the commercial activities by the third sector for supporting their mission. The discussion was later led by the federations like Ashoka, which considered the ability to bring social innovation as imperative to the definition of social entrepreneurship irrespective of the form of organization and fields. The driving forces which shaped the field of social enterprises included work integration enterprises (WISE) in Europe and the federations in the US

that provided the financial and network support along with the consultancy firms (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010).

### **2.2.2 Difference Between Social and Conventional Entrepreneurship**

There is a dire need to differentiate between social entrepreneurship from conventional one (Abu-Saifan, 2012) due to increased awareness that both of them are on the two sides of a continuum and there is no clear-cut division that exists (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Mair & Marti, 2006). Social entrepreneurship can be theoretically traced back to entrepreneurship research (Mair & Marti, 2006) giving rise to overlapping similar fields of inquiry like opportunity recognition, evaluation, and implementation. The basic difference between social and commercial businesses is in their value proposition which is at the heart of their business model (Austin et al., 2006; Grassl, 2012).

The ultimate objective of the conventional enterprise is to create economic wealth while in social enterprise, revenue generation activities are aimed at creating social value which is perfectly aligned with their social mission (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Weber & Kratzer, 2013). Though they may be involved in profit-making activities, however, social value creation as their primary objective and pre-requisite makes them unique as compared to their commercial counterparts (Sunduramurthy et al., 2016). This mission of social value creation earns high regards to social entrepreneurs due to their contribution towards improved quality of life and society at large.

One of the key studies for differentiating social from commercial entrepreneurship has identified four areas; different opportunities for social and commercial ventures in case of market failure, differences in the mission, financial and human resource mobilization and performance measurement through social impact (Austin et al., 2006). Therefore, it can be concluded that maximizing social impact is the key driver for social entrepreneur while maximizing profit is primary for commercial entrepreneurs (Weber et al., 2012).

Many of the abilities of both social and their commercial counterparts are similar including a commitment to their passion, high amount of energy, resilience, and innovativeness. They both pursue an opportunity-seeking behavior along with vision and delve into building alliances and network of contacts. However, social entrepreneurs describe their vision in moral terms with a strong focus and desire for social justice. The difference can be identified from their unique purpose and motivation of addressing financial need by commercial entrepreneurs and social need by social entrepreneurs (Roberts & Woods, 2005).

However, the boundaries between the two are porous and blurred (Gundry et al., 2011b) especially with the ever-increasing focus of commercial ventures on corporate social responsibility and the shift towards reporting triple bottom line while assessing the performance. But it should also be not confused with charities and funds that create dependence among those whose social issues are addressed. The social enterprise spectrum presented by Dees and Anderson (2006) can also help social enterprises to place themselves and choose among all the possible business models from purely

philanthropic to pure commercial. However, the definition has been modified to make it applicable to both domains, stating entrepreneurship as an activity that is underestimated and discounted for creating social value (Chell, 2007).

### **2.2.3 Popularity of Social Entrepreneurship**

There has been a steadily increased interest in social entrepreneurship by multiple stakeholders (Chmelik et al., 2015) due to multiple reasons. The four key factors involved in the global widespread of social entrepreneurship are global wealth disparity, the corporate social responsibility movement, market institutions, and state failures and technological advances and shared responsibility (Leadbeater, 2007; Zahra, Rawhouser, Bhawe, Neubaum, & Hayton, 2008). However, the persistent and never-ending social problems giving rise to the awareness about the unequal distribution of wealth is the major driving force (Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010). While the majority of the population living in the developing countries for less than \$2 a day, the world's major wealth is controlled by a few people in the developed country (Swanson, 2007). This leads to a surge in the identification of opportunities for social improvement in developing countries (Zahra et al., 2008).

Meanwhile, the role of the multinationals in this income disparity was also focused by social activists which pressurized them to become more socially responsible. The multinationals, in turn, formed alliances with governments and non-government organizations to address poverty and social issues. This trend was also strengthened by the seminal work of C. K. Prahalad (2005) with the identification of the BOP as a vibrant consumer market with a lot of potential for “for profit” business models and

partnership with the poor (D. Prahalad, 2019). Therefore, it led to the growing interest among the financial institutions, private investors and local entrepreneurs, to come up with sustainable for-profit businesses targeted at this market (Engstrom, 2016; Leadbeater, 2007). There was an evidently increased rivalry among for profits while turning to the social sector (Dees, 1998). However, many social issues are left unaddressed due to limited impact of corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives which created opportunities for social ventures to go for international solutions to tackle the specific problems (Goyal et al., 2015; Zahra et al., 2008).

The popular belief put forwarded by Dees (2007), that high level of social entrepreneurship is an indicator of a healthy society, also spurred the attention. It means that the inability of the government to address everyone's need is cured by the efforts of the individuals and foundations. The social enterprises also enjoy lots of benefits for providing such services as compared to the state. In contrast to the government, social enterprises have got distinct advantage of the freedom of action with flexibility, access to private resources and fewer withdrawal costs (Dees, 2007).

Moreover, the ease of access to internet has played a pivotal role in increasing its reputation as a mean for economic development while highlighting the active individuals and societies with their practical deliberations and success stories (Abu-Saifan, 2012; R. B. Anderson, Dana, & Dana, 2006; Christie & Honig, 2006; Dees & Anderson, 2006). Some of the highly successful social entrepreneurs were successful in getting the media and government attention like Muhammad Yunus, founder of the microfinance, who got a Nobel prize in recognition and Jeffrey Skoll, founder of eBay

and Skoll foundation whose name was included in Times 100 influential people in 2006.

The popularity of social entrepreneurship among the non-profits was ignited by their drive for seeking relief in for-profit business models with market orientation due to increase in operating business cost and declining grants and donations in response to the increased competition faced due to the growing number of nonprofits. Such solutions are also believed to sustainable in the long run (Leadbeater, 2007). There is also an increased pressure like never experienced before, both on nonprofits and other social actors to improve their efficiency and effectiveness (Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010). The failure of the not for profits to create a market-based scalable ecosystem has also spurred the social entrepreneurship (Goyal et al., 2015).

Since then, this field has never looked back with a gradual increase in the interest in social entrepreneurship as a scholarly field (Austin et al., 2006; Day & Jean-Denis, 2016; Janssen, Fayolle, & Wuillaume, 2018; Johnson, 2003; Littlewood & Holt, 2018a; Pless, 2012) but the research is still in its infancy (Sharmistha & Munehiko, 2018; Tracey & Stott, 2016) due to dominance of qualitative research methods (Busch, 2014; Dionisio, 2019; Littlewood & Holt, 2018a; Sengupta & Sahay, 2017) and lack the rigor (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Dorado, 2006; Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010; Short, Todd, & Lumpkin, 2009) especially as compared to commercial entrepreneurship (Roberts & Woods, 2005).

#### **2.2.4 Social Entrepreneurship Defined**

The biggest concern of the early researches on social entrepreneurship was concentrated around its definition (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Christie & Honig, 2006; Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010), origin, typologies (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009) and context (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010) but now the trend is towards the management and performance of these hybrid ventures. The conceptualization of social entrepreneurship is still broad and ill-defined (Hossain et al., 2017; Peredo & McLean, 2006) along with lack of defined boundaries to gain legitimacy as an academic field of inquiry (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Austin et al., 2006; Keitsch, Sigurjonsson, & Nilsen, 2013; Zahra et al., 2009). The infancy of the field relative to commercial entrepreneurship has also presented challenges in defining it (Hossain et al., 2017; Maclean, Harvey, & Gordon, 2012; Roberts & Woods, 2005; Sengupta & Sahay, 2017).

Social entrepreneurship can be defined broadly in this study as a social value creating activity that can occur within or across the nonprofit, business, or government sectors (Austin et al., 2006, p. 2), independent of donations and grants (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Domenico et al., 2010; Emerson & Twersky, 1996; Martin & Osberg, 2007) by introducing innovative solutions (Dees, 2007; Gupta, Beninger, & Ganesh, 2015; Peredo & McLean, 2006) while ensuring financial sustainability at the same time. Some of the other definitions are listed in the table 2.1 as under:



Table 2.1

*Social Entrepreneurship Definitions*

<b>Author (year)</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Ashoka Innovators (2000)	Social entrepreneurship can produce small changes in the short term that reverberate through existing systems to catalyze large changes in the longer term.
Mort, Weerawardena, and Carnegie (2003, p. 76)	Social entrepreneurship is a multi-dimensional construct involving the expression of entrepreneurially virtuous behavior to achieve the social mission, a coherent unity of purpose and action in the face of moral complexity, the ability to recognize social value-creating opportunities and key decision-making characteristics of innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking.
Roberts and Woods (2005, p. 49)	Social entrepreneurship is the construction, evaluation, and pursuit of opportunities for transformative social change carried out by visionary, passionately dedicated individuals.
Seelos and Mair (2005, p. 241)	The term social entrepreneurship (SE) is used to refer to the rapidly growing number of organizations that have created models for efficiently catering to basic human needs that existing markets and institutions have failed to satisfy.
Peredo and McLean (2006, p. 56)	Social entrepreneurship is exercised where some person or group aims either exclusively or in some prominent way to create social value of some kind and pursue that goal through some combination of (1) recognizing and exploiting opportunities to create this value, (2) employing innovation, (3) tolerating risk, and (4) declining to accept limitations in available resources.

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Nicholls and Cho (2006)	“Social entrepreneurship represents an umbrella term for a considerable range of innovative and dynamic international praxis and discourse in the social and environmental sector”.
Moss, Lumpkin, and Short (2008, p. 1)	Social entrepreneurship (SE) is defined as a process of social value creation in which resources are combined in new ways to meet social needs, stimulate social change, or create new organizations.
Zahra et al. (2009)	Social entrepreneurship “encompasses the activities and processes undertaken to discover, define, and exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organizations in an innovative manner”.
Bacq and Janssen (2011, p. 388)	Social entrepreneurship is the process of identifying, evaluating and exploiting opportunities aiming at social value creation by means of commercial, market-based activities and the use of a wide range of resources.
The Young Foundation (2012)	Social entrepreneurship is defined as the set of behaviors and attitudes of individuals involved in creating new social ventures, such as a willingness to take risks and finding creative ways of using underused assets and these are businesses with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose.

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Under the umbrella of social entrepreneurship, lots of researches have focused exclusively on the social entrepreneurs as a research inquiry (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Bornstein, 2003; Dees, 1998; Drayton, 2002; Emerson & Twersky, 1996; Leadbeater,

1997; Sharir & Lerner, 2006; Thompson, Alvy, & Lees, 2000) as it is quite often difficult to separate an entrepreneur from his/her enterprise. The most common clue found while identifying social entrepreneur is their commitment to solving the social problem (Waddock & Post, 1991) through breakthrough ideas and an equal commitment to spreading the sustainable impact at large (Light, 2005). Therefore, they should not only be framed in terms of earned income rather on the social change they pursue as well. Another term used for similar entrepreneurs who are more committed to meet social needs instead of rent-seeking is “grassroots entrepreneur” (Sarkar, 2018).

One of the important definitions by the social innovation school of thought states “social entrepreneurs are individuals who reform or revolutionize the patterns of producing social value, shifting resources into areas of higher yield for society”. This school of thought was mainly influenced by Bill Drayton, the practitioner and founder of Ashoka: Innovators for the public, an organization that strives for identifying the social entrepreneurs and helping them in getting their dreams to come true. It was not until the mid-90s that the official term of social entrepreneur as innovators was adopted by Ashoka similar to the concept of ‘public service entrepreneur’ conceived by Peter Drucker.

One of the most important and agreed upon defining characteristic of the social entrepreneur is the ethical fiber i.e. not only do they target and commit themselves to good end but also a good mean (Drayton, 2002, 2005). The Skoll foundation defines a social entrepreneur as “society’s change agents, creators of innovations that disrupt

the status quo and transform our world.” Some of the other important definitions of the social entrepreneur are summarized in the table 2.2 as below:

Table 2.2  
*Social Entrepreneur Definitions*

<b>Author (year)</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Waddock and Post (1991, p. 393)	Social entrepreneurs are private sector citizens who play critical roles in bringing about "catalytic changes" in the public-sector agenda and the perception of certain social issues.
Emerson and Twersky (1996)	Entrepreneurs use business skills and knowledge to create enterprises that accomplish social purposes, in addition to being commercially viable.
Leadbeater (1997)	Social entrepreneurs identify underutilized resources-people, buildings, equipment and find ways of putting them to use to satisfy unmet social needs. They innovate new welfare services and new ways of delivering existing services.
Dees (1998)	A social entrepreneur “combines the passion of a social mission with an image of business-like discipline, innovation, and determination commonly associated with, for instance, the high-tech pioneers of Silicon Valley”.
Thompson et al. (2000, p. 328)	People who realize where there is an opportunity to satisfy some unmet need that the state welfare system will not or cannot meet, and who gather together the necessary resources (generally people, often volunteers, money, and premises) and use these to “make a difference”.
Dees (2001)	Social entrepreneurs play the role of change agents in the social sector, by adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value), recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that

mission, engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning, acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and exhibiting heightened accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created.

Drayton (2002, p. 123) Social entrepreneurs focus their entrepreneurial talent on solving social problems and possess five necessary ingredients: a powerful new system changing idea, creativity, widespread impact, entrepreneurial quality, and strong ethical fiber.

Bornstein (2003, p. 1) Social entrepreneurs are “*transformative forces*: people with new ideas to address major problems who are relentless in the pursuit of their vision, people who will simply not take ‘no’ for an answer, who will not give up until they have spread their ideas as far as they possible can”.

Barendsen and Gardner (2004, p. 43) Social entrepreneurs are individuals who approach the social problem with an entrepreneurial spirit and business acumen to create change.

Roberts and Woods (2005, p. 46) Social entrepreneurs are people with similar behaviors to conventional entrepreneurs but “operate in the community and are more concerned with caring and helping than with making money”.

Light (2005, p. 17) A social entrepreneur is an individual, group, network, organization, or alliance of organizations that seek sustainable, large-scale change through pattern-breaking ideas in what and/or how governments, nonprofits, and businesses do to address significant social problems.

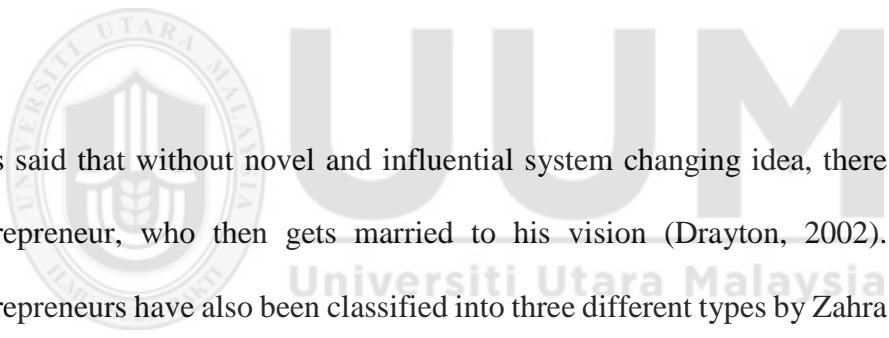
Sharir and Lerner (2006, p. 3)	“The social entrepreneur is acting as a change agent to create and sustain social value without being limited to resources currently in hand”.
Martin and Osberg (2007)	A social entrepreneur is “someone who targets an unfortunate but stable equilibrium that causes the neglect, marginalization, or suffering of a segment of humanity; who brings to bear on this situation his or her inspiration, direct action, creativity, courage, and fortitude; and who aims for and ultimately affects the establishment of a new stable equilibrium that secures permanent benefit for the targeted group and society at large”
Zahra et al. (2009)	Social entrepreneurs are a sub-set of entrepreneurs and could be defined as socially conscious individuals who devise and incorporate innovative business models that address social issues which are often overlooked by other organizations.
Bloom and Chatterji (2009, p. 114)	Individuals who start up and lead new organizations or programs that are dedicated to mitigating or eliminating a social problem, deploying change strategies that differ from those that have been used to address the problem in the past.
Defourny and Nyssens (2010)	Social entrepreneurs are defined as change makers as they carry out ‘new combinations’ in at least one the following areas: new services, new quality of services, new methods of production, new production factors, new forms of organizations or new markets.
Bacq and Janssen (2011, p. 388)	The social entrepreneur is a visionary individual, whose main objective is to create social value, able at one and the same time to detect and exploit opportunities, to leverage resources necessary to his/her social mission and to find innovative solutions to social problems of his/her community that

are not properly met by the local system. This will make him/her adopt an entrepreneurial behavior.

Abu-Saifan (2012)      The social entrepreneur is a mission-driven individual who uses a set of entrepreneurial behaviors to deliver social value to the less privileged, all through an entrepreneurially oriented entity that is financially independent, self-sufficient, or sustainable.

Santos (2012, p. 344)      Social entrepreneurs are economic agents who, due to their motivation to create value without concerns to the amount their appropriate, will enter areas of activity where the more severe market and government failures occur.

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It is said that without novel and influential system changing idea, there is no social entrepreneur, who then gets married to his vision (Drayton, 2002). The social entrepreneurs have also been classified into three different types by Zahra et al. (2009) as social bricoleur (focused on finding solutions to the local small scale social needs), social constructionist (introduce reforms and innovation on a larger scale) and social engineer (responsible for revolutionary changes in the social system).

While one of the simplest definition of the social enterprise is presented as “entrepreneurship with a .....social mission or embedded social purpose (Austin et al., 2006; Martin & Osberg, 2007; Peredo & Crisman, 2006; Peredo & McLean, 2006; Upadhyay, Rawal, & Awasthi, 2017). Social enterprises are defined in terms of achieving the dual objectives of financial stability with a social purpose as primary

one or the one fulfilling the social mission through commercial activities (Doherty et al., 2014; Gupta et al., 2015). The social mission is also considered as a unique selling proposition (USP) of the social enterprises (Chell, 2007). As per the website of Social Enterprise Alliance, it is defined as the organizations that address a basic unmet need or solve a social problem through a market-driven approach. According to few, they are ingrained confused organizations (Ryder, 2009) baffled by the competing demands of the market and social welfare logic, also known as hybrid organizations (Doherty et al., 2014; Pache & Santos, 2013). Some of the other important definitions of social enterprises are summarized in the table 2.3.

Table 2.3  
*Social Enterprise Definitions*

Author (year)	Definition
(DTI, 2002)	A business with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximize profit for shareholders and owners.
Alvord et al. (2004, p. 262)	A catalyst for social transformation that creates innovative solutions to immediate social problems and mobilizes the ideas, capacities, resources, and social arrangements required for sustainable social transformations.
Mair and Marti (2006)	A process consisting of the innovative use and combination of resources, regardless of whether the entrepreneur initially any control over those resources has, that aims at catalyzing social change by catering to basic human needs.



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R. B. Anderson et al. (2006)	Having a dual nature strategy, including a degree of cohesion of the indigenous people, as well as financial success.
Dees and Anderson (2006, p. 40)	Carrying out innovations that blend methods from the worlds of business and philanthropy to create social value that is sustainable and has the potential for large scale impact.
Thompson and Doherty (2006)	Social enterprises – defined simply – are organizations seeking business solutions to social problems. They need to be distinguished from other socially-oriented organizations and initiatives that bring (sometimes significant) benefits to communities but which are not wanting or seeking to be “businesses”.
Alter (2007)	Social enterprises are defined as any business venture created for a social purpose– mitigating/reducing a social problem or a market failure–and to generate social value while operating with the financial discipline, innovation and determination of a private sector business.
Defourny and Nyssens (2008)	Social enterprises are not-for-profit private organizations providing goods or services directly related to their explicit aim to benefit the community. They generally rely on collective dynamics involving various types of stakeholders in their governing bodies, they place a high value on their autonomy, and they bear economic risks related to their activity.
Weber, Kröger, and Demirtas (2015)	Social enterprises are organizations that have identified a specific social problem and alleviate it using innovative, market-oriented approaches.

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Menon, Swarup, A social enterprise is a business whose main objective is to tackle social  
Nicholson, and Khan problems, improve lives and advance societies.  
(2015)

Phillips, Lee, Social enterprises are socially driven businesses which are more market-  
Ghobadian, O'Regan, driven and pursue revenue generation for financial sustainability thus  
and James (2015) ensuing the double bottom line of social value creation like non-profits and  
financial goals of private organizations.

Littlewood and Holt Social enterprises are the ventures established by social entrepreneurs and  
(2018b) which act as vehicles for addressing social and/or environmental needs.

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To sum it all, Thompson and Doherty (2006) identifies the defining characteristics of a social enterprises as the one with social purpose, utilize resources for community benefits, pursuing partly or completely in a market place, restrict profit distribution, decentralized decision making, accountable to members and community at large, and the ultimate objective of achieving double or triple bottom line.

In this study, we'll adopt the most commonly agreed upon definition of the social enterprises i.e. "Social enterprises are socially driven businesses which are more market-driven and pursue revenue generation for financially sustainability thus ensuing the double bottom line of social value creation like non-profits and financial goals of private organizations independent of donations and grants" (Dees &

Anderson, 2006; Domenico et al., 2010; Emerson & Twersky, 1996; Martin & Osberg, 2007).

### **2.2.5 Approaches to Social Entrepreneurship**

There are three approaches to social entrepreneurship (Alvord et al., 2004). The first one describes SE as a business venture while casting a social impact in addition to becoming commercially viable by utilizing all the business knowledge and skills (Emerson & Twersky, 1996). This approach considers two distinct but converging motivations. The first one may take the desire among business executives to allocate a part of their profits to social causes as they believe that potential beneficial business opportunities arise from social needs (Dees & Anderson, 2006). The second motivation is among the non-profits to generate alternate sources of income in response to a decrease in government grants and donations and to cover the organization cost (Alvord et al., 2004; Austin et al., 2006; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Emerson & Twersky, 1996; Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010). It could be in the form of small gift shops or fully operated business by following the private sector business expertise and market-based skills (Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010).

Lots of social entrepreneurship studies have focused on non-profit organizations (NPO) and they also differentiate it from for-profit social enterprises while doing so (Mair & Marti, 2006; Weerawardena & Mort, 2006). However, it should also be kept in mind that not all NPOs are socially entrepreneurial and therefore it is advised to be extra cautious while mixing social objectives with commercial business value as it can backfire the reputation of the not-for-profits as well.

The second approach emphasizes social entrepreneurship as innovating for achieving mission-related performance i.e. social impact while paying no heed to the economic viability criteria followed by common businesses (Dees, 1998). Such social entrepreneurs are triggered by the social problem, they then try to solve it through novel initiatives, and mobilize the resources for it rather than following any market drive.

The third one views social entrepreneurship as a stepping stone towards the societal transformation. They are not merely focused on the initial solution to the addressed problem in the short run rather they target the larger changes through entire system transformation in the longer run. Different researchers can follow any of the three approaches like Alvord et al. (2004) were more interested in the sustainable societal transformation as a result of social entrepreneurship by mobilizing resources, capacities and social arrangements. However, this study will consider the first approach by including social ventures with a social impact while being commercially viable as well.

#### **2.2.6 Social Businesses in Developing Countries: Biasness Towards Developed Countries**

Most of the early empirical studies in this field are especially concentrated around developed Anglo-Saxon countries especially the US, Australia (Weerawardena & Mort, 2006) and the UK (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013). However, the presence of social enterprises is prevalent in a variety of contexts due to its important role in countries

including developed (Weerawardena & Mort, 2006), developing and rapidly emerging economies. They are copious and intentionally locate and flourish their businesses in a penurious environment characterized by resource constraints (Desa, 2007; Desa & Basu, 2013; Domenico et al., 2010; Sunduramurthy et al., 2016). The importance of social enterprises in the achievement of the sustainable development goals in BOP markets is also emphasized by the international institutions like United nations (Goyal et al., 2017) and World Bank (Christie & Honig, 2006).

There is also a difference in the focal issues addressed by the social enterprises in developing and developed countries, like one study compared the focus of social enterprises in India and Australia (Haski-Leventhal & Mehra, 2016). While India is more focused towards the people at the base of pyramid (BOP) (Datta & Gailey, 2012), the Australian social enterprises are more focused on healthier eating (C. Kline, Shah, & Rubright, 2014) and environmental protection along with aiding marginalized people in developing countries. Also, there is no standard method of measuring the social impact as it varies with countries. These differences can be attributed to the difference in their economic conditions and culture. But overall, the growth in social ventures in developing countries is substantial (Menon et al., 2015) that makes it necessary to explore the strategies and processes that lead to the sustainable performance of such ventures in such countries.

One of the research reviewing the literature on social enterprises concluded that of all the articles, only 16.2% were from countries other than Europe and North America (Doherty et al., 2014). This leads to proposed encouragement by researchers to study

developing countries, with the altogether different scenario as compared to western developed countries, and where social enterprises are viewed as an alternative to the established welfare state (Ayob, Teasdale, & Fagan, 2016). There is an uneven geographic concentration of network and social enterprise related studies among developed, emerging and developing countries with only a few focusing on the latter two and that too concentrated mainly around India and Kenya (Littlewood & Holt, 2018a).

A number of studies have focused on understanding the behavior of social enterprises through the concept of entrepreneurial bricolage under different contexts like UK, USA, Brazil, India, South Africa, etc. (Domenico et al., 2010; Sunduramurthy et al., 2016; Tasavori et al., 2018). The resource constraints can become harsher in developing countries (Bacq et al., 2015). Therefore, the need for a further research under the context of developing countries, being host to the biggest BOP segment of population, characterized by chronic shortage of resources (Goyal et al., 2015; Kwong, Tasavori, & Cheung, 2017; Tasavori et al., 2018) and an ideal platform for social enterprises, has also been endorsed.

One of the studies on social enterprises in Asia concluded that such ventures cast a significant social impact through the innovative solution (Shahnaz & Ming, 2009). However, few researches have focused on developing countries. The latest search for geographic disbursement of researches revealed that most of the researches on South Asian countries are concentrated mainly around India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka (Sengupta & Sahay, 2017). No results were generated for Pakistan, Bhutan,

Afghanistan, Nepal, and Maldives. The diverse socio-cultural and economic contexts around the development and scaling of social enterprises in such countries need to be investigated (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013). Being host to a huge BOP population and exhibiting poor performance on the social indicators like health and education (Bouri, 2015) on one hand but a declared land of opportunities for social entrepreneurs and innovation by international institutions (Hutchinson & Patel, 2014) on the other hand makes it a perfect avenue for social entrepreneurship research. Therefore, it is crucial to study these ventures in developing and emerging economies like Pakistan.

### **2.3 The Concept of Performance in Social Enterprises**

The performance is believed to be a multi-dimensional phenomenon (Gerba & Viswanadham, 2016; Simpson, Padmore, & Newman, 2012; Wilcox & Bourne, 2003; Wood, 2006). Previous researches have used the proxy of growth and success interchangeable with business performance (Brush & Vanderwerf, 1992; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005). It is, therefore, considered beneficial to integrate different dimensions while measuring performance in empirical studies. It has long been identified that all the ventures work for both purposes of profits and social impact (Diomande, 1990).

This also holds true for the performance measurement in social enterprises specifically. The performance measurement of social ventures is under-theorized (Ebrahim & Rangan, 2014) like absence of its unifying agreed upon conceptualization. The performance of the social enterprises is also multidimensional and cannot be solely gauged in terms of financial performance measures as best value assessment

(Bacq et al., 2015; Chmelik et al., 2015). The growth metrics of social ventures requires paying attention to both commercial and social logic (Jay, 2013).

The task for performance measurement is not very easy in the field of social entrepreneurship and involve many complications (Murray, Caulier-Grice, & Mulgan, 2010). The social enterprises as hybrid organizations are faced with multiple arrays of issues including scarce resources, the dual mission of achieving social value creation and financial purposes while managing the competing social and market logics (Doherty et al., 2014). The research on the hybrid organizations is still considered relatively new and it challenges multiple organizations like social ventures, corporations and not for profits as well to generate revenue in addition to donations so as to pursue dual goals (Battilana, 2018).

This field has suffered the problems associated with newness but recently there has been a huge trend among the social enterprises for measuring their social and financial performance despite the challenges faced during the measurement (Bacq et al., 2015; Blundel & Lyon, 2015). The importance of performance measurement in this sector has increased due to its ability to ease social issues (Chmelik et al., 2015).

Since, social enterprises are suggested to have a hybrid organization set up in order to bring about the socio-economic impact (Goyal et al., 2015), the financial measurement is just one element and cannot do justice with the broader measurement of their growth. Therefore, one needs to include the scaling of social impact as well in the debate. It is also considered as an alternative model for sustainability, by taking into



account both outcomes, i.e. social benefit along with wealth generation (Chell, 2007). In contrast to the commercial sector, strict monitoring may not be present in the social sector which makes it compulsory to adopt some appropriate performance measures (Thompson et al., 2000). In an effort to make it happen, the term of “social wealth” was used by Zahra et al. (2009, p. 519), including both economic and social wealth and it was defined as:

*“A metric for measuring the contributions of social entrepreneurship within the context of total wealth maximization”.*

This multi-dimensional performance measurement is also synonymous with the notion of “shared value” introduced by Porter and Kramer (2012). Shared value focusses on economic value creation along with social value creation for society by focusing on its needs. This concept is equally applicable to developing economies as it is for developed economies. The social enterprises are supposed to scale faster if they create shared value as compared to pure social programs who find it difficult to grow and move towards self-sustainability.

The emergent reporting practices of social enterprises display a blended approach by taking into account both the financial performance and the resultant social and environmental impact and outcomes they create (Nicholls, 2009). One of the studies on social enterprises in India concluded that the products and services are designed to earn profits along with social impact (Upadhyay et al., 2017). Another study concluded that the organizations were employing the wider social and environmental impact into

account and not merely financial terms for evaluating the growth (Blundel & Lyon, 2015).

One of the most important strategies followed by the social entrepreneurs is measuring their success and they follow different standards for it (Barendsen & Gardner, 2004). Still another study on the non-governmental organizations (NGOs) stressed that the major purpose of scaling up is not about becoming larger rather it is about expanding the impact (Uvin, Jain, & Brown, 2000). It is also not necessary that growth in one should always be at the cost of others. The social enterprises try to come up with a win-win situation model.

Though qualitative measures can serve the purpose but in order to develop the benchmarks to spread the impact, it is of utmost importance to quantify the performance. The stakeholders are also demanding for quantitative information to evaluate social businesses (Haski-Leventhal & Mehra, 2016). Therefore, it is suggested to take both measures into account while assessing the performance of social ventures (Bocken et al., 2016).

### **2.3.1 Scaling of Social Impact**

The literature on the social impact has revealed the conceptualization of the similar terms of social value (Granados & Rivera, 2017; Moss, Short, Payne, & Lumpkin, 2011; Santos, 2012), social performance (Mair & Marti, 2006) and social return on investment (Hall, Millo, & Barman, 2015) to denote this phenomenon. A much broader definition of the social impact is stated as:

*“Scaling social impact is the process of expanding or adapting an organization’s output to better match the magnitude of the social need or problem being tackled.”*  
(Desa & Koch, 2014, p. 148).

However, the term social impact will be used in this study to avoid any confusion and to ensure consistency. The ‘scaling up’ can be regarded as something purely quantitative. It is an indicator of the growth in the size of the current activities, by adding up more money and number of employees, that ultimately increase the number of beneficiaries served (Uvin et al., 2000). Scalability can also be defined as “the capacity to expand quickly, effectively and efficiently” (Goyal et al., 2015, p. 861).

The scaling of social impact is important in social enterprises (Molecke & Pinkse, 2017) due to two important reasons; the first one is achieving the economies of scale so as to become financially viable and the second one is to address the gravity of the need (Bocken et al., 2016; Hammond et al., 2007; C. K. Prahalad, 2005). Despite the importance given to scaling of the social impact as a key variable in the social entrepreneurship (Bacq et al., 2015; Bloom & Smith, 2010; M. T. Dacin et al., 2011; Mair & Marti, 2006; Short et al., 2009), the field is still facing the issues of newness for measuring it with a chronic shortage of empirical studies relative to theoretical articles (Moss et al., 2008; Rawhouser, Cummings, & Newbert, 2017). Empirical studies are necessary for generalizing any research approach in social entrepreneurship (Sengupta & Sahay, 2017).

The performance measurement through social impact has been identified as a differentiating characteristic of social businesses (Austin et al., 2006). According to Jason Saul, the founder and president of Mission Measurement, the field of social entrepreneurship is now converting into a social capital market where it is imperative to look at the outcomes and measurement of the impact to improve it and to draw the attention of the stakeholders. While talking to fifth annual conference of social entrepreneurs on measuring social impact, he has identified three major changes in this sector; 1) funding is over now and social entrepreneurs can sell social impact as their product; 2) focus on outcomes rather than activities and finally; 3) measurement instead of evaluation (Kickul, Gundry, & Griffiths, 2009). The success of the social ventures can be predicted to rely upon their ability to scale their social impact (Bloom & Smith, 2010; Dees et al., 2004), but such organizations are rare which succeed and scale to cast an impact (Bocken et al., 2016).

The scaling of social impact is imperative in developing markets. But how do social enterprises make it happen, while facing the challenges of the informal economy and that too located at the base of pyramid, is unknown (Desa & Koch, 2014). Scaling of the social impact is the most desired outcome (Weber et al., 2015) and is also considered as one of the key outcome variable in the field of social entrepreneurship (Alvord et al., 2004; Bloom & Smith, 2010) for its ability to measure the superior performance of social enterprises. But there are few practicing tools for measuring social performance (Renko, 2013) resulting in inconsistent researches for measuring the social impact.

It is imperative to define the scaling of social impact to proceed further for measuring it as there is a lack of widely agreed upon definition (Ebrahim & Rangan, 2014). It is defined differently along different disciplines like in entrepreneurship, it is growth in revenue (Desa & Basu, 2013), growth in sector in non-profit management perspective (Hammack, 2001), serving more people as target groups (Uvin, 1995) and lasting changes in people's lives (Ebrahim & Rangan, 2014) in international development literature. Few practicable definitions of the scaling of social impact were developed and one such is by Bocken et al. (2016), which is described along with some of the other key definitions in the table 2.4:

Table 2.4  
*Scaling of Social Impact Definitions*

<b>Author (year)</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Uvin et al. (2000, p. 1417)	Increasing the size of the current activities by adding up more money and the number of employees that ultimately increase the number of beneficiaries served.
Dees et al. (2004)	The ability of the organization to spread social innovation as an organizational model, programs or principles.
Dees (2008)	Increasing the impact, a social-purpose organization produces, to better match the magnitude of the social need or problem it seeks to address.
Murray et al. (2010)	The process of closing the gap between the real and ideal conditions regarding particular social needs or problems.
Gabriel (2014)	To increase the number of people who benefit from social innovation.

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Weber et al. (2015, p. 12)      Scaling is defined here as the most effective and efficient possible increase in social impact created by a social enterprise based on its operational model, with the goal of satisfying the demand for the relevant product or service.

Bocken et al. (2016, p. 7)      “Increasing the number of customers or members of a business as well as expanding its offer and maximizing its revenues until it reaches millions of people.”

Stephan, Patterson, Kelly, and Mair (2016, p. 2)      “Beneficial outcomes resulting from prosocial behavior that are enjoyed by the intended targets of that behavior and/or by the broader community of individuals, organizations, and/or environments”.

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Growth in employment and assets may not be always a correct parameter to measure the growth and performance of social ventures (Blundel & Lyon, 2015). Innovation, outcomes, and scaling of social impact are the basic metrics for measuring and assessing the success of social enterprises and not just growth in firm size and revenue like commercial business enterprises (Bacq et al., 2015). The impact, in turn, results in the transformation of the social structure that gave rise to the problem (Alvord et al., 2004; Murray et al., 2010).

Sometimes the social enterprises also experience an increased pressure to measure the social impact to scale their mission (Battilana & Mair, 2014; Chmelik et al., 2015) due to the increased expectation of accountability and standardization by the stakeholders for developing formal methodologies (Haski-Leventhal & Mehra, 2016). This mantra of impact measurement with its relationship with accountability is an effort to entice

the different sources of finances and other support including foundations, governments and impact investors (Battilana & Mair, 2014; Ebrahim & Rangan, 2014). The venture is considered more attractive and successful when there is a greater social value generated (Albert, Dean, & Baron, 2016). However, merely attracting funding is not sufficient for true social enterprises rather it is imperative for them to link the funding with the mission-related performance (Dees, 1998).

The social ventures can also impact the economic, political or cultural aspect of an individual's experience depending upon the nature of their initiatives (Alvord et al., 2004). If the initiative is economic then the impact would be visible by the overall improvement in one's income and economic status. Among all, the most common initiatives are targeted at leveraging the economic aspect of the primary stakeholders. While initiatives for leveraging political transformations are least common.

There are two major patterns for scaling of social impact (Alvord et al., 2004; Bacq et al., 2015; Desa & Koch, 2014; Uvin, 1995). The depth impact is in line with the functional and political scaling mentioned by Uvin (1995) i.e. expanding coverage by providing a wider range of products and services both in number and types to the primary stakeholders (Uvin, 1995). While the breadth impact is identified as a term similar to the Uvin (1995) conception of quantitative and organizational scaling. It focuses on increasing the membership and expanding the coverage by providing the same products and services to more people meaning by impacting geographically. This concept is based on the economies of scale (C. K. Prahalad, 2005), whereby the unit

cost is reduced as it is introduced to multiple geographic locations (Desa & Koch, 2014).

Despite different opinions regarding social impact measurement, the quest for coming up with a quantifiable measure is still the need of the hour due to ever-increasing discussion going on between different funder groups to assess and evaluate the non-financial performance (Goyal et al., 2015).

### **2.3.2 Financial Performance**

Though expanding the social impact is the dominant logic in social entrepreneurship, however, the financial aspect is also considered crucial in the scaling of the organization (Blundel & Lyon, 2015). The careful observations of many thoughtful observers identify the important economic dimension in most of the social problems (Dees & Anderson, 2006). Social enterprises are always identified by the significant level of economic risks they bear (Defourny & Nyssens, 2008).

Even if we go by the simplest definition of social enterprises, then we realize that it is like commercial entrepreneurship with an element of social impact. Therefore, social enterprise success can be determined through both financial and social performance. Unless it is not financially profitable, we cannot expect a social enterprise to make a difference in the social system where the social evil resides and cast an impact (Chmelik et al., 2015). In short, it is all about financing social impact through income streams (Bocken et al., 2016).



This brings our attention to the reality that no solution to the complex social problems can be long lasting until it is economically viable as well. It is also considered that innovation involved in sustainable societal transformation also takes into consideration the ongoing flow of resources along with the social impact (Alvord et al., 2004). In their effort to do so, they use whatso ever tool is adopted by the businesses to mobilize the resources and get the inspiration. Therefore, the social sector should not be considered as totally out of the market with no such exchange relationship as the one that characterizes the commercial ventures. Rather it should be considered along the continuum (Austin et al., 2006) with many shades of grey in between. The social sector is equally active in the market and competes fiercely with others based on their value proposition (Dees & Anderson, 2006).

Though the profit maximization is not the basic objective of social enterprises (Bocken et al., 2016), the concept of profitability is fully consistent with the social ventures (Mair & Marti, 2006). The ongoing provision of positive social impact requires the social ventures to adopt necessary strategies targeted at surplus while ensuring their sustainability (Chell, 2007; Doherty et al., 2014; Littlewood & Holt, 2018a). The primary objective of social ventures as a hybrid organization is to find creative ways to generate profits from their existing resources (Alberti & Garrido, 2017).

Commercial orientation is acknowledged as the most important success factor contributing to the sustainability of social ventures in another empirical study (Jenner, 2016). An exploratory case-based study on the mid-sized hybrid social enterprises revealed their dominant inclination towards the business aspects of their venture with

the underlying belief that successful social impact cannot be made without being financially profitable and sustainable (Chmelik et al., 2015). It was also wonderfully stated by one of the founders that the business side of their things mostly drives their give side. Another empirical case study of two social entrepreneurial ventures has revealed that ignoring the financial objective can, in fact, cause hindrance in the way towards the social mission achievement (Mitra, Byrne, & Janssen, 2017). It can inhibit the effectiveness of the social impact which is the main purpose of such hybrid social ventures.

Likewise, an additional case study has focused the importance of blending the social objective with economic viability (Perrinia, Vurroa, & Costanzo, 2010). The abovementioned study has considered the economic viability as a mean towards achieving the ultimate end of social change and sustainability (Littlewood & Holt, 2018a). As the field of social entrepreneurship is in the phase of transition, therefore, it is a must to pay attention to both financial and social logic simultaneously to create value which is sustainable in the long run along with having a financially stable organizational model.

#### **2.4 Empirical Studies on Social Enterprise Performance**

Social entrepreneurship as a scholarly field is still in its budding phase (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Dionisio, 2019; Dorado, 2006; Roberts & Woods, 2005; Short et al., 2009). Most of the early researches were focused on building the conceptual grounds with few empirical studies which are outnumbered by the conceptual ones. The focus of the conceptual studies was on defining the different key construct in the field of

social entrepreneurship. The field slowly moved towards the empirical evolution from early 2000. It may be due to the importance of the empirical studies for testing and developing the theories and evolving a particular field from a mere descriptive view towards a more predictive purpose (Snow & Thomas, 1994).

#### **2.4.1 Capabilities Approach**

There has been little attention on the theoretical and empirical researches on antecedents of the scaling of the social impact. But some of the earlier attempts were made for understanding the role of those organizational capabilities which are required for this desired outcome. One such work was developing and empirically testing the organizational capabilities through SCALER model of scaling social entrepreneurial impact (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009; Bloom & Smith, 2010). SCALERS is an acronym used to describe each of the organizational capability i.e. staffing, communicating, alliance building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replicating and stimulating market forces, for the creation and maintenance of different forms of capital to scale the social impact.

The SCALERS model was unable to identify the capabilities relevant to resource-poor environment. Therefore, another important study addressed that issue and focused on the organizational capabilities required for social impact scaling in BOP markets in emerging economies (Desa & Koch, 2014). The capabilities included social innovation i.e. that creates value for the local community, organization, and product cost design to increase affordability and penetration for economically viable distribution channels, needed for the scaling of social impact along the dimensions of

breadth and depth. This process is mediated by the contrasting approaches to resource mobilization, entrepreneurial adjustment and operating routines (Desa & Koch, 2014).

The capabilities are also discussed under the context of two perspectives on scaling i.e. old paradigm focusing on entire replication of the system where it is hard to separate the inter-related routines and the other one adapts key social innovation as a theory of change for scaling purpose (Uvin et al., 2000). The mediational role of organizational capabilities is also studied between governance behavior (stewardship and agency) and financial performance and social impact (Bacq et al., 2011).

#### **2.4.2 Strategies for Scaling Social Impact**

Social ventures can enhance their social impact by utilizing a wide range of strategies. One such study came up with three broad categories of strategies including growth within the organization through diversification, inhouse growth, etc., scaling through formalized relationships with other provider including spin-offs and social franchise and open access sharing and disseminating good practice through training and network established to share good practices (Lyon & Fernandez, 2012).

The most popular Ansoff growth matrix is also applied in the similar vein to social businesses by taking into consideration all the four strategies that can play its role for scaling (Bocken et al., 2016). These strategies include market penetration, product development, market development and diversification that can be applied along different stages of the life cycle of a social venture.

Still, in another study, the strategic growth orientation along with commercial outcomes was identified as the primary driver behind ongoing delivery of positive social impact in contemporary social ventures (Jenner, 2016). This growth orientation requires the strategist to keep strategy, networking and organization capabilities in line to execute it properly. The important social legitimacy can be achieved through adopting marketing orientation. The strategies followed by a social enterprise, for serving the BOP market in developing countries like India, are segmentation, innovation and prototyping, local skill building, stakeholder collaboration and exclusive delivery system (Goyal et al., 2017). These strategies are targeted for creating sustainable, socially relevant and scalable inclusive business models.

#### **2.4.3 Business Models**

The basic difference between social and commercial businesses is in their value proposition which is at the heart of their business model (Grassl, 2012). One of the important research has focused exclusively on business models in social ventures that have catered to the unmet needs not properly addressed by the social or economic institution (Seelos & Mair, 2005). Therefore, social businesses create new business models, organization structures and strategies for creating social value while mobilizing limited resources.

The underlying business models of social enterprises play an important role in the successful creation of social and financial value (Weber et al., 2013) as different social organizational type is impacted differently by different strategies. An in-depth case study of a social venture revealed that opportunity recognition followed by innovative

resource mobilization can act like a successful business model which can lead to self-sustainability through social value creation (Jokela & Elo, 2015). Another empirical study identifies three business models i.e. non-profits, integrated social enterprises and hybrid social ventures for measuring the performance of the social ventures (Chmelik et al., 2015).

#### **2.4.4 Inhibiting Factors**

The highly institutionalized corporate welfare states like Germany faces the challenges in social entrepreneurship field in the form of barriers confronted by the relevant actors i.e. leader, organization and ecosystem, for scaling the social impact with (pre) conditions of ability, willingness, and admission (Scheuerle & Schmitz, 2015). The three social forces which determine such (pre) conditions are cognitive frames, social network, and institutions.

Another study by Weerawardena and Mort (2006) shed light on the constraints faced by the NPO involved in social entrepreneurship including dynamic environment, sustainability, and social mission. The commercial mindset of investors expecting a quick profit return is disappointed by the lack of financial metrics combined with vaguely defined benefits hinders the organization to scale up (Menon et al., 2015). Also, the political and economic constraints specific to particular geographies combined with logistical and value chain barriers are important to consider (Alvord et al., 2004).

#### **2.4.5 Impact Measurement Methods**

Several studies have raved about the impact measurement method. One such study addresses the issue of accountability pressure to measure the social impact of the social ventures (Molecke & Pinkse, 2017). The findings revealed the way social entrepreneurs combine the ideational and material bricolage to measure the social impact while delegitimizing the formal methodologies by considering them immeasurable, imprudent, irrelevant and incomplete so as to increase the legitimacy of their bricolage approach. This true essence of bricolage, i.e. refusal to be constrained by the limitations which in this case is formal methodologies, is practiced in its true spirit here.

One of the important research has focused on similarities and differences between India and Australia for impact measurement (Haski-Leventhal & Mehra, 2016). The study has used the signaling theory by explaining the reason behind impact measurement i.e. to give signals to stakeholders and to build their legitimacy to remain competitive and also to get rid of negative perceptions regarding inefficiencies surrounding social enterprises.

#### **2.4.6 Personal Characteristics of Social Entrepreneur**

Many researches have focused on connecting personal characteristics like personality traits, past experiences, etc. with the success of their social venture. For example, it was argued that trauma in the earlier life or life experiences with a deeply transformative effect have a significant role in the later lives of social entrepreneurs

(Barendsen & Gardner, 2004). They are energetic, persistent and confident and independent with an inspiring personality.

Another study is conducted to examine the relationship between personality traits and social enterprise perceived performance (Liang, Peng, Yao, & Liang, 2015). The results measured performance along four dimensions of personal issues, social aspects, business elements, and service programs. The personal characteristics of passion, energy, dedication and motivation to solve poverty-related social problems are also found to be related to innovation in resource-poor environment aiming at social value creations (Linaa, 2013).

Similarly, one study on 171 social ventures has found that the entrepreneurs with agency oriented mindset tend to view the only single goal of social entrepreneurial ventures while the others with stewardship mindset view the blended goals of such ventures including social impact and financial performance (Bacq, Janssen, & Kickul, 2016). Still, another study has focused on the relevant skills of the social entrepreneurs like interpersonal, action, information and analytical skills to educate the target audience, co-create with multiple stakeholders and address the root cause of the social problem (Mueller, Chambers, & Neck, 2013).

#### **2.4.7 Mission Centric Studies**

The mission is at the center of the discussion in the social entrepreneurship. The social mission is considered a unique selling proposition (USP) of the social enterprises (Chell, 2007). The motivation for creating a social change or fulfilling unmet social



needs and benefit the constituencies at large was central and focus of the study on nascent social enterprises (Renko, 2013). Another research has studies the effects of bricolage and collaborations on the mission drift i.e. changes in the mission of the social organizations (Kwong et al., 2017).

Such motivation for social value creation and not personal wealth (Peredo & Crisman, 2006) is known as prosocial motivation which plays a crucial role in new venture creation and exposes them to the risks of being less successful in their startup activities as compared to their commercial counterparts. The mission is given importance on equal footings, if not more, with financial viability in social businesses (Alter, 2007).

#### **2.4.8 Bricolage Behavior**

It was identified that social entrepreneurs identify under-utilized resources like people, building, equipment, etc. and put them to use to solve the social problems through new services and new ways of delivering services (Leadbeater, 1997). One such approach for recombining at hand resources is known as bricolage which is believed to be associated with the entrepreneurial success (Winkel, Vanevenhoven, Yu, & Bronson, 2013) especially under the resource-poor environment (Owusu & Janssen, 2013).

A case study on a social enterprise, Hub Helsinki in Finland, concluded that bricolage was continuously used in the to legitimize the value creation activities (Houtbeckers, 2011). There was also an informal assessment of the social impact made by the organization with formal documented one in its infancy. However, the study was narrowed down to include the “social bricolage”, a term introduced by Domenico et

al. (2010) including social value creation, stakeholder participation, and persuasion of other significant actors to leverage the acquisition of new resources and support along with the three original bricolage principles.

Another study has considered bricolage as not beneficial for the organization's growth by introducing the term of parallel and selective bricolage (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005; Rönkkö et al., 2014). Parallel bricolage is considered as injurious to the growth of the organization by preventing it while selective bricolage at startup phase is considered good.

#### **2.4.9 Social Capital**

The most important asset of the social ventures is their social capital i.e. the value which they derive from their networks as they mostly have little else to start with (Leadbeater, 1997). The building of a wider social network is believed to be positively related to the social venture performance as it gives access to ideas, people and money.

The importance of social capital for the social enterprises is due to their inability to demand a cost-covering fee for the products and services they offer and over-dependence on an external source of funding. It also helps in convincing and motivating the stakeholders to engage themselves with the mission of the social venture (Weber & Kratzer, 2013).

The network and benefits derived from that network can play an important role in the process of social entrepreneurship (Bornstein, 2003). They have been identified as an enabler to access, create and mobilize the resources. The social capital was proposed

as a potential antecedent of the social entrepreneurship as it increases the chances of starting a new social venture and survival rate, which in turn leads to social impact (Jiao, 2011). The four antecedents other than social capital are desirability and feasibility of social entrepreneur in the decision-making process, human capital, social and institutional environment factors.

However, there is a scarcity of literature on studying the role of social network on fulfilling both missions of social ventures i.e. social and financial value (Weber et al., 2013). The quantitative studies are even more scarce and under-developed (Murdock & Bradburn, 2005). One of the studies, however, utilized the data of Schwab foundation to study this relationship and came up with the conclusion that structural dimension of the social network i.e. network quantity, network widespread and network diversity has an impact on both social and financial success (Weber et al., 2013). All the three dimensions of social network positively influence the social impact in line with the previous studies (Austin et al., 2006; Sharir & Lerner, 2006). However, the network widespread has a U-shaped inverse relationship with financial value creation and network diversity showed no relationship with financial value creation, contrary to the previous studies (Lechner, Dowling, & Welp, 2006).

## **2.5 Strategic Choices for Resource Mobilization in Social Enterprise Performance**

One of the key components that drives the scaling of social impact and improved performance of social businesses is the ability to obtain necessary resources (Weber et al., 2012; E. Y. Zhao & Lounsbury, 2016) as all the efforts for scaling the social

impact requires additional resources. However, social enterprises are usually confronted with issues of smallness and newness while obtaining resources for growth along with expected razor-thin profit margins (Desa & Basu, 2013).

The social mission that drives the social organization is blamed on one hand, for displaying a hazy picture of commercial attractiveness of the venture for the investors, along with the environment that makes it difficult to access quality resources on the other. Thus, it is difficult for such organizations to generate resources as opposed to their commercial counterparts. For this reason, they tend to rely on different channels to acquire them. The organizations build and use their social assets, adapt their available resources in a flexible manner and make multiple uses of their assets when exposed to resource-starved environment (Diomande, 1990). The two labels namely “networkers and supporters” (Starr & MacMillan, 1990) and “resourcing” are considered important for obtaining resources (Weber et al., 2012).

The bricolage behavior is termed as the ability for displaying the mindset of resourcefulness both at the individual and organizational level by utilizing the existing resources under resource-poor environment (Linaa, 2013). However, the existing resources do not exclusively include one’s own resources. Rather it also includes those which are possessed by the close network and that can be accessed easily. Social capital, being the resources embedded in a social network, is utilized and exploited for accessing and generating resources (Starr & MacMillan, 1990) necessary for performance. Therefore, in this study bricolage and social capital are taken as strategic

choices to access and mobilize resources both internally and externally, to come up with sustainable performance.

### 2.5.1 Bricolage Behavior

The resource-constrained environments are innate terrain for entrepreneurship, especially for the social one. When organizations face such a situation, they are left with few options; 1) engage in resource-seeking behavior, 2) avoid or escape it, 3) and the third one is the bricolage based on the work of Penrose (1959). He viewed resources as a bundle of possible services that are rendered for the productive operations of the firm. Hence, one firm may view similarly restricted resources as worthless but still, another considers it to be worthwhile (Penrose, 1959). Bricolage makes use of such resources at hand which is considered worthless by other organizations. The definitions of the bricolage behavior are mentioned in table 2.5 below:

Table 2.5  
*Bricolage Behavior Definitions*

Author (year)	Definition
Strauss (1966, p. 17)	Bricolage is defined as the act of making do with what is available, and of combining (tinkering) the available resources in order to create new opportunities.
T. Baker and Nelson (2005, p. 333)	Making do by applying combinations of resources at hand to new problems and opportunities in penurious and resource-constrained environment.

Steffens and Senyard (2009)	Focus on using resources at hand rather than purchasing new resources, using existing resources for new purposes, recombining existing resources and making do to provide breakthrough solutions in firm creation.
Klerk (2015, p. 831)	Something that is available at a given time which can be tapped into as needed to access diverse talents and resources to create what could not be otherwise possible in a resource and institutionally constrained environment.

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This term for a well-developed pattern of behavior was first coined by Strauss (1966) to explain the creation of something new by recombination and transformation of existing resources including improvisation (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005). However, it was used under the context of entrepreneurship in 2003 by the Ted Bakers who introduced the theory of entrepreneurial bricolage behavior.

The three significant building blocks of bricolage are identified by T. Baker and Nelson (2005). The first one is biasness towards action by “making do”, i.e. not just thinking about a solution but actually taking some action to solve a potential problem. Secondly, it focuses on resources at hand which is considered worthless by other organizations but the firm showing bricolage behavior can see something worthwhile in the existing resources which are cheaply or freely available. Lastly, there is ingenious recombination of such resources for the solution of new problems and new purposes and not for the existing one.

The resources can both take the form of material or non-material constituting the entrepreneur's trove e.g. clients, office, skills of the employees, founder and volunteers, etc. (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005). Here, we can see the role of bricolage which bails out the social enterprises by effectively bundling and combining their cheap resources (Desa & Basu, 2013).

Bricolage is associated with resource-poor environment which is also a natural habitat for social enterprises which are plentiful in such habitat (Desa, 2007; Yujico, 2008). Such an environment is especially challenging for the social venture when it comes to attracting human, financial and physical capital (Linaa, 2013). Of all the resources, the lack of financial resources is the most important barrier that can hinder social enterprises (Sharir & Lerner, 2006; Thompson et al., 2000).

Though it has been identified long time ago that social enterprises especially make do with the resources at hand, but the behavior which actually make it happen to cast an impact on the lives of the disenfranchised members of the society is badly ignored (Bornstein, 2003). Bricolage behavior is believed to present a noteworthy opportunity seized by social entrepreneurs to address emerging social needs (Zollo, Rialti, Ciappei, & Boccardi, 2018).

The bricolage is particularly important in situations where the product/service aimed at solving a social problem is unclear about its market price if it is too low or the target market is unable to pay for it (Desa & Basu, 2013). This is especially true for young and small social ventures to get engaged in bricolage for resources (T. Baker &

Nelson, 2005). Though mostly bricolage is traditionally produced through an ad-hoc process but it can be also opted by the organizations as a strategic tool (Gundry et al., 2011b; Kickul et al., 2009).

It has been identified that like social entrepreneurs, bricoleurs have an amazing capability of surviving under various economic conditions (Stinchfield, Nelson, & Wood, 2013). Bricolage can help social enterprises learn through doing (Kickul et al., 2009) which is an important part of this behavior i.e. make do. The use of bricolage is widespread and practiced a lot in social enterprises as indicated in a number of studies (Desa, 2012; Gundry et al., 2011b; Zollo et al., 2018).

### **2.5.2 Bricolage and Social Enterprise Performance**

As there is a tendency among the social enterprises to intentionally locate themselves in the areas where the market failures occur (Domenico et al., 2010) especially in emerging economies (Desa & Koch, 2014; London & Hart, 2004; C. K. Prahalad, 2005; Short et al., 2009), therefore, it is not uncommon to experience the limitations related to resource shortage (Molecke & Pinkse, 2017). The impoverished environment represents one of the most important barriers in the way of sustainability of social ventures (E. Y. Zhao & Lounsbury, 2016). However, successful social entrepreneurs refuse to accept the limitations imposed by their environment and always try to cope up with it (Desa & Basu, 2013).

The success of the firm can be gauged through the transition from resource-poor to becoming resource strong organization (L. Zhao & Aram, 1995). This can be done



through a number of planned and unplanned strategies by creatively mobilizing the resources. In addition to financial performance, it is suggested to investigate the association between bricolage and other dimensions of performance (An, Rüling, Zheng, & Zhang, 2019). Effective resource mobilization is believed to have a significant relationship with social impact scaling. It should be kept in mind that all the efforts and strategies to scale the social impact require incremental resources even if it is as simple as disseminating the principles and information to inspire others (Dees et al., 2004). However, this access to resources is challenging for social businesses due to the difficulties faced while accessing and grabbing the interest of investors. This can be attributed mainly to the ambiguity attached to their social purpose (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Mair & Marti, 2006).

The resources include social capital, financial capital, technological capital and professional human capital (Desa & Koch, 2014). Of all the resources, financial one is considered as the most crucial actor and enabler to growth (Bocken et al., 2016). One resource mobilization approach, to access financial capital along with other resources, is bricolage which is abundant in social enterprises and deemed important to get a deeper insight into their behavior and functioning (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005; Desa, 2012; Domenico et al., 2010; Houtbeckers, 2011; C. K. Prahalad, 2005).

It is observed quite often that certain ventures engage themselves in bricolage when faced with institutional constraints and limitations (Desa, 2012), especially the social ventures (T. Baker, Miner, & Eesley, 2003), which are an ideal and natural organizational setting to observe this phenomenon (Gundry et al., 2011b). Bricolage

can help clarify the question of how social enterprises manage with little resources (Houtbeckers, 2011) and its connection with value creation rather than value appropriation (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005). It is believed that social entrepreneurs can possibly address emergent social needs through the significant opportunity of bricolage (Zollo et al., 2018).

Existing literature has studied the multiple consequences of bricolage (Halme et al., 2012; Stenholm & Renko, 2016). Specifically, bricolage is found to cast a positive effect on the firm's performance (Bojica, Istanbuli, & Fuentes-Fuentes, 2014; Jaouen & Nakara, 2015; Klerk, 2015; Senyard et al., 2010; Senyard, Davidsson, & Steffens, 2015; Winkel et al., 2013), as a small step innovation or even considered among one of the types of innovation (Fuglsang & Flemming, 2011) especially in BOP (Agarwal, Grottke, Mishra, & Brem, 2017), synonymous to creativity (Jaouen & Nakara, 2015) and proven to bail out the resource-constrained participants (T. Baker, Pollock, & Sapienza, 2013). A 4-year longitudinal empirical investigation of the nascent and young firms found a positive relationship between bricolage and performance (Senyard et al., 2015). Another empirical study on the Australian entrepreneurs concluded with the positive relationship between bricolage behavior and corporate entrepreneurship performance (Burgers et al., 2014).

It is considered as a must behavior to be adopted by the social enterprises especially for their survival while facing finite resources and infinite institutional constraints without any political or regulatory support (Gundry et al., 2011b; Kickul et al., 2009). The greater realization of social impact depends upon the ability to recombine the

existing resources at hand for new problems (Bacq et al., 2015). Therefore, bricolage serves as an important strategic tool chosen by the social enterprises depending on their resources at hand in the resource-poor and uncertain environment to bring any social change (Gundry et al., 2011b).

Social bricolage is an informal practice of assembling resources, a term introduced by Domenico (Domenico et al., 2010; Smith & Stevens, 2010). According to this multiple case qualitative empirical study, social bricolage cast a concrete impact on venture's outcomes by coming up with a sustainable venture with social value creation. In a penurious environment, bricolage is used by the 202 technology social ventures from 42 countries, to sustain and grow (Desa & Basu, 2013). According to one study with data generated through observation, bricolage is taken as a mean to legitimize the activities of Hub Helsinki. This social organization practices social bricolage for social impact assessment as a performance indicator (Houtbeckers, 2011).

It was also observed that for improving the lives of the marginalized communities, their own at hand resources were exploited greatly, instead of dependence on external sources, as it enhances the likelihood of sustainable social change (Alvord et al., 2004). Empirical research on three countries i.e. Brazil, US, and South Africa concluded that successful social enterprises engage in bricolage for social value creation (Sunduramurthy et al., 2016). The similar phenomenon was observed in a case study of reconstructed living labs (RLabs), which pursued bricolage by making the best out of whatever is at hand and achieved sustainable outcomes (Busch, 2017).

Another important research on 123 social enterprises through survey revealed that bricolage acts as an important tool and positively plays its role in the scaling of social impact under resource constraints (Bacq et al., 2015). The recombination of the resources and capabilities can serve as a preferred approach for scaling the social impact besides expanding the functions of social enterprises (Blundel & Lyon, 2015). A quantitative study has studied the role of bricolage on the growth of social entrepreneurial organizations (Bojicaa, Jiménez, Navab, & Fuentes-Fuentes, 2018). Similarly, another study has found the effect of bricolage in the expansion of products in the existing markets ultimately resulting in the social impact (Kwong et al., 2017). Another case study on social ventures in India and Japan have termed the utilization of local available unutilized resources as the most important strategy to overcome the lack of a sound financial business model for sustainable performance (Sharmistha & Munehiko, 2018).

### **2.5.3 Social Capital**

Since gaining currency in the organization studies, social capital has proved itself as a powerful factor contributing to the relative success of individuals and organizations in the multiple arenas (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Organizations are considered as promising institutional settings for the development of social capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). It has long been identified that resources embedded in one's network i.e. social capital, is crucial for the performance of the organizations (Stam, Arzlanian, & Elfring, 2013). The basic assumption is that the access to resources is provided by the network ties (Thompson et al., 2000) which in turn aids in the superior performance of the organizations.

It was suggested in important research that the firms differ in their performance based on their different abilities to create and exploit the social capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Social capital makes it possible for the organizations to achieve their ends and its role has been influential in achieving the economic performance of firms (W. E. Baker, 1990). It has been argued a long time back that a culture of trust and spontaneous sociability is essential for business success and economic prosperity (Fukuyama, 1995). The two routes towards social capital include first taking it as capital on its own e.g. person with larger contact networks gets a better job. The second route considers accessing the resources of the people by the socially proximate one (Burt, 1992).

There was a lack of consensus on the definition of social capital initially. Some of the researchers confined it to the inclusion of structure of relationship networks only (W. E. Baker, 1990) while others also included the actual and potential resources accessed through these networks in the conceptualization of social capital (P. Bourdieu, 1986, 1993; Lin, 2001; Putnam, 1995). Therefore, one of the important definition states social capital as:

*“Resources embedded in social network accessed and used by actors for actions”* (Lin, 2001, p. 24)

Some of the other important definitions of social capital are stated in table 2.6 as under:

Table 2.6

*Social Capital Definitions*

<b>Author (year)</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Pierre Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992)	The sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or group by virtue of processing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.
Burt (1992)	Social capital is a set of social resources embedded in the structure of contacts or relationships.
Putnam (1995)	Social capital refers to features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit.
(Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 243)	The sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships and the assets that may be mobilized through that network possessed by an individual or social unit.
Lin (1999, p. 471)	Social capital refers primarily to resources accessed in social networks.
Lin (2001, p. 19)	Investment in social relations with expected returns in the marketplace.
Adler and Kwon (2002)	Social capital is the goodwill available to individuals or groups. Its source lies in the structure and content of the actor's social relations. Its effects flow from the information, influence, and solidarity it makes available to the actor.

It acts as a facilitator of entrepreneurship (Casson & Giusta, 2007; Chung & Gibbons, 1997) and interunit resource exchange and product innovation (Gabbay & Zuckerman,

1998). It is considered to be “a wonderfully elastic term” (Lappe & Bois, 1997, p. 119), which is ‘many things to many people’ (Narayan & Pritchett, 1999, p. 871). The embeddedness of the entrepreneurs in their networks of relationships has been acknowledged (Adler & Kwon, 2002) since as long as the 1980’s (Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986). The ensuing resources embedded in such a network are crucial for the superior performance of the organizations (Stam et al., 2013). However, normally the resources which are required to be mobilized by the entrepreneurs are under the control of someone else i.e. the resource holder (Villanueva, Ven, & Sapienza, 2012). Therefore, the social assets are exploited to co-opt the resources which can drastically reduce the cost of doing business as well (Starr & MacMillan, 1990).

Similarly, under the umbrella of social entrepreneurship, the provision of the lasting solutions to the complicated societal problems requires social ventures to use all kind of their tools to mobilize the resources so as to cast a social impact on one hand while being financially viable on the other. One such important tool is the mobilization of the social capital embedded in one’s network (Yujuico, 2008). Apart from commercial ventures, the reaped benefits from such network and their mobilization can play a very important role in the process of social entrepreneurship as well (Bornstein, 2003). It is asserted that social entrepreneurship cannot be attributed to a single charismatic social entrepreneur rather groups and formal or informal networks are involved the conception and operationalization of the whole idea (Steyaert & Dey, 2010).

Social capital is particularly important in the field of social entrepreneurship due to its ability to address social issues and involving multiple stakeholders in response to

extremely resource-poor environment (Dufays & Huybrechts, 2014). Social entrepreneurs tend to boost cooperation and trust by employing different methods to build social capital in whatever field they focus, be it environment, unemployment, disabilities or poverty. Their major focus is to empower the society in general and at large so that the benefits should not be confined to one particular aspect (Praszkier, Nowak, & Zablocka-Bursa, 2009). The social entrepreneurs can also mobilize their stakeholders to get acquainted with the resource holders to benefit their venture (Sunduramurthy et al., 2016).

It can serve as the avenue to simultaneously create, access and mobilize the required resources. Social capital is appraised as one of the most important potential precursors of social entrepreneurship as it enhances the social start-ups and their survival chances (Jiao, 2011). It has been found in a study by Shane and Cable (2002) that all the major forms of resources are mobilized through the entrepreneur's network. Despite the support of the existing literature for the pre-existing social ties importance, still there exist a significant gap in understanding their role in the resource mobilization process (Clough, Fang, Vissa, & Wu, 2019).

However, multiple studies have confirmed that the social capital is not a unidimensional construct across wide-ranging literature (Koka & Prescott, 2002; Lechner et al., 2006; Moran, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Narayan & Cassedy, 2001). The need to clarify the dimensions of social capital should be on the top of the priority while doing research (Putnam, 1995). Specifically, it was identified as multidimensional in 1995 by Putnam including variants i.e. bonding, bridging,



structural, cognitive and relational social capital (Littlewood & Khan, 2018; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Thomas, 2019).

This call for sorting the different dimensions of social capital resulted in the three dimensions. The first one is the structural dimension which refers to the “the overall pattern of connections between actors that is, who you reach and how you reach them” (Burt, 1992). The actors here refer to the people and stakeholders both inside and outside the organization. The important facets of this dimension are presence or absence of network ties, network configuration and appropriable organizations (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The location of an actor within the social structure of interaction can help in accessing information and other resources (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998).

The second one is called relational and it refers to “those assets created and leveraged through relationships” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 244). The important facets of this dimension include trust and trustworthiness, norms and sanctions, obligations and expectations and identity and identification (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Trust is the attribute of the relationship while trust worthiness is an attribute of an individual involved in that relationship (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998).

Cognitive capital refers to “those resources providing shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 244). Its sub-dimensions include shared codes and language and shared narratives. It facilitates a common understanding of collective goals and proper ways of acting in

a social system (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998) also known as “public good aspect of social capital”.

Additionally, the two forms of social capital identified by the social scientists are bonding i.e. internal and bridging i.e. external social capital (Carolis & Saporito, 2006; Thomas, 2019). The internal form emphasizes on the linkages among the individuals or groups within the collectivity i.e. organization, while the external view focusses on the external ties to other external actors of a collectivity i.e. organization (Adler & Kwon, 2002, p. 21). The proponents of the internal social capital consider it more important for the achievement of common goals and objectives while the opponents consider such ties that bind and expensive to maintain.

Internal or bonding social capital reflects social ties between employees or units/departments, and the assets embedded in and available through these ties for the venture (i.e. information sharing, trust, and cohesion) (Adler & Kwon, 2002). This definition also considers the three facets of the social capital i.e. structural, relational and cognitive through the sharing of information, trust and a shared vision among the individuals within the organizations (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). The internal social capital focusses on the internal characteristics of the actors within collectivities foreground i.e. organization, community, nation, etc.

External or bridging social capital can be understood as social links with external entities, such as suppliers and partners, and the assets embedded in these links (i.e. mutual understanding and trust) (Dai et al., 2015, p. 42). It focusses on the foreground

of the external relations and explains the differential performance of the individuals and organizations relative to their rivals facilitated through their direct and indirect links (Adler & Kwon, 2002). This view considers the social capital as a resource that is inherently tied in social networking. It promotes mutual dependence thereby, resulting in the facilitation of the inter-organizational relationships that in turn invigorates collaborative value creation along with the growth and prosperity of the organizations (Villanueva et al., 2012).

It has been found that research needs to identify how the different dimensions and configurations of social networks influence (social) venture performance (Busch, 2014; Wu, 2008). It is also argued that the bridging and bonding form of social capital is not much explored in the existing literature (Murphy, 2019). Based on these observations, this study will also take social capital along two dimensions i.e. internal social capital and external social capital.

#### **2.5.4 Social Capital and Social Enterprise Performance**

The social networking has gained considerable attention in recent years under the context of social enterprises and has received even support and acknowledgment from the government, businesses and other institutions alike (Busch, 2014). It is said that the resources embedded in social networks i.e. social capital facilitate the outcomes of the action (Lin, 2001) of individuals (Narayan & Cassedy, 2001). The advantages that can be reaped from such networks are useful information flow, access to better human capital, financial capital thereby reducing the overall cost (Granados & Rivera, 2017; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998).

Social capital is considered as a critical independent variable and positively related to the growth and performance of the small entrepreneurial ventures (Hoang & Antoncic, 2003; Narayan & Cassedy, 2001; Stam et al., 2013). It is found that networking activities can grant a competitive advantage to the firms by accessing valuable resources (L. Zhao & Aram, 1995). In resource-constrained firms, resources are constructed socially through the preceding contacts (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Linaa, 2013), which are considered as resources at hand, for entrepreneurs (T. Baker et al., 2003) to achieve competitive advantage (L. Zhao & Aram, 1995).

Social capital is considered as potential resources accessed through social networks in an empirical study in China and as a distinguishing feature of high growth firms from low growth firms (L. Zhao & Aram, 1995). Another study has positively linked social capital with firm performance measures (Florin, Lubatkin, & Schulze, 2003). A significant positive relationship between just one aspect of social capital i.e. being a member of business network and performance outcomes of nascent enterprises were found in another empirical study (Davidsson & Honig, 2003). Similarly, one more case study has focused on the networking and social capital for the scaling up of social impact besides resource mobilization (Perrinia et al., 2010).

The social capital becomes essential, especially where the environment is characterized by the acute shortage of resources like BOP markets. Social capital is believed to be an important ingredient necessary to build the community that serves the purpose of bridging the gap between the resource holders and the ones in need of resources in BOP markets (Ansari et al., 2012). An important case study of Indian

social ventures has concluded that the presence of a network of stakeholders is necessary to make up for the strong financial capital based business model (Sharmistha & Munehiko, 2018). The inter-organizational relationships are suggested to play an important role in the hybrid organization for pursuing their dual goals while facing pressure related to resources constraints (Battilana, 2018).

However, one of the meta-analysis concluded that the relationship between social capital and non-financial performance is more significant as compared to its relationship with financial performance (Stam et al., 2013). At the fifth annual conference of social entrepreneurs for measuring the impact, Richard Steele of Bridgespan warned the social enterprises of the tough time during the economic crisis and suggested the coping mechanism by dedicating the resources for the development of the external relationships (NYU Stern, 2008). Such pre-existing relationships can also be utilized to access the resources possessed by the individuals necessary to innovate and perform. However, this field is still in an embryonic stage (Short et al., 2009) with a lack of substantial theories and models especially related to networking (Busch, 2014; Littlewood & Khan, 2018).

Social capital has always been present in the Asian context and extensively used in the development and management of resources in the social entrepreneurship (Hasan, 2005). The embeddedness of the social ventures in communities gives them easy access to resources and the subsequent impact on their performance (Alvord et al., 2004; M. T. Dacin et al., 2011; Mair & Marti, 2006). The social entrepreneurs can mobilize their stakeholders to get acquainted with the resource holders to benefit their

venture (Sunduramurthy et al., 2016). The strategic connectedness with networks both inside and outside the organizations result in greater mobilization of resources and facilitates trust and cooperation in new venture creation and scaling of the social innovation (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013).

Development of a network of contacts and relationships brings along with them trust and cooperation which in turn is seen as a mean for creating the tangible and intangible assets for the community (Thompson et al., 2000). The scaling decisions of the social bricoleurs type entrepreneurs can be influenced by the network of relationships and ties with different stakeholders in the local community in which they are surrounded (Bacq et al., 2015; Smith & Stevens, 2010). Similarly, it is stated that networking events with external stakeholders like government agencies, and relevant for-profit organizations can enhance the ability of social ventures to produce transformative change (Tasavori et al., 2018).

It is utmost important to develop social capital in order to cast a social impact on the lives of the people by helping them to get empowered independently (Thompson et al., 2000). The expansion of businesses in the new geographic areas i.e. scaling of social impact is made possible by the political support and necessary structure which are achieved initially through trust-based ties (Desa & Koch, 2014). Drawing on networks for measuring the growth, is considered a key capability of social ventures (Blundel & Lyon, 2015). A groundbreaking empirical research in social entrepreneurship has identified the crucial role of the social network in obtaining

capital resources and dedication to venture's success as the secret recipe of the successful social ventures (Sharir & Lerner, 2006).

Based on data from 58 enterprises, it was concluded that enterprises make use of their social capital to access resources that in turn promote the performance (Zhou, 2017). Another study proposed a model of the antecedents and consequences of the social entrepreneurship and came up with a positive relationship between individual-level social capital and social entrepreneurship (Jiao, 2011).

An examination of the social capital on the performance of the post-Soviet Russian organizations through 78 face to face interviews revealed the positive and direct impact of social capital on the firm performance (Batjargal, 2003). Similarly, organizational capabilities of lobbying by creating networks through partnerships and alliances has found its profound effects on both social and financial value creation (Bloom & Smith, 2010).

A case study on the agriculture and health sector of Kenya identified social capital as an important factor along with others for social enterprise growth and performance as it gives access to financial and human resources (Griffin, Darko, Chater, & Mburu, 2014). Another qualitative study has found the significant importance of social capital in the social entrepreneurship literature for the success of the ventures by mobilizing resources and expertise (Littlewood & Holt, 2018b).

Several empirical studies have stressed the importance of social capital development for the effective performance of social ventures. The achievement of the primary objective of social ventures i.e. social impact is believed to be facilitated by the development of social capital. In multiple studies, financial performance as a secondary objective also claims an important position for performance evaluation as it funds the social impact.

The performance measure of the social enterprises depends upon its financial viability especially if it is aiming for a social impact. This financial viability depends upon the efforts of the members who secure adequate resources for the said purpose (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010). In community-based tourism, networks are involved in providing positive effects in both the entrepreneurs' business and the community (C. Kline et al., 2014).

The database of 390 international social enterprises empirically investigated the relationship between three structural dimensions of social network with multiple performance measures of social enterprises. The study concluded with a profound impact of social network on social as well as financial value creation (Weber & Kratzer, 2013). It is therefore suggested to explore the other dimensions of the social network as well, including the relational, on the performance of social enterprises.

Another exploratory empirical study comprising 184 social enterprises has found a positive relationship between organizational capabilities of communication, by effectively persuading the stakeholders about its theory of change, and lobbying, by



creating networks in the form of partnerships and alliances to pursue its social mission, and financial performance and social impact of the social ventures (Bloom & Smith, 2010).

Internal social capital is believed to be lesser as compared to the external ties due to its linkages among the individuals or groups within that collectivity, thereby facilitating the pursuit of common goals (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Interorganizational networks are believed to ease the pressures imposed by resource limitations in hybrid organizations including social ventures (Battilana, 2018). However, despite their distinction, it is generally believed that both external (linkages with other firms and institutions) and the internal linkages exert influence on the capacity of the firm for effective action.

Despite the importance highlighted by multiple studies, a more fine-grained inquiry into the social capital with its variants and their role in the performance of the social ventures still need attention (Littlewood & Khan, 2018). The dire need for a quantitative theory testing research has also been identified due to prominence of mostly qualitative case studies.

## **2.6 Possible Mediator**

The importance of mediator has long been recognized in the research and it may simply be stated as a variable that accounts for the relation between a predictor and an outcome (Baron & Kenny, 1986). It is also known as a single or multiple intervening variables through which an independent variable exerts an effect on the dependent

variable (Hayes, 2009, p. 408). As there is a strong relation between the social capital and social enterprise performance on one hand and bricolage and social enterprise performance on the other, therefore, a mediator as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) would help to further enlighten us to the antecedents of social enterprise performance.

From a theoretical perspective, social entrepreneurship without the element of innovation is not appealing at all (Maclean et al., 2012). Rather it is argued that without innovation, social entrepreneurship should not be treated as a separate domain (Zahra et al., 2009) rather a sub-topic within non-profits (Dees & Anderson, 2006). It is the most integral part of social entrepreneurship and both concepts are deeply connected (Friedman & Desivilya, 2010; Peredo & McLean, 2006; Perrinia et al., 2010; Weerawardena & Mort, 2006). The dual goals, pursued by social enterprises, of financial and social value creation can be achieved through the introduction of innovative solutions (Dees, 2007; Gupta et al., 2015; Peredo & McLean, 2006).

Most of the definitions of social entrepreneurship includes innovation as the most important defining element. Also it is claimed that social entrepreneurship is all about introducing novel solutions to the most challenging problems of the society (Gundry et al., 2011b), therefore, the success of social enterprises can be best gauged by taking into account the innovations it introduces and the outcomes it produces (Bacq et al., 2015).

Innovation is a key concept in the field of social entrepreneurship (Renko, 2013; Short et al., 2009). While achieving firm growth targets, it is crucial for innovation to play its role (Penrose, 1959). A study on the hospitals in the United States nonprofits have regarded innovation as an important mediating step for achieving superior performance (McDonald, 2007). But instead of any general innovation term, social innovation is a relevant concept in social entrepreneurship. Many studies have placed the social innovation as a major defining characteristic of social enterprises (Biggeri, Testi, & Bellucci, 2017) and central to bring about social change in various fields irrespective of the fact that what organization form they use (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010).

Social innovation is inherently positive and appraisive (Ayob et al., 2016). It can be in the form of social innovation in a social program, an organization model or a set of principles (Dees et al., 2004). As social ventures are the main actors in the social innovation process, therefore, the products and services introduced by them fall under the domain of the social innovation (Biggeri et al., 2017). A case study on two social enterprises in Africa has identified the capabilities that lead to the innovation and which in turn can achieve the large-scale social impact and long-term financial sustainability (Gupta et al., 2015).

The radical RBT also emphasizes the essential presence of social innovation that is focused on the financial and social value creation simultaneously to effectively perform by taking into consideration the wellbeing of the multiple stakeholders (Dyck & Silvestre, 2018). Therefore, the theory also guides us to include social innovation

as a mediator to achieve the final objectives of financial value creation along with the scaling of social impact.

The mere presence of social capital does not ensure the materialization of the benefits that could be drawn out of it (Adler & Kwon, 2002). The link between social capital and organizational performance is not empirically conclusive and divergent as it is argued to ignore the mediating process that translates the social capital into organizational performance outcomes (Maurer et al., 2011) especially under the context of social enterprise performance (Busch, 2014). Another important study has also focused on the inconclusive empirical findings between social capital and firm performance and tried to tackle it with the introduction of a mediator (Wu, 2008). Therefore, this study proposes a mediator between social capital and social enterprise performance.

One of the quantitative study investigating the effect of bricolage on the growth of the social organization concluded that it is contingent upon different factors to drive the growth (Bojicaa et al., 2018). This study responds to the call to study the different conditions under which bricolage behavior leads to social organization performance.

### **2.6.1 Social Innovation**

The main purpose of social innovation is to improve the organization's performance so as to earn more money out of it (Pol & Ville, 2009). However, it can benefit the other parties as well like consumers and competitors besides the innovator. It should also be noted that not every innovation in the social sector is a social innovation unless

it possesses the features of satisfaction of social needs, empowerment and changes in social relations (Martinelli, 2012). Social innovation, despite being most desirable for economic growth and social transformation (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013), was considered as a disputed concept among the social scientists for long whereby some regarded it as a buzz word while others consider it as an important phenomenon distinct from other forms of innovation (Pol & Ville, 2009).

The term “social innovation” did not gain the popularity until the twenty-first century and was badly ignored (Mulgan, 2006) by the social policy makers despite the fact that it was originated from sociology (Ayob et al., 2016). Even before the explicit use of the term “social innovation”, its evidence can be traced in the previous studies where it was used as early as 1962. However, it was identified as a very potential area of research and inquiry after 1997 (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Martinelli, 2012).

The earlier development of this concept was built around social relations as it was believed that the innovations are embedded in social relations to qualify as social innovation. In the second phase, technological innovation was believed to affect society, thereby, making it a social innovation. Then the focus shifted to involving different groups that can influence the generation of new ideas leading to better societal impact. The studies afterward tried to relate social innovation with social value creation, hence, finally looking at its impact i.e. more than just an existing solution. It was also suggested as a mechanism to transform the welfare system of UK radically to deal the late 90’s social demand with its simple definition “new creative and imaginative community initiatives” (Leadbeater, 1997).

Some authors suggest that there is a need to theorize social entrepreneurship related innovation theory (Short et al., 2009). It is argued to be one of the form of innovation in general (Thomas, 2019). While still others consider social innovation as a term with inappropriate definition and invite to contribute to theory and practice (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014). Without any agreed-upon definition (Martinelli, 2012; Pol & Ville, 2009), it is a practice-led field and mostly actions of the people in new ways define it and it also varies in different contexts with varying social needs (The Young Foundation, 2012).

Though many prominent social innovations surfaced mainly in the developing countries but it is also considered as a vibrant field in developed countries as well (Santos, 2012). Though the debate on its most appropriate definition as a new phenomenon is still going on (Caroli, Fracassi, Maiolini, & Pulino, 2018), however, some of the important definitions are arranged and summarized in the following Table 2.7:

Table 2.7  
*Social Innovation Definitions*

<b>Author (year)</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Mumford (2002)	The term social innovation refers to the generation and implementation of new ideas about how people should organize interpersonal activities, or social interactions, to meet one or more common goals.

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Mulgan (2006, p. 8)	Social innovation refers to innovative activities and services that are motivated by the goal of meeting a social need and that are predominantly diffused through organizations whose primary purposes are social.
Heiscale (2007, p. 59)	Social innovations are changes in the <i>cultural, normative or regulative structures</i> [or classes] of the society which enhance its collective power resources and improve its economic and social performance.
Centre for Social Innovation (2008)	Social innovation refers to new ideas that resolve existing social, cultural, economic and environmental challenges for the benefit of people and planet. A true social innovation is system-changing –it permanently alters the perceptions, behaviors, and structures that previously gave rise to these challenges. Even more simply, social innovation is an idea that works for the public good.
Phills, Deiglmeier, and Miller (2008, p. 36)	“A novel solution to a social problem that is more effective, efficient, sustainable, or just than existing solutions and for which the value created accrues primarily to society as a whole rather than private individuals. A social innovation can be a product, production process, or technology (much like innovation in general), but it can also be a principle, an idea, a piece of legislation, a social movement, an intervention, or some combination of them.”
Pol and Ville (2009, p. 15)	An innovation is termed a <i>social innovation</i> if the implied new idea has the potential to improve either the quality or the quantity of life.

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Murray et al. (2010, p. 3)	Social innovations are new products, services and models that both meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations – they’re ‘social’ both in ends and means. Social innovations can be generated from within any sector – public, private or social – or from citizens and social movements. In other words, they are innovations that are both good for society <i>and</i> enhance society’s capacity to act.
Committee for Scientific and Technological Policy (CSTP) (2011)	Social innovation “is not about introducing new types of production or exploiting new markets for the sake of exploiting them but is about satisfying new needs not provided by the market (even if markets intervene later) or creating new, more satisfactory ways of insertion in terms of giving people a place and a role in production”.
Neumeier (2012, p. 55)	Social innovations are defined as changes of attitudes, behavior or perceptions of a group of people joined in a network of aligned interests that in relation to the group’s horizon of experiences lead to new and improved ways of collaborative action within the group and beyond.
The Young Foundation (2012)	Social innovations are new solutions (products, services, models, markets, processes etc.) that simultaneously meet a social need (more effectively than existing solutions) and lead to new or improved capabilities and relationships and better use of assets and resources. In other words, social innovations are both good for society and enhance society’s capacity to act.
Franz, Hochgerner, and Howaldt (2012)	New more effective and/or more efficient social practices with social ends and social means.

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Bulut, Eren, and Halac (2013)	Social innovation is defined as new ideas or solution proposals to the needs of humans which have not been fulfilled to increase their life standards and welfare.
Tracey and Stott (2016, p. 1)	The term ‘social innovation’ is used to describe a broad range of organizational and inter-organizational activity that is ostensibly designed to address the most deep-rooted ‘problems’ of society, such as poverty, inequality and environmental degradation.
(New Zealand Social Innovation and Entrepreneurship Research Center (SIERC))	Social innovation concerns the application of new ideas and processes or the reapplication of existing ideas in new ways to areas of social value and needs and/or with the design and intention of delivering social impact.

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The social innovation should be differentiated from the business innovation due to the underlying motive of profit maximization in business innovation and its diffusion across like-minded organizations as well (Mulgan, 2006). But it is not advisable to draw a line between social and commercial innovation as some of the social innovations also turned out to be commercial later on as well e.g. microfinance (The Young Foundation, 2012). The broader definition of sustainable innovation can also be fall under the domain of the social innovation i.e. “innovation that not only delivers financial performance but also enhances social and environmental performance” (Dyck & Silvestre, 2018, p. 1594).

Though social innovation is undeniably important but there is a chronic shortage of empirical researches on its antecedents and development under resource-poor environment (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Bulut et al., 2013). The low-income BOP economies are believed to be the destination of “a new generation in innovation systems”, by solving local problems through locally available resources (Kaplinsky et al., 2009; Linaa, 2013). One study confirms the effort of social entrepreneurs to solve the problems of society through social innovation (Hechavarría & Welter, 2015). Social innovation is considered as creative solutions of the prevailing problem in BOP markets, like India (Upadhyay et al., 2017). Similarly, another case study has recently considered social innovation as a solution that can be pursued so as to improve the wellbeing of the individuals (Souza, Lessa, & Filho, 2018).

#### **2.6.2 Bricolage Behavior and Social Innovation**

The social enterprise behavior is identified as the most important source of creativity but it is a road less traveled so far under resource-poor environment (Bacq et al., 2015). The dominant management literature considers such an environment as an inhibitor instead of a facilitator. The conventional view states that slack or abundant resources are necessary for firm growth (Bradley, Wiklund, & Shepherd, 2011) and to enable innovation as a prerequisite (Damanpour, 1991; Gibbert, Hoegl, & Valikangas, 2014; Mone, McKinley, & Barker, 1998). It is believed to be necessary to support activities related to innovation. The poor resources are believed to exert a negative influence on the innovation and needed to be overcome.

However, another competing view focusses on the dual nature of resource restraints by stating that it can also serve as an enabler of creativity (Gibbert & Scranton, 2009; Goldenberg, Lehmann, & Mazursky, 2001) and innovation (Giddens, 1984). The probability of innovative outcomes increases in resource-scarce environment as organizations can leverage themselves efficiently and creatively (Starr & MacMillan, 1990). This competing and emerging literature sheds light on the enabling nature of resource constraints towards the innovation by proposing that less is, in fact, more (Gibbert & Scranton, 2009; Gibbert & Valikangas, 2004; Hoegl, Gibbert, & Mazursky, 2008; Katila & Shane, 2005; Keupp & Gassmann, 2013).

Some scholars have investigated the role of bricolage to understand the process of innovations in resource-poor environment. The ability of the entrepreneurs by recombining the existing resources results in creating brilliant unforeseen results in the form of various innovative outcomes in multiple settings (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005; Beckett, 2016; Covin & Miles, 2007; Garud & Karnøe, 2003; Guo et al., 2015; Hargadon, 2003; Katila & Ahuja, 2002; Sandeep Salunke et al., 2013; Senyard et al., 2014; Senyard, Davidsson, Baker, & Steffens, 2011).

However, in one study the innovation caused by bricolage is considered part of daily routine and highly informal, and therefore oversight (Fuglsang & Flemming, 2011). The local entrepreneurs seem to possess a competitive advantage to know about the local problems and their possible affordable solutions through locally available solutions (Linaa, 2013). Similar results were found in an important theoretical

contribution made by Senyard et al. (2014) for answering the long-awaited question that how resource-constrained firms innovates (Senyard et al., 2011).

The bricolage is studied in relation to technology innovation (Garud & Karnøe, 2003). Bricolage is also considered to be positively associated with innovative outcomes (Gurca & Ravishankar, 2016) which in turn can improve overall firm outcomes in an empirical study on Comprehensive Australian Study of Entrepreneurial Emergence (CAUSEE) project (Senyard et al., 2011).

The bricolage has long been associated with creativity (T. Baker et al., 2003; Gundry et al., 2011b) and the efforts have been made to integrate and incorporate bricolage with formal innovation processes (Duymedjian & Rüling, 2010; Fuglsang & Flemming, 2011; Senyard et al., 2014). The concept of bricolage can help in the understanding of resource-poor innovations where bricoleur uses whatever is at hand to come up with the brilliant unforeseen result and refuse to be constrained by environment (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005; Domenico et al., 2010; Garud & Karnøe, 2003; Linaa, 2013).

Under resource limitation and active constraints both material and social, the outcomes are deemed more creative and innovative (Fisher, 2012; Moreau & Dahl, 2005). It is especially true for the BOP market that is a source of innovation as per recent researches (Gibbert et al., 2014; Linaa, 2013). But such innovative outcomes cannot be made possible without putting in enough resources (Owusu & Janssen, 2013) and

without understanding the activities and the behaviors displayed by the social enterprise.

There has been tremendous growth in the studies on innovation in resource-scarce environment (Dubey, Sonwaney, Aital, Venkatesh, & Ali, 2015) in the last two decades especially for the BOP customers residing mostly in emerging economies (Agarwal et al., 2017). However, almost all the studies have been geographically constricted to India and China. It is therefore desired to change the lens of seeing resource constraints as a curse and a inhibitor and rather take it as a blessing in disguise as a facilitator i.e. their dual role (Giddens, 1984), which can have beneficial results for the organizations as well in the form of innovation capability (Bicen & Johnson, 2015). The resource-poor environment is considered to positively affect the firm innovativeness (Katila & Shane, 2005).

The social entrepreneurship is believed to be considerably more innovative as compared to other start-ups by possessing innate innovation (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Hechavarría & Welter, 2015) due to its two inescapable characteristics of social purpose and innovation (Levillain, Agogué, & Berthet, 2014). The field of social entrepreneurship cannot be understood without bringing the “social innovation” into the light along with “social enterprise”, as these two schools of thoughts jointly explain this field today (Dees & Anderson, 2006). This particular genre of entrepreneurship, therefore, needs to be dependent on trial and errors along with innovation to progress like commercial entrepreneurship (Dees, 2007).

For inclusive businesses i.e. social enterprises, the presence of bricolage is obvious in the innovation process (Halme et al., 2012) as it is said that social innovation coordinate and exploit the underused and wasted resources and assets (The Young Foundation, 2012). Bricolage is identified as a resourceful practice through which it is possible to access community resources and trigger social innovation (Barraket, Eversole, Luke, & Barth, 2018). Bricolage is empirically studied under the context of a developing country, Kenya, as a way of innovating in resource-poor environment (Linaa, 2013). The study discussed three types of bricolage i.e. resourcefulness, improvisation and making do with resources at hand for designing low-cost energy solutions aimed at serving rural people of the BOP.

Resource constraints are the hotbed for social innovation especially when there is lack of financial and human resources (Austin et al., 2006), like the rural areas of India and Brazil (Bornstein, 2003). Under penurious resources, the social problems which are not addressed properly both by market forces and government can be solved by recombining the current resources for a new purpose, thus ultimately may yielding innovative solutions (Desa & Basu, 2013; Kickul et al., 2009; Sunduramurthy et al., 2016) to bring positive social change (Gundry et al., 2011b).

Social innovation may depend upon the ability of the social enterprise to recombine the existing resources in creative ways i.e. bricolage to solve the problem (Gundry et al., 2011b). Therefore, it is said that bricolage may envisage the energies to bring social innovation to the ignored market in order to address the most pressing problems of society (Kickul et al., 2009). One study concluded that the bricolage behavior i.e.

the ability of the social enterprise to recombine its existing resources in a creative way to solve problems i.e. bricolage is positively related to catalytic innovation i.e. providing good enough solutions to inadequately addressed social problems (Gundry et al., 2011b). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that:

*H1: There is a positive relationship between bricolage behavior and social innovation.*

### **2.6.3 Social Capital and Social Innovation**

Most of the innovation made through trial and errors and rapid learning, nowadays, signals the origination of a new economy known as “social economy” in which the networks and relationships play a major role (Murray et al., 2010). Social capital is believed to be a momentous originator of entrepreneurial actions and innovation (Grebel, Pyka, & Hanusch, 2003; Hartmann & Arata, 2011). Social capital is considered significant for the individuals, organizations and community as a competitive resource (Dubos, 2017; Faccin, Genari, & Macke, 2017).

The inter and intra-organizational relationships are used to achieve trust, co-operation, reciprocity and information sharing necessary for the innovation processes (Faccin et al., 2017; Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017; Silva, Howells, & Meyer, 2018). The social capital is proved to be the most important explanatory variable that contributes towards innovation (Landry, Amara, & Lamari, 2000), a prerequisite for innovation (Rutten & Boekema, 2007) thereby, confirming the linkage between social capital and innovation (Abdulai, 2019; Thomas, 2019).

An extensive interview-based research in China revealed that the networking activities results in innovation besides other benefits (L. Zhao & Aram, 1995). Another study has found the positive contribution of the structural and relational dimension of the social capital on product innovation (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). Still in another study on 220 manufacturing firms in Spain has found a positive association between social capital and firm innovation (Maclean et al., 2012). One empirical study has found a significant relationship between social capital and organizational creativity (Sözbilir, 2018) synonymous with innovation. However, despite all the existing studies, social capital is believed to be a quite recent addition to the innovation literature (Murphy, 2019).

The term 'social' of the social innovation is implanted in social relations and it is found consistently in the early studies despite conflicts and disagreements on it as a concept (Ayob et al., 2016). This scenario is particularly true for social enterprises as they not only utilize their existing resources but also their pre-existing knowledge and relationships to come up with noticeable innovative solutions (Gundry et al., 2011b). The social innovations are more likely to be successful when people with a clear understanding of the problem are involved closely (Mulgan, 2006). Social innovation is believed to be a collective phenomenon that involved multiple stakeholders (Caroli et al., 2018). There are countless examples of social businesses that utilized social capital in their social innovations e.g. BRAC in Bangladesh and Sewa in India. Therefore, it is considered as an enabler of social innovation (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013).



It has been suggested that if the social network is a group of interconnected things then it should provide a route to the broader application wise concepts like systems of innovation (Lundvall, 1992) especially in the field of social entrepreneurship (Littlewood & Khan, 2018). It is also suggested to explore the importance of local embeddedness of social organization as a relevant context in which innovation occurs (Austin et al., 2006; Maclean et al., 2012; Smith & Stevens, 2010).

In commercial organizations, the key agent of innovation is the firm while in social businesses, it comes more from a wider network (Murray et al., 2010). The social capital is considered an enabler of social entrepreneurship by playing an important role in the social innovations to successfully address the issues related with resource shortage (Alvord et al., 2004; Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Peredo & Crisman, 2006) as it is considered as the most important barrier to growth (Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010; Sharir & Lerner, 2006).

Similarly, it is argued that social capital enhances the trust that contributes to solution based experiments leading to open social innovation (Alijani, Luna, Castro-Spila, & Unceta, 2016). A case study in India has concluded that local socio-cultural understanding of India has helped the social ventures to come up with innovative solutions that can challenge the existing social systems (Bhatt & Ahmad, 2017).

A survey of 850 social enterprises in 11 European Union countries found that the high level of social capital is positively related with the capacity of social ventures to introduce social innovation (Biggeri et al., 2017). The social ventures in their quest for

developing social innovation depend heavily on social capital especially when there is a dearth of financial capital (Datta & Gailey, 2012). Similarly, another qualitative study has credited the social interaction with key actors for successful social innovation (Phillips et al., 2015). However, there is a lack of empirical studies on how the social capital foster social innovation despite identifying social networks of trust and shared value as drivers of social innovation (Secco & Burlando, 2017). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that:

*H2: There is a positive relationship between social capital and social innovation.*

#### **2.6.4 Social Innovation and Social Enterprise Performance**

The term ‘social innovation’ is the perfect construct to understand the creation of social change (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014; Phills et al., 2008). The innovation is likely to be adapted across various social and economic sub-sectors and therefore, results in spreading its social impact by expanding geographically (Bocken et al., 2016; Drayton, 2002). Innovation is considered important to bring about any positive socio-economic impact through social ventures (Goyal et al., 2015).

The broader definition given by Dees presented a new term of “enterprising social innovation”, by blending together two schools of thought i.e. social enterprise and social innovation. Enterprising social innovation means “carrying out innovations that blend methods from the worlds of business and philanthropy to create social value that is sustainable and has the potential for large scale impact” (Dees & Anderson, 2006, p. 40). This definition makes social innovation as a must have for measuring the

enterprise performance and recognize the connection between social and economic concerns i.e. it is at the intersection of business and non-profits domains.

Apart from non-profits and practitioners, it was a motivation among the for-profits companies as well to provide social service. To cut the story short, it is all about the integration of social and economic value. It is considered that innovation involved in sustainable societal transformation also takes into consideration the ongoing flow of resources along with the social impact (Alvord et al., 2004).

The social enterprise school of thought focus on “earned income for social mission” while social innovation school of thought stress upon “the new and better ways of finding a solution” for addressing the social problems. The former was popular among the non-profits in their quest for finding an alternate source of income besides funding from donors and government agencies and reinvent themselves as ‘nonprofits for-profits’ while the later was popular among practitioners. But whatsoever school of thought is pursued, the innovation is always targeted towards creating social change and impact (Defourny & Nyssens, 2008).

The earlier form of technological innovation was believed to cast a societal impact so as to qualify as a social innovation (Ayob et al., 2016). This leads us to believe that both terms were connected long ago though not explicitly expressed. It has been encouraged to study the role of organizations to formulate and spread innovative solutions especially the ones with a social impact (Scheuerle & Schmitz, 2015).

To engage and maintain the support from stakeholders for scaling strategy, it is a must to identify and communicate that the solution for social problems is embedded in social innovation (Desa & Koch, 2014). There is a growing concern for scaling the social innovation so as to cast the desired impact that can tackle the social problems (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010; Gabriel, 2014; Sengupta & Sahay, 2017; Weber et al., 2015).

An important study by one of the pioneers in social entrepreneurship suggested that the focus of the strategic innovations should be towards improving the mission-related performance (Dees, 1998). In the similar vein, one of the studies reviewing the gradual development of the term “social innovation” across many years, proposed that social innovation must produce societal impact from a utilitarian perspective that ultimately leads to improving the quality or quantity of life (Pol & Ville, 2009). The scaling of social impact even resembles with the scaling of social innovation when impact grows to match the need (Gabriel, 2014). One needs to scale up social innovation to understand growth in social enterprises (Davies & Julie Simon, 2013).

There can be different ways of achieving the scale by integrating social and financial value i.e. simply replicating, diffusing, copying and adapting the idea (Gabriel, 2014). While talking about the challenges, that social enterprises face in the emerging economies while serving the poor, comes out as a result of the market failure on the supply side which means that most of the philanthropic capital and resources move towards innovative ideas rather than mere replication (Desa & Koch, 2014). Because

it makes it easier to figure out the impact that the investor is making and lots of resources are needed to completely replicate a solution.

The innovation should be capable of achieving the impact (Dees & Anderson, 2006) while making a considerable profit for the social enterprise (Upadhyay et al., 2017). An empirical quantitative study on the heterogeneous sample of social entrepreneurs of six European countries revealed a positive relationship between social innovation logic and perceived social impact. Still another empirical study concluded that social innovation is necessary for social enterprises to achieve social impact (Weber et al., 2013). Similarly, in another empirical case study, the social innovation is represented as the pursuit of a solution to improve the wellbeing of the individuals by engaging the youth in the promotion of local development in one of the poorest region of Brazil (Souza et al., 2018), thereby casting a social impact.

Social enterprises try to find creative solutions to existing problems through scalable and sustainable approaches (Light, 2005). Therefore, the impact is not merely in terms of the replication and reproduction of the key social innovation within a program i.e. scaling of social impact but it also includes financial growth (Dees et al., 2004; Weber et al., 2015). It has been noted that it is possible to create financial value along with value for multiple stakeholders through sustainable innovation (Dyck & Silvestre, 2018). A longitudinal study in rural India found a relationship between the minimum critical specification of social innovation and scaling of social impact (Desa & Koch, 2014). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that:

*H3a: There is a positive relationship between social innovation and scaling of social impact.*

*H3b: There is a positive relationship between social innovation and financial performance of social enterprises.*

### **2.6.5 Social Innovation as a Mediator Between Bricolage and Social Enterprise Performance**

Like bricoleurs, social entrepreneurs are also not just motivated by financial performance (Stinchfield et al., 2013) and give preference to social impact over financial drive, in their mission. However, a certain level of satisfactory financial performance is also considered crucial by the organizations to cast a social impact and remain financially viable. Innovative solution for the social problems of the neglected community is deemed crucial for such organizations to perform both financially and non-financially. Such innovators in frugal environments like India make ingenious use of their existing resources and technologies (Prabhu & Jain, 2015). Therefore, it can be assumed that bricolage behavior can help social entrepreneurs achieve those innovations that can help in the financial and non-financial performance to achieve the social change they are targeting.

In an empirical study based on 4-year longitudinal data in the US, the innovation is found to partially mediate the relationship between bricolage and firm performance (Senyard et al., 2009). Also, 47 multinational corporations in emerging economies are

empirically studied and concluded that bricolage leads to affordable value innovations which in turn leads to their improved financial performance (Ernst et al., 2015).

The sustainable societal transformation requires social innovation to play its role for social impact while simultaneously paying attention to the crucial concern for mobilizing existing resources (Alvord et al., 2004). It has also been endorsed to study the mediating effect of innovativeness on the relation between bricolage and scaling of social impact (Bacq et al., 2015). This can be proposed due to the positive relationship found between bricolage behavior and innovativeness (Senyard et al., 2014).

Another empirical study of 113 social entrepreneurs through online questionnaire survey found bricolage to be closely associated with the growth in social impact which in turn is mediated by the presence of catalytic innovation i.e. identification of unserved market, attraction and recombination of resources and coming up with good enough products or services (Kickul et al., 2009). The organizations involved in the waste livelihoods in Kenya were involved in different forms of bricolage to create new markets and identify the opportunities for the creation of new product and services to address institutional voids (Holt & Littlewood, 2016). This, in turn, helps in creating social impact through addressing environmental concerns and generate sustainable income for the members as well.

It is argued that the primary objective of social ventures as hybrid organizations is to find creative ways of generating profits from their existing resources rather than

investing in the resource acquisition (Alberti & Garrido, 2017). In this way, they can align their competing goals of societal impact and profit generation and become sustainable in the long term (Santos, Pache, & Birkholz, 2015).

Based on nine case studies of social ventures in the UK, the bricolage strategy is found to be positively related to the growth of social enterprises while overcoming the resource constraints through expanding into a new market with innovative products (Tasavori et al., 2018). One of the longitudinal case studies on a Latin American social venture has found that bricolage behavior serves to achieve social innovation by making do with the resources at hand resulting in the long term sustainability of the organization (Servantie & Rispal, 2018). Based on the above empirical evidence, it can be, therefore, hypothesize that:

*H4a: The relationship between bricolage behavior and social enterprise financial performance is mediated by social innovation.*

*H4b: The relationship between bricolage behavior and scaling of social impact is mediated by social innovation.*

#### **2.6.6 Social Innovation as a Mediator Between Social Capital and Social Enterprise Performance**

The inter- and intra-organizational networks are believed to bring along them the benefits of trust, co-operation, reciprocity and information sharing which are utilized



in the innovation process and in turn leads to improved firm performance (Silva et al., 2018). The nature of the innovation is believed to be processual in social entrepreneurship as it requires social context comprising of suppliers, investors, employees, experts, and customers, etc. to be mobilized and to generate performance in return (Steyaert & Dey, 2010). The external stakeholders i.e. other social enterprises and third sector agencies are believed to support innovation around the social mission by yielding specific resources (Barraket et al., 2018).

Under the umbrella of social entrepreneurship, it has been identified that new form of social relationships (at the personal or organizational level) generates new ideas and come up with new solutions to the addressed problems which in turn can lead to the positive social impact (Ayob et al., 2016). The trust fostered by social capital is believed to accelerate solution based experiments that lead to open social innovation necessary for social change (Alijani et al., 2016). Similarly, a social venture case study has focused on the importance of the local stakeholders for coming up with the social innovations necessary for the solution of the social problems due to their immersion in the local context (Maclean et al., 2012).

However, little is known about the role of social innovation in the relationship between social capital and social enterprise performance and that too is dominated by qualitative studies (Weber & Kratzer, 2013). According to one empirical study of 113 social enterprises, social entrepreneurs not only utilize their existing resources but also their pre-existing knowledge and relationships to come up with noticeable innovative

solutions and a far-reaching impact necessary for the social change to occur (Gundry et al., 2011b).

One such important study has been conducted for revealing the underlying process in social ventures where social capital leads to social innovation which in turn leads to social impact (Weber et al., 2013). The social innovation has mediated the relationship between two important variables. However, it is encouraged to incorporate the financial aspect of the research as well to completely understand the process. Another study has focused and proposed to explore the role of social capital in influencing the innovation which in turn is necessary for the survival and sustainability of the social enterprises i.e. its financial and non-financial performance (Dawson et al., 2011).

One of the biggest benefits of possessing the networks is access to information and advice besides accessing the resources possessed by the resource holder. Such access in interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships creates innovative outcomes particularly for the social ventures (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). An empirical case study on women social entrepreneurs has confirmed the above-mentioned notion which in turn leads to social value creation (Ozeren et al., 2018). In an Indian empirical study, the multiple stakeholders are found to be extremely important for the social ventures as they can give innovative solutions to the social problems which are also entrepreneurial in nature i.e. financially feasible, due to their superior understanding of the socio-economic and cultural understanding (Bhatt & Ahmad, 2017).

Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

*H5a: The relationship between social capital and social enterprise financial performance is mediated by social innovation.*

*H5b: The relationship between social capital and scaling of social impact is mediated by social innovation.*

## **2.7 Resource-Based Theory (RBT): A Radical Approach**

The early studies in SE were characterized as a theoretical (M. T. Dacin et al., 2011; Doherty et al., 2014) i.e. not based on a theory with an obvious inclination towards practical consideration and a lot of potential for theory development (Dees & Anderson, 2006). The field of social entrepreneurship is characterized by the lack of deep and prescriptive accepted theory with most studies focused on case studies and practical deliberations based on success stories (Dees & Anderson, 2006). However, this study attempts to integrate the radical view of one of the most prominent theories in management i.e. Resource-Based Theory.

Resource-based theory (RBT) is one of the most prominent theory in explaining and understanding the organizations, since its inception in 1991 by Barney (Barney, Ketchen, & Wright, 2011). It focused on the importance of a broad range of resources and capabilities, including organizational, individual and social, within the firm for its sustained competitive advantage. Resources can simply be identified as something which can act as a firm's strength or weakness (Wernerfelt, 1984). Resources are also defined for this purpose as follows:

*“Resources and capabilities as bundles of tangible and intangible assets, including a firm’s management skills, its organizational processes and routines, and the information and knowledge it controls that can be used by firms to help choose and implement strategies that improve their efficiency and effectiveness” (Barney et al., 2011, p. 101).*

The importance of resources has long been recognized (Penrose, 1959), however, the resource-based view (RBV) was introduced in the 1980s with an external focus initially (Wernerfelt, 1984) based on environmental condition favoring firm performance (Barney, 1991). Later, it was gradually redirected towards inside the organizations by emphasizing the role of the firm’s internal characteristics on performance. The four indicators namely valuable, rareness, inimitability, and non-substitutability of firm’s resources, which are heterogeneous and immobile, were proposed for the generation of the sustained competitive advantage that cannot be easily duplicated by current or potential competitors (Barney, 1991).

RBT can be applied in many different ways (Barney, 2001). However, the basic underlying assumption is that resources and capabilities can be heterogeneously distributed among the firms and explains the reason behind the variation among their performance. The RBT is previously used under the context of strategic management, human resource management, entrepreneurship, etc. by examining the relationship between resources and competitive advantage. However, few studies have empirically explored the role played by the RBT in SE (Day & Jean-Denis, 2016).

RBT is considered appropriate to explore the management of resources in social ventures to pursue their goals (Dees, 1998). This is also in response to extend the application of RBT beyond mature markets to the BOP market to understand how the resources are assembled and in turn cast an impact (Sarkar, 2018). The RBT is believed to play an important role in the theory development at the BOP where the focus is on social value creation. It can be done through the introduction of innovative products and services which can simultaneously address financial concerns and social wellbeing of the poorest people (Dyck & Silvestre, 2018).

The goal of the social ventures is shared value i.e. economic and social value creation for the community (Porter & Kramer, 2012). Social ventures bundle their unique resources and capabilities to achieve sustainability like commercial ventures who does so to achieve competitive advantage by earning a profit. From an RBT perspective, the resources and capabilities of the social ventures are essential for social innovation which in turn can lead to the scaling of social impact and superior performance (Bloom & Smith, 2010).

The corporate scandals (Enron, WorldCom, etc.), banking crisis and economic recession in 2009 have placed a question mark on the conventional theories of management founded on the two pillars on individualism and materialism (Bell & Dyck, 2011). It has been proposed to reinvent the conventional management theories by focusing on goals beyond wealth maximization and work for other's interest instead of self-interest (Hamel, 2009). Therefore, some researchers have not only questioned

the status quo but also started working on alternative theories (Ghoshal, 2005) like radical view of RBT (Bell & Dyck, 2011).

The shortcomings associated with RBT is overcome in its radical view but by retaining the roots of conventional RBT at the same time (Bell & Dyck, 2011). The essence of RBT in its exclusive focus on resources and capabilities is also emphasized in radical RBT. While conventional one focuses on competitive advantage and superior financial performance, the radical one takes into consideration multiple forms of wellbeing for multiple stakeholders besides financial welfare. The profit maximization is considered secondary to a holistic value creation including financial, social, ecological, spiritual and physical (Dyck & Silvestre, 2018).

The social entrepreneurship focus on the sustainable solution of the unmet needs and not sustainable competitive advantage (Santos, 2012). The social ventures address the areas of positive externality which are defined as “needs of the disadvantaged segment of society which has more potential for value creation as compared to value appropriation” (Day & Jean-Denis, 2016). Value capture or appropriation occurs when benefits accrue to individuals or organizations while in value creation benefits accrue to the society at large.

The resources are also defined broadly for enhancing the overall well-being of multiple stakeholders and not mere focus on wealth creation for the firm. Therefore, the valuable resources should be exploited for the well-being, rare resources should be used wisely and parsimoniously, inimitable resources should be responsibly taught by

the firm and non-substitutable resources should increase the firm's opportunity to protect stakeholder's overall wellbeing. Therefore, the VRIN (valuable, rare, inimitable, non-substitutable) should be replaced with VCTS (valuable, yet common, transferable, and substitutable) to realize the greatest social impact (Dyck & Silvestre, 2018).

Sustainability in social ventures is achieved through effective resource mobilization strategies. The resources and capabilities of social ventures include various types of capitals including physical, financial, human and social capital that reduces the constraints and leads towards growth to ultimately contribute towards the scaling of social impact (Bloom & Smith, 2010). Social capital is considered into a broad array of competitive resources (Faccin et al., 2017; Short et al., 2009) which are less tangible and more complex especially under the challenging environment of BOP (Sarkar, 2018). When it is accessed, it can bring along economic and financial benefits for social enterprises (Evers, 2001). An important study has considered social capital as a critical independent variable and related to the growth of entrepreneurial ventures (Hoang & Antoncic, 2003). It is encouraged to integrate the network related concepts with broader theories like RBT (Littlewood & Khan, 2018).

The above-mentioned capitals can be accessed and revealed through organizational capabilities (Day & Jean-Denis, 2016). The performance of social ventures depends upon their capabilities to build and develop resources and capabilities in order to perform (Bacq & Eddleston, 2016). Many firms possess such resources but their

functionality i.e. how they derive new services from the existing resources especially in resource-constrained BOP market is de-emphasized by the RBT.

Such recombination takes place in entrepreneurial ventures which make use of the resources at hand which is considered worthless by other organizations. Therefore, this study has included bricolage behavior in social enterprises, i.e. ability to recombine existing resources at hand for a new purpose, as an important capability to exhibit perform. This capability can also be categorized as the informal strategy-making process that is either ignored or prevented by the competitors (Barney, 1991). It is also identified that social ventures should master their capability in resource bricolage, for achieving their long term goals by maximizing the outcomes from available resources (D. D. Zhang & Swanson, 2014). Both bricolage behavior and social capital can be seen as those socially complex systems identified by Barney (1991) that ultimately leads to the superior performance of the firms.

One empirical research used radical RBT in explaining the scaling of the social impact of 171 social ventures which depends upon the capabilities of such businesses to engage the stakeholders, attract government support and generate earned income (Bacq & Eddleston, 2016). Our proposed theoretical framework is in line with the radical view of RBT by combining the resources and capabilities i.e. social capital and bricolage behavior for the creation of social innovation which in turn results in the overall well-being of the multiple stakeholders through financial performance and scaling of social impact.



This theoretical foundation is also in response to the call for examining this field from existing theoretical lenses (Littlewood & Khan, 2018; Short et al., 2009). It is also suggested to look at the benefits of resource scarcity which is ignored in RBT (Massis, Audretsch, Uhlaner, & Kammerlander, 2018). These benefits are addressed through the radical view of RBT.

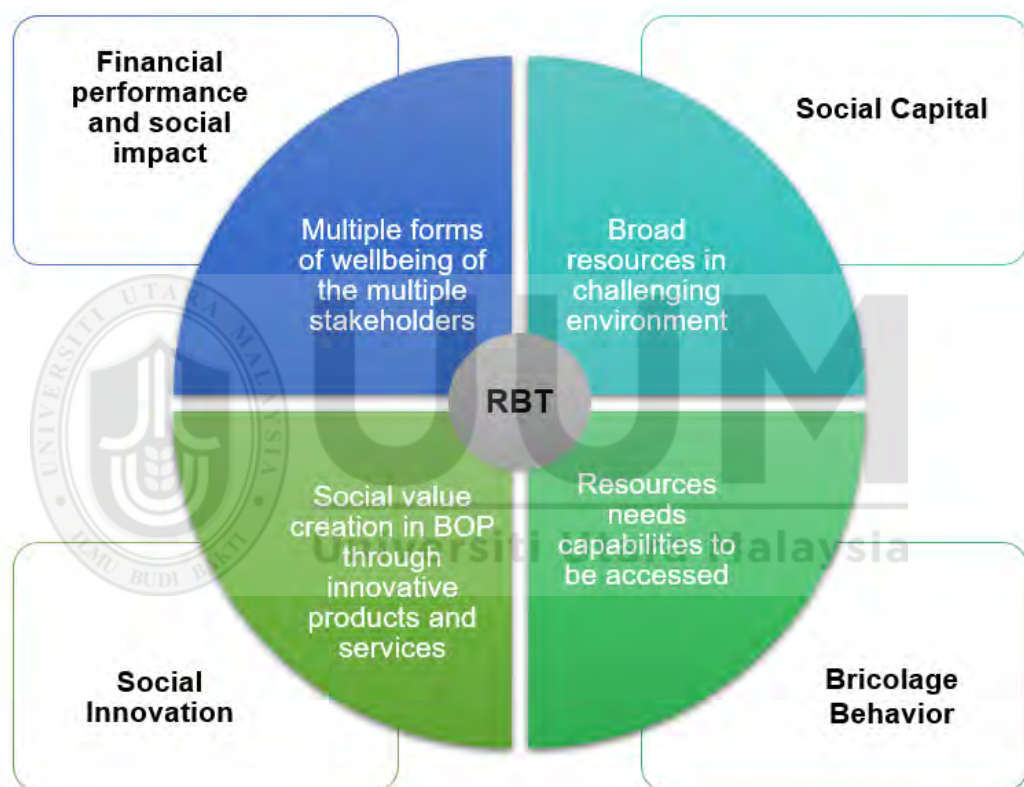


Figure 2.1  
*Underpinning Theory: Radical View of RBT*

## 2.8 Theoretical Framework

This study takes help from the radical view of resource-based theory (RBT). The RBT is the most prominent theory in understanding the variation in the performance of the organizations. A radical view was proposed in 2011 to overcome the weaknesses and criticism attached to RBT while retaining its essence (Bell & Dyck, 2011). This view

states that the overall wellbeing of the multiple stakeholders should be considered in addition to their financial wellbeing.

A theoretical framework is indispensable in hypothetico-deductive, theory testing causal research (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Therefore, keeping in view the radical approach to RBT, a theoretical model is proposed to understand the effect of resources and capabilities i.e. bricolage behavior and social capital through social innovation to measure the overall wellbeing of multiple stakeholders as shown in figure 2.2.

It includes bricolage behavior and social capital, along the dimension of internal and external social capital, as independent variables. The social innovation is proposed as a mediating variable which is deemed crucial for the social enterprises to perform and provide overall wellbeing. The performance of the social venture is taken as a dependent variable which is measured along with both financial performance and non-financial performance i.e. scaling of the social impact to achieve the double bottom line.

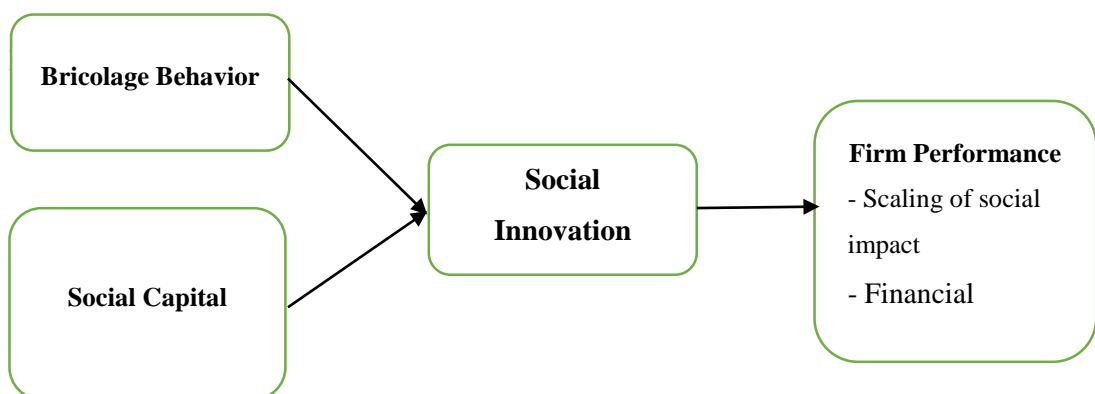
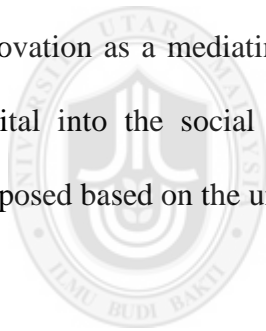


Figure 2.2  
*Proposed theoretical framework*

## 2.9 Summary

The literature review reveals that the performance of the social enterprises on both financial and non-financial aspects is crucial for its survival. The scaling of the social impact along with financial performance is necessary for social enterprises to achieve their double bottom line. Among different studies regarding various factors, capabilities, business models and strategies used under the context of social enterprise performance, bricolage behavior and social capital is deemed important for the performance. However, it has been identified that there is some mediating mechanism between social capital, bricolage behavior and social enterprise performance that has been neglected in the past. This study, therefore, fills this gap and propose social innovation as a mediating variable that translates the bricolage behavior and social capital into the social venture performance. Finally, a theoretical framework is proposed based on the underpinning theory of radical view of RBT.



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## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses in detail the research methodology, research designs, and procedures used for this study. This first section discusses the operational definitions of the variables under study while the second section sheds light on the sampling designs, techniques, and procedures, the measures of the constructs under study and questionnaire design. Then the content validity, pretest and data collection techniques are explained in the next section. This chapter is concluded with the discussion on the data analysis techniques and includes preliminary data screening, descriptive statistics, reliability, validity, and inferential statistics.

#### **3.2 Operational Definitions of Constructs**

When the abstract concepts are broken down to convert them into measurable and observable behavior, it is known as the operationalization of the concepts (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The present study has four main variables including bricolage behavior, social capital which includes internal and external social capital, social innovation and social enterprise performance including financial performance and scaling of social impact.

### **3.2.1 Bricolage Behavior**

In this study, the bricolage behavior is operationalized as the behavior of the social enterprises who make do by recombining their resources at hand, to give solution to the most pressing societal problems and exploit new opportunities under the resource-poor environment of Pakistan (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005, p. 333).

### **3.2.2 Social Capital**

The two types of social capital at the organization level are internal social capital and external social capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002).

#### **3.2.2.1 Internal Social Capital**

Internal social capital is operationalized as the social ties between employees or units/departments of the social enterprises in Pakistan, and the assets embedded in and available through these ties for the venture (i.e. information sharing, trust and shared vision) (Adler & Kwon, 2002).

#### **3.2.2.2 External Social Capital**

External social capital is operationalized as the social links with external stakeholders of the social enterprises in Pakistan and the assets embedded in these links and available for the venture i.e. information sharing, trust, and shared vision (Dai et al., 2015, p. 42).

### **3.2.3 Social Innovation**

Social innovation is operationalized as practical application of ideas for the development of new and improved products, processes, methods and/or services, for the resolution of social problems structured as unsatisfied social demands in Pakistan, in the areas of education, health, employment, culture, environment and/or social services (Unceta et al., 2016, p. 8).

### **3.2.4 Social Enterprise Performance**

The social venture's performance is measured along scaling of the social impact and the financial aspect, to meet the dual objectives of social ventures as hybrid organizations. Both are discussed in detail as under:

#### **3.2.4.1 Scaling of Social Impact**

The scaling of the social impact is operationalized as the process of expanding or adapting a social organization's output to more geographic area and serving more people in order to better match the magnitude of the social need or problem being tackled in Pakistan (Desa & Koch, 2014, p. 148).

#### **3.2.4.2 Financial Performance**

The financial performance differentiates a social enterprise from a charity i.e. based on earned income mode (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010). It is necessary for the creation and scaling of the social outcomes intended by the social enterprises in the first place. The financial performance is operationalized as importance and satisfaction that social ventures in Pakistan attach with certain finance-related measures like sales level, sales

growth, profitability, net profit, gross profit and ability to fund enterprise growth with profits (Bacq et al., 2011; Iakovleva, 2005).

### **3.2.5 Control Variables**

The presence of a third variable that relates significantly with both cause and effect can affect the correlation between them. Sometimes, the presence of such variable makes it difficult to support the causal inferences and therefore, they need to be controlled (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2009, p. 58). In this study, the organization age (Lechner et al., 2006) and size (Bacq et al., 2011; Gundry et al., 2011a, 2011b; Kickul et al., 2018; Weber & Kratzer, 2013) are taken as a control variable. The age and size are controlled because they can have a significant effect on the financial performance and social impact of social ventures. The age of the enterprise is determined from the year of its establishment. While the size of the organization is measured in terms of a number of full-time employees working (Granados & Rivera, 2017; Kuratko, McMullen, Hornsby, & Jackson, 2017).

### **3.2.6 Demographic Data**

Social ventures are also required to complete the screening questions, which are deemed important in the prior literature, to make them eligible to be considered as potential respondents. These screening questions include several demographic information measured as both open-ended questions and on categorical scales. It includes the geographic location of the social venture, gender (Hoogendoorn, Zwan, & Thurik, 2017), the status of the organization (profit and not for profit) (Bacq et al., 2011; Gundry et al., 2011a, 2011b), highest level of education (Hoogendoorn et al., 2017),

the job level, ownership and the source of funding. While based on the existing few studies conducted in Pakistan (Bouri, 2015; Yasir et al., 2016), a number of sectors for social enterprises have been identified including health, education, financial services, energy, agriculture and processing, manufacturing and information and communication technology (ICT). Therefore, a question regarding the type of industry in which the social venture is operating is also included. An open-ended question is also added at the end to include any other option not included in the list of categories.

### **3.3 Research Design**

Research design is defined as a master plan or blueprint specifying the methods and procedures for collecting, measuring and analyzing the needed information to arrive at a solution and answer the research questions (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Zikmund et al., 2009). The nature of this study is hypothesis testing or explanatory, which is employed to explain the certain relationship between variables. The type of investigation followed is causal, in order to determine a definitive relationship between the variables being investigated that cause a particular problem i.e. cause-and-effect.

This study explains and tests the relationship between bricolage behavior, social capital, social innovation and social enterprise performance through hypothesis testing. Therefore, this study can be further described as theory-testing, deductive, causal research. This type of study is suitable when the purpose of the research is to test the statement generated from the theoretical framework by statistically examining



it (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). This study also aims to test multiple hypothesis based on the radical view of RBT.

As the research problem is the issue related to the sustainability of the social enterprises i.e. performance, therefore, the unit of analysis is the organizations i.e. social enterprises. Due to time and cost constraints, the data is collected just once over a period of almost 5 months. Therefore, this study is considered as a one-shot or cross-sectional study based on time horizon covered (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Zikmund et al., 2009).

### **3.3.1 Population of the Study**

The population refers to “the entire group of people events or things of interest for which the research wants to draw inferences based on sample statistics” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016, p. 236). Since this study is intended to investigate both financial and non-financial performance of the social enterprise i.e. scaling of social impact, therefore, the social ventures are the most appropriate target population since they can only provide the relevant information. They are striving for the betterment of the society in Pakistan by tackling the most pressing problems of the society while facing the challenges of casting an impact and becoming financially sustainable at the same time (Yasir et al., 2016).

Hybrid social enterprises i.e. the ones that pursue both social and economic gains, is taken as the inclusion criteria for the respondents in this study. However, from a practical and inclusive point of view, all the organizations with business and social

objectives in their mission, are eligible to be included in the definition of social enterprises irrespective of their legal status of for-profit or not-for-profit organization (D. D. Zhang & Swanson, 2014).

Specifically, the reference population in this study are the key informants from the social ventures in all the provinces of Pakistan. The rationale for choosing only the key informants like top management leaders (i.e. social entrepreneur, managers or CEOs, etc.) from the social ventures is that they are considered eligible for providing the information. They are considered appropriate respondents because it is believed that they possess the required information regarding the firm's strategies, actions and performance (Hult, Snow, & Kandemir, 2003 ; Sharfman, 1998).

### **3.3.2 Sampling Design: Sample Size and Power Analysis**

It is not possible to study all the elements in the population; therefore, data is collected from some members of the population i.e. sample and then the conclusion is drawn about the entire population (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). This study has followed a non-probability sampling design due to the absence of any compiled database of social enterprises in Pakistan. The existing studies have also identified the challenges in identifying such organizations with acute resource shortages, which makes it really hard to access them (Bloom & Smith, 2010).

Moreover, developing a database of such organization and following them needs lots of funding and the picture looks gloomier under the context of a developing country like Pakistan which has just recently opened a new government department for such

enterprises. Centre for social entrepreneurship (CSE) in Pakistan has just started its operations and still in the struggling phase. There is not much progress and policy formulation in this direction. Therefore, there is no valid database available so far. As all the elements of the population do not possess the equal chance of being selected as a subject, therefore, this study will follow non-probability sampling.

There is a need to determine the absolute sample size which should be independent of the total population (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, it is suggested to use a statistical power test which can detect any difference in the broader population if it truly exists. “The power of the statistical analysis is the probability that its null hypothesis will be rejected given that it is, in fact, false” (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007, p. 175). It is suggested to rely on power analysis to determine the required sample size due to consideration of model structure, the anticipated significance level and expected effect sizes (Marcoulides & Chin, 2013).

Therefore, to ascertain the execution of the minimum sample size in the current study, an a priori power analysis is conducted through G\*power 3.1 (Faul, Ider, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). This analysis is carried with the user-specified values of to-be-detected population effect size which is standard medium as recommended i.e. (.15), required significance level  $\alpha$  ( $\alpha$  err prob .05), and the desired statistical power ( $1-\beta$  err prob 0.95). Four predictor variables (ISC, ESC, BB, SI) are used in this calculation. To test a regression-based statistical analysis, the G-Power analysis showed the needed sample to be 129 as shown in figure 3.2.

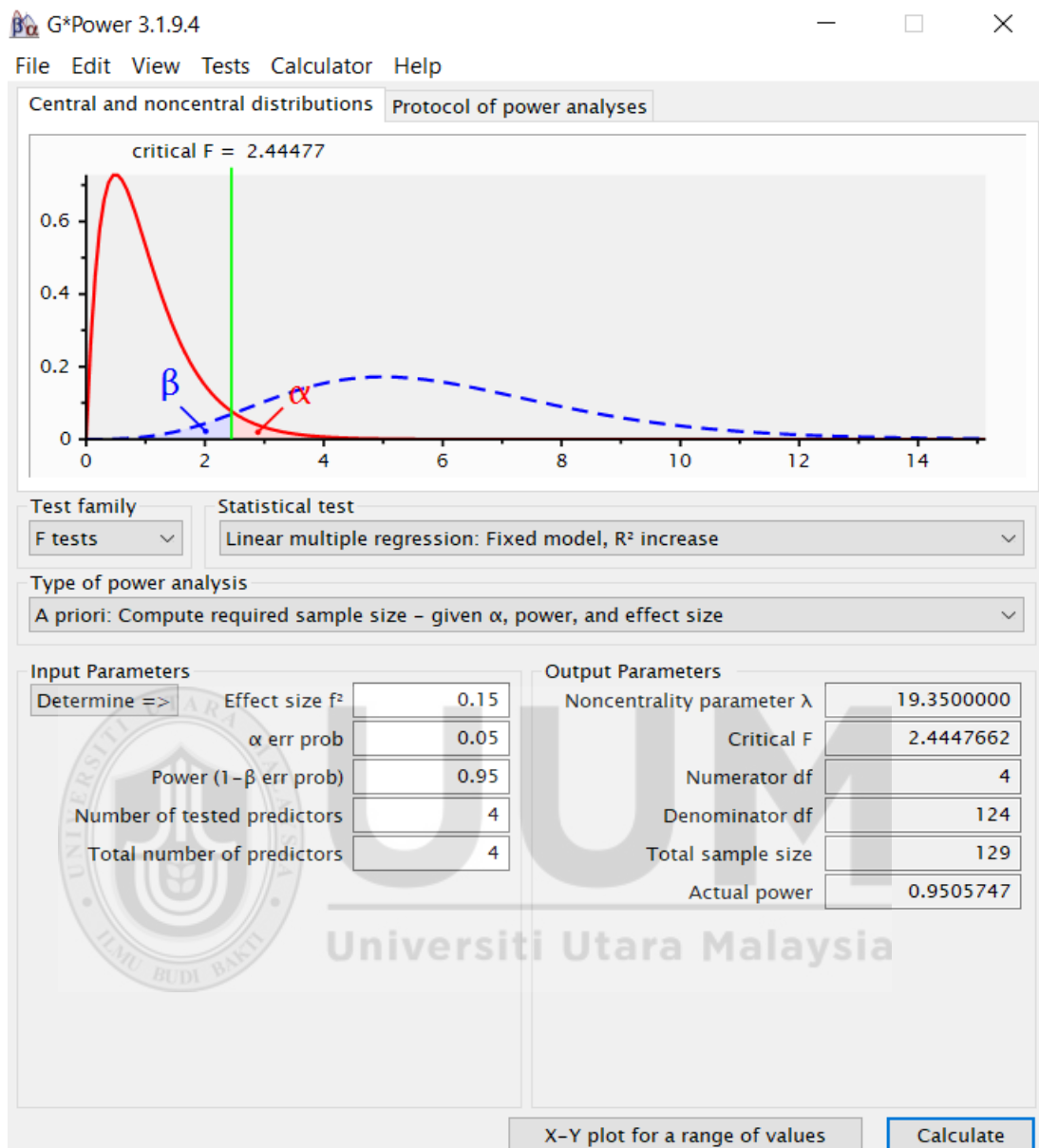


Figure 3.1  
The Output of A-priori Power Analysis

### 3.3.3 Sampling Technique

Within the non-probability sampling design, the purposive sampling is followed as it is necessary to obtain the desired information from the specific target member of social ventures i.e. key informants. The specific technique used here is the judgment sampling which involves the choice of subjects who are most advantageously placed

or in the best position to provide the information required (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016, p. 248). It is also employed when there is a limitation on the number and category of the people who can provide insights on the topic under inquiry. This is the case with the intended respondents of this study as well who are the key informants like top management leaders (i.e. social entrepreneur, managers or CEOs, etc.) from the social ventures, as they can only provide valuable information on their key strategies for sustainable performance.

However, this sampling technique is paired with another non-probability technique i.e. snowball sampling as also evident from the past studies as well (Haski-Leventhal & Mehra, 2016; Jenner, 2016). This method involved a nomination of other potential primary data sources i.e. multiple referrals, by one primary data source used in the research (Dudovskiy, 2018; Zikmund et al., 2009). The absence of any compiled database of SE in Pakistan makes it challenging to approach a large number of social ventures (Barraket, Collyer, O'Connor, & Anderson, 2010; Teasdale, Lyon, & Baldock, 2013). Therefore, this additional method of snowball technique has helped us to address this issue and it has generated maximum responses. The identification of the multiple referrals by the approached social ventures has eased the data collection from the relevant respondents and it has also reduced the non-response bias.

#### **3.3.4 Sampling Procedure**

Due to the above-mentioned challenges, it is difficult to identify a sampling frame for social entrepreneurship research (Short et al., 2009). Therefore, firstly a database of the social ventures is compiled based on the success stories of the social ventures in

newspaper articles, blogs, international agencies report, and a book written on social enterprises in Pakistan. After initial contact and getting personally administered questionnaire filled, they were asked to provide single or multiple referrals of the social ventures who are working with the same passion and mission.

### **3.3.5 Measurement of Constructs**

This study has considered the relationship between the measures and their relevant latent construct i.e. measurement model, in order to avoid any model misspecification as suggested (Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). It is argued that all the constructs should not be treated alike and there should be careful deliberation before deciding whether a given construct is reflective or formative (Chin, 1998). If the changes in the underlying construct cause changes in the indicator, then the construct is believed to be reflective (Jarvis et al., 2003, p. 200). While it is different in formative i.e. changes in formative measures bring changes in the latent construct because it is a composite of multiple measures which causes the construct (MacCallum & Browne, 1993).

Instead of just focusing on the structural paths between constructs, it is advised to focus on the relationship between measures and constructs as well while designing a study (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005). If this issue is not addressed appropriately, then it may result in measurement error that in turn affects the structural model (Jarvis et al., 2003; MacKenzie et al., 2005). It also enhances the potential of Type I (considering a path significant when it is not) and Type II error (declaring a path non-significant when it is significant) while concluding

structural paths (Jarvis et al., 2003; Mackenzie, 2001; MacKenzie et al., 2005). The tendency for the wrong categorization of formative constructs as reflective is more prevalent.

The assessment of a particular construct as if it is reflective or formative is based on certain decision rules (Jarvis et al., 2003; Petter, Straub, & Rai, 2007). The first decision rule is to consider the direction of causality between each construct and its measures. If the direction of causality is from construct to measures, then it is reflective while if it is in the opposite direction then such a construct can be considered as formative. Secondly, the interchangeability of the measures requires to be examined. If they share a common theme and are interchangeable then they are reflective. While the formative measures cannot be used interchangeably as dropping any of them can influence the meaning of the construct. Thirdly, formative measures are not required to be highly correlated though they may covary, unlike reflective measure. The correlation of the measures can be examined while performing statistical analysis. And finally, as formative constructs are composites of variant measures, so the measures do not necessarily have the same antecedents and consequences as opposed to reflective measures.

Therefore, this study has carefully analyzed all the constructs under study and found them all to be formative based on the above mentioned primary decision rules proposed by Jarvis et al. (2003). All the items for the constructs naming bricolage behavior, internal and external social capital, social innovation and scaling of social

impact are measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from '1' "strongly agree" to '7' "strongly disagree".

#### **3.3.5.1 Bricolage Behavior**

The bricolage behavior is adapted from the scale developed by Davidsson, Baker, and Senyard (2017). Though bricolage is proposed as a unidimensional construct following the reflective measurement logic. However, after carefully studying the literature, it is found to be a formative construct which encompasses three constructs i.e. making do, at hand resources and recombination of existing resources for a new purpose (T. Baker et al., 2003; T. Baker & Nelson, 2005).

The three components are distinctive and therefore, form the bricolage behavior with the direction of causality from measures to construct and deleting any of them can influence the construct. Therefore, if the organization can improve its' ability to make do, it can subsequently result in the improved display of bricolage behavior. Similar is the case with the other two aspects. Also some of the existing studies have focused on bricolage behavior as a formative construct (Senyard et al., 2009; Senyard et al., 2014). Based on the above arguments, bricolage behavior is taken as a formative construct.

This scale is adapted in this study due to its extensive use in the substantial empirical studies especially under the resource-poor environments, for large enough samples, to help reach the correct conclusion (Bojica et al., 2014; Bojicaa et al., 2018; Davidsson et al., 2017; Gundry et al., 2011a; Senyard et al., 2009; Senyard et al., 2014; Senyard



et al., 2010; Senyard et al., 2011; Senyard et al., 2015). It was first developed in 2009 and then later refined in 2017 by the same authors. This nine-item scale shows good results for validity and reliability after rigorous testing. In its development, it is applied to multiple samples resulting in reliability ranging from 0.80-0.85. The items of the scale are mentioned in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1  
*Bricolage Behavior Scale*

<b>Bricolage behavior</b>	
1	In our organization, we usually find workable solutions to new challenges by using our existing resources.
2	In our organization, we typically take on a broader range of challenges than others with our resources would do.
3	In our organization, we use any existing resource that seems useful to responding to a new problem or opportunity.
4	In our organization, we deal with new challenges by applying a combination of our existing resources and other resources inexpensively available to us.
5	In our organization, when dealing with new problems or opportunities we immediately take action by assuming that we will find a workable solution.
6	By combining our existing resources, in our organization, we take on a very broad variety of new challenges.
7	In our organization, when we face new challenges we put together workable solutions from our existing resources.
8	We combine resources to accomplish new challenges in our organization that the resources were not originally intended to accomplish.
9	To deal with new challenges, our organization access resources at low or no cost and combine them with what we already have.

### 3.3.5.2 Social Capital

The existing studies considers social capital as a second order formative scale (Hau, Kim, Lee, & Kim, 2013; Karahanna & Preston, 2013) which comprised of structural, relational and cognitive dimensions (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) which are

represented by social trust, social ties and shared goals (Hau & Kang, 2016). Therefore, this study has also considered social capital as a multidimensional formative scale along two dimensions.

Internal capital is composites of three important, different and distinct dimensions i.e. information sharing, trust, and shared vision. The direction of the causality is from measures to construct where any change in the measures can bring the change in the construct. For example, if information sharing improves then internal social capital also improves. However, information sharing, trust, and shared vision are all different representation of internal social capital and removing any of them can change the interpretation of the internal social capital.

Internal social capital is measured by adapting a seven-item scale from Leana and Pil (2006) which is based on Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998). The three facets of social capital i.e. structural, relational and cognitive are also considered by focusing on information sharing, trust and a shared vision among the individuals within the organization (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). The reliability of the scale is well above the recommended threshold level of 0.7 i.e. 0.91. The items of the scale are mentioned in table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2  
*Internal Social Capital Scale*

<b>Internal social capital</b>	
1	All of our employees at our organization have a passion to achieve common goals.
2	All of our employees in our organization can keep their promises to each other.
3	All of our employees in our organization have a common goal and vision.

- 4 Employees in our organization maintain close relationships.
  - 5 Employees in our organization tries their best to avoid harming other's interests.
  - 6 There is trust among employees in our organization. Even if one has the opportunity to take advantage of the other, he/she will not do so.
  - 7 Employees in our organization regularly exchange knowledge or information through informal conversations.
- 

Just like internal social capital, external social capital is also taken as a formative construct as it is a composite of the abovementioned three distinctly different aspects. All these distinct aspects together form external social capital and if any of them changes, it will bring the corresponding change in their respective constructs. It is also not feasible to delete any of the aspects as it can result in the corresponding change in the external social capital.

The external social capital is measured by adapting a seven-item scale developed by Dai et al. (2015), following Tsai and Ghoshal (1998). It also includes the structural, relational and cognitive facets of the social capital with a focus on trust, information sharing and shared vision with external stakeholders. The reliability of the scale 0.88. The items of the scale are mentioned in table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3

*External Social Capital*

<b>External social capital</b>	
1	Our stakeholders and our organization are able to keep promises to each other.
2	Our stakeholders have an open attitude toward introducing new customers to us.
3	Our organization frequently comes into contact with other new customers through existing customers.
4	Our stakeholders try their best to avoid harming our interests.

- 5 Our stakeholders maintain intimate relationships with us.
  - 6 There is trust between our stakeholders and our organization. Even if one party has the opportunity to take advantage of the other, it will not do so.
  - 7 Our stakeholders maintain personal friendships with our questionnaire.
- 

### **3.3.5.3 Social Innovation**

The review of the literature suggests that social innovation is a multidimensional construct (Alijani et al., 2016; Phills et al., 2008; Westley & Antadze, 2010). The eleven items, adapted here, are categorized into access to knowledge for social projects, development of the innovative social project, the impact of innovative social project and governance and together they indicate an organization's ability to enact social innovation (Innobasque, 2013; Urban & Gaffurini, 2018). As there are four different and unique aspects or measures to represent social innovation, therefore, it is not possible to remove any of them. Similarly, social innovation is the composite construct of these four aspects and the direction of causality is from measure to construct. It provides enough theoretical justification to treat this construct as formative. While statistically, the measures of the construct are also not highly correlated unlike reflective measures in the analysis performed in chapter 4 (See Appendix I). Therefore, social innovation is treated as formative construct based on theoretical and statistical justifications.

Social innovation is measured by adapting an eleven items regional social innovation index. The scale is chosen due to the extensive efforts involved in developing this index with the intent of allowing its customization to fit various sectors including businesses, non-profit organization, universities, and technology centers (Innobasque,

2013; Urban & Gaffurini, 2018). This scale displays sufficient reliability with a Cronbach alpha of 0.86 which is considered highly reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The items of the scale are mentioned in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4  
*Social Innovation Scale*

<b>Social Innovation</b>	
1	We use different sources of ideas to develop social projects.
2	We collaborate with different partners to design social projects.
3	We obtain funds for social projects from few sources.
4	We use different tools to measure our social projects.
5	We intervene in communities through different approaches
6	We share reports of achievements of our projects through different channels.
7	We improve our organization by delivering social projects
8	Our projects make changes in different social sectors.
9	Beneficiaries participate in the project of our organization.
10	We partner with different organizations in delivering social projects
11	Our projects are financially sustainable.

#### 3.3.5.4 Scaling of Social Impact

The unique multiple aspects of the scaling of social impact are revealed after careful examination of the existing literature (Bacq & Janssen, 2009; Bacq et al., 2015; Bloom & Chatterji, 2009; Bloom & Smith, 2010). It includes the ability of the social ventures to scale their impact by serving more people along with improving the outcomes in the more drastic way and dealing with the multiple social problems by increasing their geographic reach. All of these when combine compose the scaling of social impact, therefore, the direction of causality is from the measures to the construct. Moreover, they are not interchangeable as deleting any of them will in turn influence the resulting construct of scaling of social impact.

The six item-scale developed by Bacq et al. (2015), specially formulated under the context resource-poor environment of social ventures, is adapted here to measure the scaling of social impact. This scale is chosen due to its capability to cover more aspects related to the measurement of social impact created by the social enterprises as compared to the four-item scale developed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009). The reliability of this scale is also comparatively high and well above the accepted threshold level i.e. 0.79. All the items are shown in table 3.5 below:

Table 3.5  
*Scaling of Social Impact*

<b>Scaling of social impact</b>	
1	Our organization's approach allows us to serve potentially large groups of people.
2	In our organization, we are able to improve our offerings by expanding market reach (e.g., offering services to more people).
3	In our organization, we have scaled up our capabilities to address our mission.
4	In our organization, we have greatly expanded the number of individuals we serve.
5	In our organization, we have substantially increased the geographic area we serve.
6	Our organization's work and approach is transferable to other locations.

### **3.3.5.5 Financial Performance**

This study measures financial performance through a subjective rating. The subjective rating is proved to be useful under the conditions where the respondents are reluctant to share their financial performance in absolute numeric terms (Son, Lee, & Chung, 2018). Financial performance is measured by adapting a composite financial performance indicator originally developed by Iakovleva (2005) and which was later improved by Bacq et al. (2011). They adapted the developed questionnaire under the

context of social entrepreneurship and improved it by deleting one item i.e. market share, which is not relevant in social entrepreneurship research.

Organization performance is argued to be a formative construct because it is a composite measure that includes variant measures (Petter et al., 2007) of sales level, sales growth, profitability, net profit, gross profit and ability to fund enterprise growth from profits. All the measures capture a different aspect of organizational performance that is not interchangeable. Their contribution towards performance is unique and the direction of causality is from the measures to the construct. For example, if the ability of the enterprise growth from profits improves then it improves the financial performance of the enterprise.

The financial performance is measured by the composite importance and satisfaction that social ventures attached to certain indicators as listed in the subsequent table 3.6. The composite measure of the financial performance is first measured for the degree of importance attached to several measures by using a seven-point Likert scale. This scale ranges from “1” for extremely unimportant to “7” for extremely important. Following the degree of importance, the satisfaction with the same items is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “1” for extremely satisfied to “7” for extremely dissatisfied.

The composite performance index is constructed by rescaling the question on the performance importance scale from 1 to 7 to -3 to +3. It will be then multiplied with

the performance satisfaction scale. The reliability of this scale is also well above the acceptable level i.e. 0.85.

Table 3.6  
*Financial Performance*

<b>Degree of importance attached to the following items by social organization</b>	
1	Sales level
2	Sales growth
3	Profitability
4	Net profit
5	Gross profit
6	Ability to fund enterprise growth from profits
<b>Degree of satisfaction attached to the following items by social organization</b>	
7	Sales level
8	Sales growth
9	Profitability
10	Net profit
11	Gross profit
12	Ability to fund enterprise growth from profits

### 3.3.6 Questionnaire Design

A structured questionnaire is used for collecting the required data (see Appendix A). As both English and Urdu are the official languages of Pakistan, therefore, this questionnaire is also translated in Urdu as it is considered as the national language (see Appendix B). First, the questionnaire is translated in Urdu by a subject specialist, then it is back-translated in English to cross check if it has retained its essence and to ensure equivalence between source, target and back-translated version (Brislin, 1970).

The questionnaire is comprised of 52 questions to measure the constructs under study and 8 questions regarding demographics along with 2 questions to measure control



variables. All the questions are adapted to match the context of social organizations. The construct, social capital, is a multidimensional construct, therefore, it is measured along an internal and external dimension. While all the other variables under study are taken as unidimensional i.e. bricolage behavior, social innovation and financial and social impact of the social enterprise.

The questionnaire starts with a cover letter to introduce the research topic and motivate the respondent to answer all the questions while ensuring to keep the anonymity of all the obtained information and use it only for research purpose. There are three parts of the questionnaire. Section A includes the questions to measure all the variables under study except for financial performance. Section B includes questions regarding financial performance. The questionnaire is concluded by the information regarding the demographics and control variables in section C.

### **3.4 Content Validity**

Content validity refers to the degree or “extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure” (Lynn, 1986, p. 382) or the degree to which a scale contains the appropriate sample of items that truly represent or are congruent with the operational definition of the construct of interest (Polit & Beck, 2006; Polit, Beck, & Owen, 2007). The most commonly used method for establishing the content validity of the multiple items scale is the content validity index (CVI). This method relied on the ratings by the content experts regarding the relevance of the items (Polit & Beck, 2006). The CVI can be computed for both, for the items (I-CVI) as well as for the overall scale (S-CVI) (Lynn, 1986).

The minimum number of expert advised by Lynn (1986), for establishing the content validity, is three but it is advised that it should not be more than ten as it is unnecessary. However, experts more than 5 allows for a modest disagreement. The minimum content validity recommended for I-CVI is 0.78 for 5 or more experts, while it should be equal to 1.00 in case of fewer than 5 experts. In case of S-CVI, first the I-CVI is computed for each of the items and then its average is calculated. The minimum average S-CVI recommended is 0.8 (Polit et al., 2007).

In this study, the content validity of the items and the overall scale was determined by a panel of experts based on their expertise in different disciplines (Davis, 1992). They were divided into two groups. The first group included three academicians from Malaysia and the second group included three from Pakistan. Both groups were asked to rate each scale item for its relevance to the construct by using a 4-point scale to avoid having a neutral middle rating common in odd number rating scales (Davis, 1992; Lynn, 1986). The 4-point scale included the labels along the continuum ranging from 1= not relevant, 2= somewhat relevant, 3= quite relevant and 4= highly relevant. The content validity for the items as well as for the overall scale is given in Table 3.7. All the items of the constructs have higher I-CVI ranging from 0.83 to 1.00. While the constructs validity i.e. S-CVI, is also sufficiently high in this study ranging from 0.92 to 1.00 (refer to Table 3.8).

In addition to this, the experts also suggested some items of the scale to be reworded when they were asked if the words used in scales are clear enough to convey the

intended meaning. One of the experts suggested rewording the first three items of internal social capital from “All of our employees at our organization have a passion to achieve common goals” to “Our employees have a passion to achieve organizational goals”. The second item reworded was “All of our employees in our organization can keep their promises to each other” to “Our employees can keep promises to each other”. Similarly, the third item was reworded from “All of our employees in our organization have a common goal and vision” to “Our employees have a common goal and vision”.

Another expert recommended rewording the first item of external social capital from “Our stakeholders and our organization are able to keep promises to each other” to “Our stakeholders and our organization keep promises to each other”. The same expert suggested to reword the second item of scaling of social impact from “In our organization, we are able to improve our offerings by expanding market reach (e.g., offering services to more people, adding locations, etc.)” to “In our organization, we improve our offerings by expanding market reach (e.g., offering services to more people, adding locations, etc.)”.

Still another expert advised rewording the second item of scaling of social impact from “In our organization, we have scaled up our capabilities to address our mission” to “In our organization, we have increased our capabilities to address our mission”. Similarly, another suggested rewording of the third item of external social capital from “Our organization frequently comes into contact with other new customers through existing customers” to “Our organization frequently comes in contact with other new

customers through existing customers”. All the suggested changes were later incorporated in the final questionnaire before carrying out the survey. The content validity is considered crucial when the dimensions or measures form a particular construct i.e. formative measure (Petter et al., 2007). As in this study, where all the constructs are formative, establishing content validity is considered mandatory.

Table 3.7  
*Summary of Scale Level Content Validity Index (S-CVI)*

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>S-CVI/Ave</b>
Bricolage Behavior	9	0.98
Internal Social Capital	7	1.00
External Social Capital	7	0.97
Scaling of Social Impact	6	1.00
Social Innovation	11	0.98
Financial Performance (importance)	6	1.00
Financial Performance (satisfaction)	6	1.00

Table 3.8  
*Summary of Items Level Content Validity Index (I-CVIs)*

<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>I-CVI</b>
<b>Bricolage Behavior</b>	9	
1 In our organization, we usually find workable solutions to new challenges by using our existing resources		1.00
2 In our organization, we typically take on a broader range of challenges than others with our resources would do		1.00

3	In our organization, we use any existing resource that seems useful to responding to a new problem or opportunity	1.00
4	In our organization, we deal with new challenges by applying a combination of our existing resources and other resources inexpensively available to us	1.00
5	In our organization, when dealing with new problems or opportunities we immediately take action by assuming that we will find a workable solution	1.00
6	By combining our existing resources, in our organization, we take on a very broad variety of new challenges	1.00
7	In our organization, when we face new challenges we put together workable solutions from our existing resources	1.00
8	We combine resources to accomplish new challenges in our organization that the resources were not originally intended to accomplish	0.83
9	To deal with new challenges, our organization access resources at low or no cost and combine them with what we already have.	1.00
<b>Internal Social Capital</b>		<b>7</b>
1	Our employees have a passion to achieve common goals.	1.00
2	Our employees can keep their promises to each other.	1.00
3	Our employees have a common goal and vision.	1.00
4	Employees in our organization maintain close relationships.	1.00
5	Employees in our organization tries their best to avoid harming other's interests.	1.00
6	There is trust among employees in our organization. Even if one has the opportunity to take advantage of the other, he/she will not do so.	1.00
7	Employees in our organization regularly exchange knowledge or information through informal conversations.	1.00

Construct		Number of items	I-CVI
<b>External Social Capital</b>		<b>7</b>	
1	Our stakeholders and our organization keep promises to each other.		1.00
2	Our stakeholders have an open attitude toward introducing new customers to us.		1.00
3	Our organization frequently comes into contact with other new customers through existing customers.		1.00
4	Our stakeholders try their best to avoid harming our interests.		1.00

5	Our stakeholders maintain intimate relationships with us.	1.00
6	There is trust between our stakeholders and our organization. Even if one party has the opportunity to take advantage of the other, it will not do so.	1.00
7	Our stakeholders maintain personal friendships with our organization.	0.83
<b>Scaling of Social Impact</b>		<b>6</b>
1	Our organization's approach allows us to serve potentially large groups of people.	1.00
2	In our organization, we improve our offerings by expanding market reach (e.g., offering services to more people, adding locations, etc.).	1.00
3	In our organization, we have scaled up our capabilities to address our mission.	1.00
4	In our organization, we have greatly expanded the number of individuals we serve.	1.00
5	In our organization, we have substantially increased the geographic area we serve.	1.00
6	Our organization's work and approach are transferable to other locations.	1.00
<b>Social Innovation</b>		<b>11</b>
1	We use different sources of ideas to develop social projects.	0.83
2	We collaborate with different partners to design social projects.	1.00
3	We obtain funds for social projects from few sources.	1.00
4	We use different tools to measure our projects.	1.00
5	We share reports of achievements of our projects through different channels.	1.00
6	We improve our organization by delivering social projects	1.00
7	Our projects make changes in different social sectors.	1.00
<b>Construct</b>		<b>Number of Items</b>
8	Beneficiaries participate in the project of our organization.	1.00
9	We partner with different organizations in delivering social projects	1.00
10	We intervene in communities through different approaches.	1.00
11	Our projects are financially sustainable.	1.00
<b>Financial Performance (Importance)</b>		<b>6</b>

1	Sales level	1.00
2	Sales growth	1.00
3	Profitability	1.00
4	Net profit	1.00
5	Gross profit	1.00
6	Ability to fund enterprise growth from profits	1.00
<b>Financial Performance (Satisfaction)</b>		<b>6</b>
1	Sales level	1.00
2	Sales growth	1.00
3	Profitability	1.00
4	Net profit	1.00
5	Gross profit	1.00
6	Ability to fund enterprise growth from profits	1.00

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### 3.5 Pre-Test

It is important to ensure that all the questions in a questionnaire are clearly understood by the respondents without any ambiguity and they can comprehend all the wordings used in the questionnaire (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016, p. 155). Sometimes, they either misunderstand or understand in a completely different way without even realizing it (Collins, 2003; Grimm, 2010a). Therefore, it is suggested to pretest the instrument prior to the collection of data. It includes testing the instrument for its appropriateness and comprehension by giving it to a small number of actual respondents that are representative of the population i.e. social enterprises in this study. They can help in the identification and rectification of any inadequacies in the questions before administering it to a larger audience and can help reduce the biasness.

It is suggested to conduct pretest instead of pilot study because the latter is not feasible when the target population is difficult to access and relatively small (Memon, Ting, Ramayah, Chuah, & Cheah, 2017). As in this study, the absence of any comprehensive

social ventures list has made it extremely difficult to identify and access many social ventures. Therefore, a pretest is conducted as it will increase the likelihood of improved data quality, reduce the deletion of items/cases during measurement model assessment (Memon et al., 2017) and reduce measurement errors (Blair & Conrad, 2011).

One of the most common methods for pre-testing is the cognitive interview which is a semi-structured in-depth interview that focusses on the thought processes of the respondents while answering the survey questions (Collins, 2003; Neuert & Lenzner, 2015). Cognitive interview can be conducted by debriefing and protocol, where you encourage the respondent to articulate any problem with the question at the end of completing questionnaire after careful observation in the former, while you ask the respondent to think aloud about any issues while filling the questionnaire in the latter (Hunt, Sparkman, & Wilcox, 1982; Reynolds, Diamantopoulos, & Schlegelmilch, 1993).

There is no agreement on the number of respondents for pre-test and it also does not require any statistical analysis. Some researches mentioned a sample size of at least 5-15 in case of large-scale surveys (Willis, 2005), other consider 12 as enough (Ferber & Verdoorn, 1962) while still others advise it to be at least 30 (Perneger, Courvoisier, Hudelson, & Gayet-Ageron, 2015). However, keeping in view the difficulties mentioned above in collecting the data, this study has conducted the pretest with 9 social enterprises on their opinion about the survey instrument and if they feel any difficulty in filling out the questionnaire.



Particularly, protocol is applied at first where the respondents are asked to think aloud while filling the questionnaire. Then by the end of the completion of the questionnaire, they are categorically asked about any issue regarding the questionnaire as in debriefing. Both methods are applied because none is considered superior to the other and yield almost the same results (Hunt et al., 1982). As most of the respondents are graduates or above in addition to the national language Urdu version of the questionnaire along with the earlier conducted content validity as well, the respondents didn't mention any serious issues with the questionnaire.

### **3.6 Data Collection Procedures**

This study has followed a cross-sectional research design because the data is collected just once (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016) due to time and cost constraint. However, as the respondents i.e. social enterprises are geographically disbursed, therefore, assistance from 20 university students is also taken for data collection in order to collect it in the shortest possible time. The students willingly agreed to collect the data as part of their volunteer in service (VIS) program for their respective University of Central Punjab (UCP), Lahore, Pakistan.

The questionnaires are used as major data collection technique due to its prevalence in the social sciences research (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Data is collected through multiple means including personally administered questionnaire by the researcher with the assistance of the university students. As this whole process of data collection

ensures a personal touch with the social ventures, therefore, the chances to get a double response from the same respondent is also eliminated.

However, keeping in view the time constraints, it also included a self-completed online questionnaire due to multiple reasons. It is considered to provide easy access to a large number of social enterprises in far located areas along with the speed to response as an added advantage (Granados & Rivera, 2017). The respondents were first contacted through telephone or email and they were requested to fill the online questionnaire. Follow up calls and emails were also made to ensure the timely completion of the questionnaire.

For the data collection purpose, a database of the social ventures was first compiled by the researcher (refer to Appendix C) by using multiple resources including: the success stories published in newspaper (Afzaal, 2019; Khaishgi, 2017; Mengal, 2018; Mughal, 2018; Shahram, 2016), online databases (Amden, 2018, November 15; Saeed, 2019), social enterprise report published by British Council of Pakistan (M. M. Ahmed et al., 2016), another report by an international agency *i-genious* (Hutchinson & Patel, 2014), blogs (Ramsha, 2015), and online videos and interviews (Social Innovation Lab, 2019; Tajammul, 2017, Jan 7).

The data collection started based on the compiled list of almost 87 social enterprises. However, some of the social ventures could not be contacted due to either change in their address or phone numbers while some others discontinued their operations over time. However, 81 out of 87 social ventures participated in the initial data collection

phase. It was requested from all of the 81 key informants from each social enterprise to provide at least a single or multiple referral of other social ventures.

One of the social ventures, Social Innovation Lab (SIL), an incubator for social ventures in Pakistan particularly proved out to be the most beneficial for the data collection as they were successful in providing multiple referrals i.e. more than 100. Due to the nature of their social mission, they are in regular contact with a number of social ventures while providing them with infrastructure, training, consultancies and multiple facilities. They have also assisted the British Council for compiling a report on the state of social enterprises in Pakistan (M. M. Ahmed et al., 2016).

In the nutshell, the snowball sampling technique helped in distributing the questionnaire to almost 321 social ventures in total. Keeping in view the existing social entrepreneurship researches of the estimated expected response rate of 12%-46% (Bacq et al., 2011; Chmelik et al., 2015; Granados & Rivera, 2017; McDonald, 2007; Urban & Gaffurini, 2018), the questionnaires were distributed to almost 321 respondents keeping in view the required minimum sample size of 129. Being reasonable with self-administration approach, 40% response rate was deemed to be appropriate.

### **3.7 Data Analysis Techniques**

#### **3.7.1 Preliminary Data Screening**

First, the data will be coded and keyed in and edited to prepare it for further analysis. The editing will be performed to detect illogical response i.e. outlier's response, inconsistent response, and illegal codes. The data will be screened to check for any error or missing value as it can distort the analysis. This can be done through missing value analysis (MVA) in SPSS. Then an assessment of multivariate outliers will be performed followed by normality test and non-response bias test.

#### **3.7.2 Checking Descriptive**

It will involve the detailed description of the sample organizations which will be done through analyzing the demographics in the questionnaire. The frequency i.e. the number of times various subcategories of a particular phenomenon occurs, mean i.e. central tendency, and standard deviation i.e. variability, for the characteristics of the sample along with the constructs will be analyzed for the descriptive information.

#### **3.7.3 Reliability and Validity**

Both descriptive and inferential statistics will then be used to analyze the collected data. The measures will be tested for goodness by checking their reliability i.e. "how well the items measuring a concept hang together as a set"(Sekaran & Bougie, 2016, p. 289). The instruments are also tested for validity i.e. if the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. It includes content validity and convergent validity. Content validity has already been performed prior to data collection. However,

convergent validity i.e. when two different sources respond to the same measure and are highly correlated (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016), will be assessed through average variance extracted measure (AVE).

#### **3.7.4 Inferential Statistics**

There are two possible categorizations of inferential statistics i.e. parametric and non-parametric. The parametric tests are applied if the data which is being tested follows a particular bell-shaped or normal distribution. Secondly, if the dependent variable is measured on a continuous scale then also parametric tests are applied. However, if the data is not normal then the study should follow non-parametric tests (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

The hypothesized relationship between independent and dependent variables will be tested through the regression analysis. As there is more than one independent variable to explain variance in the dependent variable, therefore, multiple regression analysis, a multivariate technique, will be performed (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). To explain the variation in the dependent variable, the relative importance of each independent variable will be represented by the regression coefficient.

#### **3.8 Summary**

This chapter discusses the operational definitions and the different measures adapted for the purpose of developing a questionnaire for this study. Moreover, research design with population, sampling design, size, technique and procedure along with the questionnaire design is discussed. The content validity and pre-test are discussed in

detail in the ensuing section. Finally, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques including preliminary data screening, descriptive statistics, parametric and non-parametric test, and the reliability and validity are discussed.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter is dedicated to present the findings of the present study. This section is divided into six sections including response rate, followed by the data screening process. After data coding, this stage included missing value analysis, assessment of multivariate outliers, normality test, and non-response bias test. Then the data is tested for common method biasness, followed by the detailed description of demographics of the participating social enterprises and descriptive statistics of all the latent variables. Finally, the hypothesized relationships are assessed by the evaluation of the PLS-SEM results. First, the formative measurement model is assessed to check the validity and reliability i.e. quality model. Secondly, structural model is assessed in order to check the hypothesized relationships i.e. direct relations and the mediation analysis. Finally, the summary of the results is given to conclude this chapter.

#### **4.2 Response Rate**

Data is collected from the social enterprises located mainly in the provinces of Punjab, Sindh and the capital city Islamabad. Questionnaires are distributed among 321 social enterprises by using both personally administered and self-completed online questionnaire method as discussed in research methodology earlier. A total of 154 questionnaires are received back recording a response rate of approximately 48%.

However, only 133 are found to be completed in all aspect to be used further in the analysis. Fourteen respondents have not completed their demographic information while seven have given incomplete responses making up a total of 21. It shows the response rate of approximately 41% (Table 4.1) which is consistent with the previous empirical studies. The existing empirical studies display varied response rate in the social entrepreneurship research, ranging from 12%-46% (Bacq et al., 2011; Chmelik et al., 2015; Granados & Rivera, 2017; McDonald, 2007; Urban & Gaffurini, 2018).

Even after the response rate of 41%, the sample size is in line with the suggestion of the Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) i.e. ten times (preferable more times) the number of the study variable. As this study includes four variables including bricolage behavior, social capital, social innovation, social enterprise performance (scaling of social impact and financial performance), therefore, the required sample size for analysis is minimum 40. Also, priori G\* Power 3.1 requirement of the sample size to conduct on multiple regression-based analysis (Faul et al., 2007), is fulfilled and therefore exceeds fairly beyond 129, as initially calculated in the third chapter.

Table 4.1  
*Questionnaire Response Rate*

<b>Response</b>	<b>Total</b>
Distributed Questionnaires	321
<b>Returned Questionnaires</b>	<b>154</b>
Questionnaires not Returned	167
<b>Response Rate</b>	<b>48%</b>
Excluded Questionnaires due to Demographics	14



Excluded Questionnaires due to Incomplete Responses	7
Total Excluded Questionnaires	21
<b>Total Usable Questionnaires</b>	<b>133</b>
<hr/>	
<b>Valid Response Rate</b>	<b>41%</b>
<hr/>	

### 4.3 Data Screening

The rigorous examination of data is required for the identification of missing data, outliers and violation of any assumptions as it can accumulate across a variety of variables to cast substantial effects (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Therefore, the following data screening methods are performed for this study after coding the data; 1) Missing value analysis, 2) Assessment of outliers, 3) Normality test, 4) Non-response bias, as per the given suggestions (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

#### 4.3.1 Data Coding

All the items of the questionnaire are first given codes ranging from 3-4 letters to represent their respective latent variables for identification and to further use them easily in SPSS and PLS both. Particularly, items for bricolage behavior are coded as BB1 to BB9, external social capital as ESC1 to ESC7, internal social capital as ISC1 to ISC7, social innovation are coded as SI1 to SI11, financial performance importance items as FPI1 to FPI6, financial performance satisfaction as FPS1 to FPS6 and finally scaling of social impact items are coded as SSI1 to SSI6 respectively. All the

completed and returned usable 133 questionnaires are then coded and entered into the IBM Statistics SPSS version 23.

#### 4.3.2 Missing Value Analysis

The data coding in SPSS is then followed by the identification of the number of missing values by computing the descriptive statistics. Only 32 values are missed randomly i.e. MCAR (Missing Completely At Random) out of the total 6916 data points accounting for 0.46% approximately (refer to Table 4.2). 5 and less than 5% missing values are considered non-significant (Dong & Peng, 2013; Schafer, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). However, for conducting Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), one of the strict assumptions demands the absence of missing values.

In this particular study, bricolage behavior with 2, internal social capital with 7, external social capital with 9, social innovation with 6, scaling of social impact with 5 and financial performance with 3 missing values have been identified out of total 32 (see Appendix E). Missing data is dealt with by using the principled method of Expectation-Maximization (EM). This method is suggested because it is considered to be unbiased, simple and easy to implement (Dempster, Laird, & Rubin, 1977; Dong & Peng, 2013).

Table 4.2  
*Missing Values in Data Set (n=131)*

Construct	Number of Missing Values
Bricolage Behavior	2
Internal Social Capital	7

External Social Capital	9
Social Innovation	6
Scaling of social impact	5
Financial performance	3
<hr/>	
	32 out of 6916 data points
Total percentage	0.46%

Note: Percentage of missing values is calculated by dividing the total number of missing values by the total number of data points multiplied by 100

### 4.3.3 Assessment of Multivariate Outliers

There are certain cases where two or more variables can be identified with an unusual combination of scores, where a particular response is far away from other responses in data, known as a multivariate outlier (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). These outliers can significantly affect the findings of the research and do not truly represent the population (Hair et al., 2010). Such outliers are identified through the measurement of Mahalanobis distance  $D^2$  which is a multivariate assessment of a particular observation across a set of variables (Hair et al., 2010, p. 64).

This study has also employed the measurement of Mahalanobis distance  $D^2$  to detect the multivariate outliers following the suggestion of Hair et al. (2010) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). This is done by analyzing the linear regression first and then followed by the computation of the Chi-square in IBM Statistics SPSS version 23. As this study has taken 4 predictors, therefore, the degree of freedom is 4. Using the 4 degrees of freedom, the critical value of Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) at  $p < 0.001$  is 18.4668. It means any value above this threshold value should be considered as a multivariate outlier and shall be removed accordingly.

The results (Appendix F) clearly depicts that the minimum value is 0.132 while the maximum value is 32.25. Only two cases are above the threshold level of 18.46 i.e. case 98 and 33 with Mahalanobis distance 32.25 and 31.68. Therefore, these two cases are removed and the remaining 131 are used for further analysis.

#### **4.3.4 Normality Test**

Normality refers to the bell-shaped curve of data distribution (Hair et al., 2010). It has the highest range of frequencies in the middle with the smallest range of frequencies towards the extremes (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000). This study has assessed the normality by following the suggestions put forward by Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2017), Ramayah, Yeap, Ahmad, Halim, and Rahman (2017) and Cain, Zhang, and Yuan (2017). This process involves accessing the Web application URL <http://psychstat.org/kurtosis> in a Web browser and uploading the data followed by clicking the calculation (Z. Zhang & Yuan, 2018). It resulted in the Mardia's multivariate skewness ( $\beta = 18.335$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and Mardia's multivariate kurtosis ( $\beta = 90.135$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

These values are pretty higher as compared to the limits suggested. The conservative one suggests that skewness should be less than 2 and kurtosis should be less than 7 (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996) while the comparatively liberal one suggests skewness to be less than 3 and kurtosis to be less than 10 (R. B. Kline, 2016). However, the study results clearly depict the non-normality of our data collected. The prevalence of non-normality is strongly endorsed in different studies by emphasizing that it cannot

be a rule in real data (Blanca, Arnau, L'opez-Montiel, Bono, & Bendayan, 2013; Cain et al., 2017; Micceri, 1989) especially in social sciences (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014). Therefore Smart PLS 3.2.7, a non-parametric analysis software, can be used for further analysis as it is lenient about the normality assumption of data (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

#### **4.3.5 Test of Non-response Bias**

The non-response bias can be estimated through extrapolation method on the basis of “time trends” as suggested by Armstrong and Overton (1977). It is based on the assumption that the subjects who respond late are more likely to resemble the non-respondents. As evident from Table 4.3, the respondents are first classified into two groups i.e. early respondent and late respondent based on their time to respond. Majority of the responses i.e. 80% were received early within a month before the last 20% which were received afterwards. Therefore, 105 have been identified as early respondents while only 26 have been identified as late respondents.

This analysis of equality of variance i.e. homogeneity of variance is performed by conducting the most commonly used Levene's test which is used to check if  $k$  samples have equal variance (Levene, 1960). This test is used due to its less sensitivity towards non-normal data. First of all, the mean and standard deviation for the early and late responses are calculated. As it is evident from Table 4.3, there is not much difference in the mean values and standard deviations of both groups.

Table 4.3

*Group Descriptive Statistics for Early and Late Respondents*

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
BB	Early Response	105	5.401	0.775
	Late Response	26	5.500	0.583
SCI	Early Response	105	5.359	0.772
	Late Response	26	5.642	0.659
SCE	Early Response	105	5.405	0.781
	Late Response	26	5.639	0.617
SI	Early Response	105	5.494	0.714
	Late Response	26	5.478	0.532
SSI	Early Response	105	5.575	1.216
	Late Response	26	5.671	0.581
FP	Early Response	105	7.919	5.108
	Late Response	26	8.113	3.685

Note: BB= Bricolage behavior, SCI= Internal social capital, SCE= External social capital, SI= Social innovation, SSI= Scaling of social innovation, FP= Financial performance

Secondly, an independent sample t-test is performed for the constructs in our study namely bricolage behavior, internal social capital, external social capital, social innovation, scaling of social impact and financial performance. The p-value is greater than 0.05% significance value for all the constructs suggesting no such biasness (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2010) as shown in Table 4.4 below. This suggests that non-response bias is not a problem in our study. The complete results are given in Appendix G.

Table 4.4

*Independent Samples Test for non-response bias (n=131)*

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			
Construct	Sig.	T-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
BB	0.262	-.609	.544
		-.721	.474
SCI	0.196	-1.500	.136
		-1.650	.106
SCE	0.253	-1.419	.158
		-1.634	.109
SI	0.202	.102	.919
		.122	.904
SSI	0.351	-.388	.699
		-.579	.564
FP	0.133	-.178	.859
		-.217	.829

#### 4.4 Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) may occur when the perceptual measures of the dependent and independent variables are collected through self-reported questionnaires from the same respondent or single source at the same time (Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). The self-reported data tends to inflate the relationship between the variables due to the presence of CMV (Conway & Lance, 2010). As this study has used self-reported data from social enterprises, therefore, there are chances of CMV. In order to deal with the CMV, it is strongly recommended to use procedural remedies or *ex-ante* approaches

(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). It is advised to take extra precautions as procedural remedies can deal more effectively deal with CMV in cases when the formative constructs are the part of the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, this study has used multiple procedural remedies to deal with common method variance.

First of all, the anonymity of the respondent is allowed in the questionnaire along with the assurance to keep all the responses as confidential. Moreover, it is also requested to answer as honestly as possible with no right or wrong answer as suggested (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Secondly, all the possible ambiguities in the questions are removed by receiving expert opinions through the content validity of the items (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Finally, the scales are reordered as per Podsakoff and Organ (1986), whereby the scale for the dependent variable comes after the scale for independent variable while designing the questionnaire.

In addition to the procedural remedies, the statistical remedies are also endorsed to deal with CMV. One of the most commonly used statistical remedies to deal with the issue of common method bias by the researchers is Harman's single factor test or (single-factor test) (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 889). This test is performed by loading all the variables into the exploratory factor analysis (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Aulakh & Gencturk, 2000) and check for the variance explained by one general factor by examining the unrotated factor solution.



This study has conducted Harman's single factor test using SPSS version 23. The results have generated 13 factors explaining a cumulative of 67% variance in total (see Appendix H). However, no single factor explaining more than 50% variance. The first extracted factor accounts for almost 31% which is much lesser than 50% explaining the absence of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Therefore, it can be inferred that common method bias is not an issue in our study.

#### 4.5 Demographic Description of the Respondents

The demographic description of the participating organizations is discussed in this section. It includes the geographic information of the social enterprise i.e. province and city, gender of the key respondent, their education, job level, the status of the organization as profit or not for profit, number of employees, age of the organization, ownership structure, source of funding and the type of industry in which it particularly operates (refer to Table 4.5).

Table 4.5  
*Demographic Description of the Respondents*

Sample description	Frequency	Valid Percentage (%)
<b>Province</b>		
Punjab	94	71.8
Sindh	22	16.8
Islamabad Capital Territory	15	11.5
<b>City</b>		
Faisalabad	6	4.6
Gujranwala	3	2.3
Hyderabad	2	1.5
Islamabad	15	11.5
Karachi	18	13.7
Kasoor	3	2.3

Lahore	48	36.6
Layyah	5	3.8
Multan	5	3.8
Rajanpur	1	0.8
Rawalpindi	4	3.1
Sakhar	2	1.5
Sialkot	19	14.5
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	101	77.1
Female	30	22.9
<b>Organization Status</b>		
For profit	26	19.8
Non-profit	105	80.2
<b>Education</b>		
No formal education	4	3.1
Less than matriculation	2	1.5
Matriculation	10	7.6
Intermediate	27	20.6
Under graduation	21	16.0
Graduation or above	67	51.1
<b>Job Level</b>		
Project manager	37	28.2
Social entrepreneur	37	28.2
Senior manager	41	31.3
Others	16	12.3
<b>Number of employees</b>		
1-50	41	31.3
51-100	25	19.1
101-150	17	13
151-200	29	22.1
201-250	19	14.5
<b>Age</b>		
Less than 5 years	37	28.3
5-10 years	59	45
11-15 years	8	6.1
16-20 years	12	9.2
More than 20 years	15	11.4
<b>Ownership</b>		

Joint Venture	11	8.3
Locally owned	78	59.6
Foreign owned	24	18.4
Government owned	15	11.4
More than one ownership	1	0.8
Others	2	1.5
<b>Funding</b>		
Self-funded	27	20.6
Government funded	23	17.6
Local private	33	25.2
International institutions	13	9.9
More than one	35	26.7
<b>Industry</b>		
Health	25	19.1
Education	27	20.6
Financial services	14	10.7
Energy	8	6.1
Agriculture and processing	13	9.9
Manufacturing	6	4.7
Information and communication technology	4	3
Others	6	4.6
More than one	24	18.3
More than 2	4	3

Data is collected mainly from the province of Punjab, Sindh and Capital city of Islamabad as shown in the table above. These areas are the most populous provinces of Pakistan representing almost 77% of the entire population (Okoye, 2017). The largest proportion of the data is collected from the Punjab province i.e. 71.8%. Data is collected from the total 13 different cities of Pakistan including 9 cities of Punjab, 3 cities of Sindh province and the Capital Territory Islamabad. The maximum number of responses are mainly collected from Lahore i.e. 48 constituting 36.6%.

Maximum number of respondents i.e. 77% are the males compared to 23% of the female representatives of the social enterprises. The legal structure of the maximum organizations is not for profit i.e. almost 80%. More than half of the respondents i.e. almost 51% are either graduates or possess higher education. The key respondents mainly included almost 31% of senior managers followed by an equal proportion of project manager and the social entrepreneurs. The largest proportion of the responding organizations mainly possess less than 50 employees i.e. almost 31%.

Similarly, the age of the maximum participating organizations is up to 10 years i.e. almost 45%. The mode of ownership among the responding social enterprises of Pakistan is mainly locally owned i.e. almost 60%. Moreover, the source of funding in most of these social enterprises is dominated by more than one source i.e. almost 27%. The education comes out to be the prominent industry in the social entrepreneurship landscape of Pakistan with almost 21% of organizations belonging to it.

#### **4.6 Descriptive Statistics of All the Latent Constructs**

The descriptive statistics of all the latent constructs used in this study are discussed in this section. It specifically includes mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values. All the variables of this are measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= somewhat disagree, 4= neutral, 5= somewhat agree, 6= agree, and 7= strongly agree. The overall mean ranges from 5.394 to 5.518 as shown in Table 4.6.

Particularly, the importance of financial performance is perceived relatively moderate among the social enterprises of Pakistan, with mean 5.373 and standard deviation of 0.835 compared to the other constructs in the study. While the scaling of the social impact is perceived to be the highest by the social enterprises of Pakistan, with mean value 5.518 and standard deviation 0.770. However, there is not much significant difference overall in the mean and standard deviation of all the variables under study (refer to Table 4.6).

Table 4.6  
*Results of the Descriptive Statistics of all the Latent Constructs (n=131)*

Latent constructs	Items	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max
Bricolage behavior	9	5.420	0.740	1.44	6.56
Internal social Capital	7	5.444	0.755	1.71	7.00
External social capital	7	5.451	0.755	2.43	6.71
Social innovation	11	5.491	0.680	2.91	6.55
Scaling of social impact	6	5.518	0.770	1.67	7.00
Financial performance (importance)	6	5.373	0.835	1.00	6.83
Financial performance (satisfaction)	6	5.412	0.771	2.83	6.67

#### 4.7 PLS-SEM

Structural equation modeling (SEM) has become increasingly important for investigating the cause and effect relations between the latent constructs (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). While partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) has received more attention for analyzing the complex relationships between

observed and latent variable without the imposition of data distributional assumptions (Hair, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019).

It is a preferred analytical tool for multiple reasons. First, the requirements to achieve a satisfactory numerical power is minimally placed on the residual distribution and sample size (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). Additional identified reasons for using PLS-SEM are the use of composites that represent formatively measured latent variables (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019; Hair, Sarstedt, et al., 2019) and small sample size (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009; Richter, Cepeda, Roldán, & Ringle, 2016; Sarstedt, Hair, Ringle, Thiele, & Gudergan, 2016). However, it depends upon the nature of the population and not acceptable when the population is large and easily accessible (Rigdon, 2016).

Moreover, it is also considered suitable for the prediction-oriented research which focuses on the explanation of endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). Therefore, based on above-mentioned reasons, this study has used Smart PLS 3.2.7 to determine the outer and inner model.

#### **4.8 Evaluation of PLS-SEM Results**

This study has got two exogenous variables i.e. bricolage behavior (BB) and social capital along the dimensions of external (SCE) and internal social capital (SCI), one mediating variable i.e. social innovation (SI) and two dependent variables (endogenous variable) i.e. scaling of social impact (SSI) and financial performance (FP).

The two-step procedure suggested by (J. C. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Henseler et al., 2009) is followed for the analysis of the data. It involves assessing the appropriateness of the measurement model followed by the assessment of the structural model (Hair, Risher, et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2014).

#### **4.8.1 Assessment of Formative Measurement Model**

Before shedding the light on the drivers of the social enterprise performance i.e. the relationship between the constructs, it is required to assess the quality of the model i.e. the composites' measurement. Therefore, following the sequence and criteria suggested by Chin (2010) and Hair et al. (2017), the composites' measurement model is first evaluated followed by the structural model.

Based on the discussion in chapter 3, it can be, therefore, conclude that this study has one first-order formative second-order formative construct i.e. social capital. While the rest of the four constructs including bricolage behavior, social innovation, scaling of social impact and financial performance, are all first order formative constructs.

Following the rules of thumb for the model evaluation (Hair et al., 2011), this particular stage involves the multiple steps for the assessment of formative measurement model (Hair et al., 2017) by first looking at the multicollinearity assessment along with the outer weight and the outer loading to interpret the relative importance and absolute importance of every indicator in the formation of the construct. Also, the significance of the outer weights is assessed after performing bootstrapping.

The variance inflation factor (VIF) is computed first to check if multicollinearity is causing any problem. The highest VIF value of 1.822 for the indicator FP2 in Table 4.7 is clearly below the conservative threshold level of less than 3.3 as suggested by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2006) and the liberal threshold level of less than 5 as suggested by Hair et al. (2011). Therefore, it can be inferred that the critical level of collinearity is not reached in any of the formative constructs and does not hinder in the estimation of the PLS path in this study.

Table 4.7  
*Formative Measurement Model Assessment (Multi-collinearity, Outer weights Significance)*

Construct	Items	VIF	Outer weights	Outer loadings	t-value	P value
<b>Bricolage</b>						
<b>Behavior</b>	BB2 -> BB	1.634	0.186	0.676	8.596	0.000**
	BB3 -> BB	1.662	0.218	0.740	7.339	0.000**
	BB4 -> BB	1.445	0.188	0.664	7.488	0.000**
	BB5 -> BB	1.326	0.131	0.523	4.300	0.000**
	BB6 -> BB	1.616	0.181	0.682	5.619	0.000**
	BB7 -> BB	1.486	0.184	0.652	6.812	0.000**
	BB8 -> BB	1.279	0.145	0.543	6.451	0.000**
	BB9 -> BB	1.412	0.188	0.635	7.667	0.000**
<b>Financial</b>						
<b>Performance</b>	FP1 -> FP	1.476	0.200	0.658	7.294	0.000**
	FP2 -> FP	1.822	0.211	0.753	7.978	0.000**
	FP3 -> FP	1.686	0.234	0.751	10.09	0.000**
	FP4 -> FP	1.671	0.234	0.759	9.072	0.000**
	FP5 -> FP	1.634	0.241	0.737	8.692	0.000**
	FP6 -> FP	1.468	0.253	0.706	9.190	0.000**
<b>External</b>						
<b>Social Capital</b>	SCE1 -> SCE	1.731	0.217	0.724	7.770	0.000**
	SCE2 -> SCE	1.441	0.197	0.650	7.168	0.000**
	SCE3 -> SCE	1.377	0.206	0.639	7.248	0.000**
	SCE4 -> SCE	1.545	0.215	0.709	9.242	0.000**



	SCE5 -> SCE	1.348	0.237	0.642	9.762	0.000**
	SCE6 -> SCE	1.385	0.194	0.610	4.671	0.000**
	SCE7 -> SCE	1.632	0.220	0.729	8.637	0.000**
<b>Internal</b>						
<b>Social Capital</b>	SCI1 -> SCI	1.442	0.245	0.697	7.787	0.000**
	SCI2 -> SCI	1.432	0.198	0.620	4.511	0.000**
	SCI3 -> SCI	1.692	0.257	0.742	8.129	0.000**
	SCI4 -> SCI	1.554	0.243	0.727	7.631	0.000**
	SCI5 -> SCI	1.249	0.187	0.562	4.334	0.000**
	SCI6 -> SCI	1.280	0.181	0.533	4.913	0.000**
	SCI7 -> SCI	1.295	0.226	0.607	5.667	0.000**
<b>Social</b>						
<b>Innovation</b>	SI1 -> SI	1.652	0.186	0.685	9.645	0.000**
	SI10 -> SI	1.372	0.143	0.568	6.465	0.000**
	SI11 -> SI	1.374	0.140	0.516	4.852	0.000**
	SI2 -> SI	1.792	0.166	0.687	8.357	0.000**
	SI3 -> SI	1.275	0.105	0.498	3.698	0.000**
	SI4 -> SI	1.306	0.108	0.511	3.868	0.000**
	SI5 -> SI	1.621	0.166	0.662	8.515	0.000**
	SI6 -> SI	1.543	0.165	0.655	10.186	0.000**
	SI7 -> SI	1.588	0.182	0.680	7.580	0.000**
	SI8 -> SI	1.458	0.137	0.583	6.935	0.000**
	SI9 -> SI	1.463	0.131	0.582	6.985	0.000**
<b>Scaling of</b>						
<b>Social Impact</b>	SSI1 -> SSI	1.227	0.238	0.611	4.461	0.000**
	SSI2 -> SSI	1.346	0.361	0.747	7.890	0.000**
	SSI3 -> SSI	1.385	0.320	0.731	7.086	0.000**
	SSI4 -> SSI	1.245	0.277	0.621	6.084	0.000**
	SSI5 -> SSI	1.322	0.275	0.651	7.362	0.000**
<b>Bricolage</b>						
<b>Behavior</b>	BB1 -> BB	1.364	0.140	0.560	4.957	0.000**

Note: \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*:  $p < 0.05$  (1 tail test with 5000 bootstrapping).

Now, the next step is to evaluate the composite indicator's relevance through the analysis of outer weights (Rosenbusch, Ismail, & Ringle, 2018). However, instead of just focusing on the relative contribution, the significance of the outer weights is also

assessed to get a detailed insight. It is suggested to interpret the latent variables with formative indicators on the basis of their weights as it provides an understanding about the relative importance of every indicator in the formation of such a construct (Chin, 2010).s

For this purpose, the bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrapping (BCa) with 5,000 subsamples is conducted. It is suggested to use the minimum sample size of 5000 in bootstrapping (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014). It is suggested to extend this significance testing approach by adding bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval (Gudergan, Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2008; Henseler et al., 2009; Sarstedt, Henseler, & Ringle, 2011). The results with no sign change in a 95 percent bias-corrected confidence interval allowed the assessment of the significance ( $p < 0.01$ ) of the outer weights.

The results in Table 4.7 clearly indicate that all the composite indicators except SSI6, of the scaling of social impact, are relatively important. Their contribution is also significant as well in their respective constructs i.e. bricolage behavior, social capital, social innovation, scaling of social impact and financial performance. The results of the SSI6 indicator of the scaling of social impact indicates an outer weight of 0.106 and significance of 0.222 and t-value of 1.222. However, the decision to delete it can only be taken after checking its absolute importance through outer loading.

It is suggested that researchers should also evaluate the absolute importance of the indicators for its respective constructs (Hair et al., 2011, p. 146; Hair et al., 2014). The

absolute importance of the indicator is revealed through the correlation between the constructs and their indicators i.e. outer loading. Again, the high ( $>0.5$ ) and significant ( $p<.001$ ) loadings of the composite indicators shows their satisfactory relevance with the constructs except for SSI6 with an outer loading of 0.120 and SI3 with an outer loading of 0.498. We should retain SI3 for its relative importance as evident from its significant outer weight as empirical support (Hair et al., 2014).

However, it is suggested to drop an indicator whose outer weight and outer loading both are non-significant as there is no empirical evidence to retain it (Hair et al., 2011). Therefore, the indicator SSI6 i.e. Our organization's work and approach are transferable to other locations, is finally deleted from the model. The indicator SSI2 i.e. In our organization, we are able to improve our offerings by expanding market reach (e.g. offering services to more people, adding locations, etc.) sufficiently capture the domain of the construct and can be considered interchangeable with the SSI6. Therefore, the deletion follows the guidelines suggested by Hair et al. (2011) for eliminating a formative indicator under consideration (Hair et al., 2014).

Using existing resources in response to the new problem or opportunity contributes most to the bricolage behavior of social enterprises with a standardized outer weight of 0.218. Intimate relationship with the stakeholder (0.237) and common goal and vision of the employees (0.257) play the most significant role in the external and internal social capital respectively. The social innovation is believed to be driven by multiple sources of ideas while developing social projects (0.186). While the standardized outer weight of 0.361 of SSI2 indicates that offerings are improved by

expanding the market reach most effectively contribute towards scaling of the social impact. Similarly, the ability to fund enterprise growth with profits i.e. FP6 (0.253) is the strongest indicator of social enterprise financial performance.

#### **4.8.2 Assessment of Structural Model**

After the evidence of reliability and validity is provided in the evaluation of outer model, it is appropriate to examine the structural formative model i.e. inner model (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler, 2017), following the recommendations by Chin (2010) and Hair et al. (2017). This stage takes into account multiple steps including evaluation of the level of R-squared values, assessment of the relationship between construct through path coefficients of the direct path, indirect path and the final examination of the significance of the mediation analysis.

First of all, the inner model is tested for the potential collinearity issues because it is considered to be crucially important in case of formatively measured constructs (Hair et al., 2014). This is done by evaluating the correlation between the constructs. The VIF value of 2.557 or lesser clearly depicts that multicollinearity is not a problem at this stage of the research as well for the estimation of the PLS path model.

It is suggested to estimate the models based on formative measurement by using the Mode A (based on correlation weights) because it should not be necessarily based on Mode B estimation (Becker, Rai, & Rigdon, 2013). It is especially considered to be the best possible option for the estimation of path coefficients when the sample size is particularly small to medium.

#### **4.8.2.1 Direct Relationships**

The assessment of the relationships from the exogenous construct (i.e. bricolage behavior and social capital) to scaling of social impact and financial performance of the social enterprises suggests the significance of all the path's standardized coefficients ( $p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, all the hypothesis from H1 to H3b are supported.

##### **4.8.2.1.1 Direct Determinants of Social Innovation**

The first hypothesis states that there is a positive relationship between bricolage behavior and social innovation. The results in Table 4.8 and Figure 4.1 indicate that the bricolage behavior has a significant and positive relationship with social innovation among the social enterprises of Pakistan ( $\beta = 0.347$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 3.492$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.000^{**}$ ) supporting hypothesis H1.

The second hypothesis predicted the significant positive relationship between social capital and social innovation. The results as shown in Table 4.8 and Figure 4.1 also indicate the presence of a significant and positive relationship between these two variables under study i.e. social capital and social innovation ( $\beta = 0.551$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 5.325$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.000^{**}$ ) rendering strong support to our second hypothesis i.e. H2. However, social capital is the most important explanation of the social innovation followed by bricolage behavior.

Table 4.8

*Direct Determinants of Social Innovation*

Hypothesis	Path	$\beta$	Std Error	t-value	P-value	5%	95%	Decision
H1	BB -> SI	0.347	0.099	3.492	0.001**	0.100	0.459	Supported
H2	SC -> SI	0.551	0.104	5.325	0.000**	0.438	0.794	Supported

Note: \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*:  $p < 0.05$  for a significance level of 1% and 5% respectively. Bootstrapping with 5,000 subsamples (1 tail test)

**4.8.2.1.2 Direct Determinant of Social Enterprise Performance**

The social innovation is hypothesized to relate significantly and positively with both aspects of the social enterprise performance i.e. scaling of social impact and financial performance. The results in Table 4.9 and Figure 4.1 clearly specify that social innovation is significantly and positively related with scaling of the social impact among the social enterprises of Pakistan ( $\beta = 0.693$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 10.006$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.000^{**}$ ). These results, therefore, are clearly in favor of the third hypothesis of this study i.e. H3a.

Similarly, the results in Table 4.9 and Figure 4.1 also depicts the positive and significant relationship between social innovation and financial performance among the social enterprises of Pakistan ( $\beta = 0.657$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 11.871$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.000^{**}$ ). Therefore, it can be inferred that hypothesis H3b of this study is also strongly supported.

Table 4.9

*Direct Determinant of Social Enterprise Performance*

Hypothesis	Path	$\beta$	Std Error	t-value	p-value	5%	95%	Decision
H3a	SI -> SSI	0.693	0.069	10.006	0.000**	0.567	0.807	Supported
H3b	SI -> FP	0.657	0.055	11.871	0.000**	0.563	0.77	Supported

Note: \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*:  $p < 0.05$  for a significance level of 1% and 5% respectively. Bootstrapping with 5,000 subsamples (1 tail test)

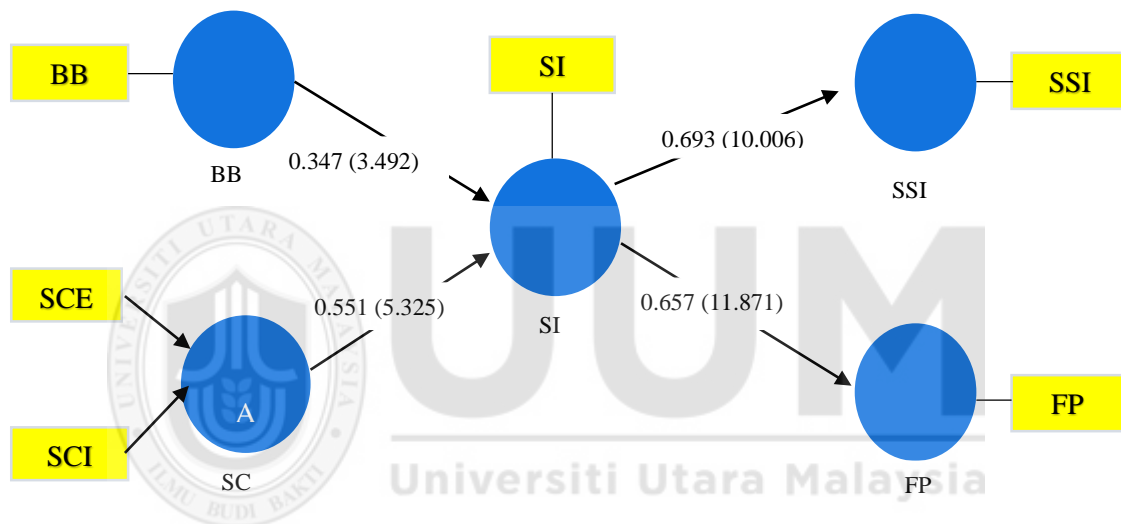


Figure 4.1

*Structural Model Direct Effects PLS-SEM Bootstrapping Results (T- Values and  $\beta$  values)*

#### 4.8.2.2 Assessment of Variance Explained in the Endogenous Variable ( $R^2$ )

The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) is believed to be the primary criteria for assessing the inner model quality which is a representation of the total variance explained for the target construct (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2012, p. 426; Rosenbusch et al., 2018).

The rough rule of thumb for the acceptable value of  $R^2$  is believed to be substantial if it is 0.75, moderate if it is 0.50 and small for 0.25 for endogenous variable in the structural model (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). The values for the coefficient of determination for all the endogenous variables i.e. social innovation, scaling of social impact and financial performance is given in Table 4.10. The values indicate ( $R^2=0.729$ ) that social innovation is substantially explained by the exogenous variables. More specifically, bricolage behavior and social capital explain 73% of social innovation's variance.

Similarly, all the three exogenous variables i.e. bricolage behavior, social capital, and social innovation moderately explain the variation i.e. 48% in the endogenous variable i.e. scaling of social impact with  $R^2= 0.480$ . Likewise, the above mentioned three exogenous variables i.e. bricolage behavior, social capital, and social innovation explain 43% of the variance in the endogenous variable financial performance, which is again considered moderate with  $R^2= 0.431$  respectively.

Table 4.10  
*Coefficient of Determination ( $R^2$ )*

Endogenous variable	$R^2$	Adjusted $R^2$
Social Innovation	0.729	0.724
Scaling of social impact	0.480	0.476
Financial performance	0.431	0.427



#### 4.8.2.3 Testing Mediation Effect

Next, the path coefficients are assessed for the significance by performing the bootstrapping again with a minimum 5000 sample size as suggested by Hair et al. (2011) and Henseler (2017). The results for the mediating role of social innovation are presented in Table 4.11, which shows that it plays a significant mediating role in social enterprise performance. The result for the mediating role of social innovation between bricolage behavior and financial performance of the social enterprises is significant ( $\beta = 0.228$  and  $t\text{-value} = 3.235$ ). Therefore, it can be safely stated that our hypothesized causal relationship H4a is supported. It is clearly higher than the critical  $t$ -value for a two-tailed mediation test i.e. both 1.96 (significance level= 5 percent) and 2.58 (significance level= 1 percent) (Hair et al., 2011). Also, H4b is supported because social innovation is found to significantly mediate the relationship between bricolage behavior and scaling of social impact ( $\beta = 0.240$  and  $t\text{-value} = 3.707$ ). ‘

Social innovation mediates the relationship between social capital and social enterprise financial performance ( $\beta = 0.362$  and  $t\text{-value} = 4.854$ ) resulting in supporting the H5a. In a similar vein, social innovation significantly mediates the relationship between social capital and scaling of social impact ( $\beta = 0.382$  and  $t\text{-value} = 4.081$ ). Therefore, the hypothesis H5b is also found to be supported.

Table 4.11  
*Mediating Effect of Social Innovation*

Hypothesis	Path	$\beta$	Std Error	t-value	2.5%	97.5%	Decision
H4a	BB→SI→FP	0.228	0.070	3.235	0.096	0.371	Supported

H5a	SC→SI→FP	0.362	0.075	4.854	0.226	0.516	Supported
H4b	BB→SI→SSI	0.240	0.065	3.707	0.118	0.374	Supported
H5b	SC→SI→SSI	0.382	0.094	4.081	0.217	0.578	Supported

Note: \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*:  $p < 0.05$  for a significance level of 1% and 5% respectively. Bootstrapping with 5,000 subsamples (2 tail test), Sig: Significant.

#### 4.9 Summary of the Results

The results, along with all the proposed hypothesis of this study, are summarized in this section in Table 4.12 as follows:

Table 4.12

*Summary of findings*

Hypotheses	Statement	Significance level
H1	There is a positive relationship between bricolage behavior and social innovation.	Sig (positive)
H2	There is a positive relationship between social capital and social innovation.	Sig (positive)
H3a	There is a positive relationship between social innovation and scaling of social impact.	Sig (positive)
H3b	There is a positive relationship between social innovation and financial performance of social enterprises.	Sig (positive)
H4a	The relationship between bricolage behavior and social enterprise financial performance is mediated by the social innovation.	Significant
H4b	The relationship between bricolage behavior and scaling of social impact is mediated by the social innovation.	Significant

H5a	The relationship between social capital and social enterprise financial performance is mediated by the social innovation.	Significant
H5b	The relationship between social capital and scaling of social impact is mediated by the social innovation.	Significant

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Note: Sig = Significant

#### 4.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter describes the statistical results of the study conducted on the social enterprises of Pakistan mainly located in the provinces of Punjab and Sindh along with the capital city Islamabad. First, the data is checked for the response rate followed by the data screening through a number of tests. Then common method biasness is checked followed by reporting the demographic profile of the organizations. The descriptive statistics are then presented followed by assessing the measurement and structural model by using PLS-SEM 3.2.7. Subsequently, the hypothesized direct relations and mediation analysis are reported and summarized afterward.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter focusses on the discussion of the research findings to answer the research questions based on research objectives, hypotheses, and literature review. This chapter is organized as follows: the first section provides an introduction while the second section recapitulates the study objectives. The third section discusses the empirical findings by linking them with the existing studies on social entrepreneurship. The fourth section discusses the research implications by considering both theoretical and practical contribution. The fifth section highlights the research limitations while the sixth section offers suggestions for future research based on study limitations. Finally, the seventh section provides the concluding remarks for the study.

#### **5.2 Recapitulation of Study Objectives**

The recapitulation of the objectives of this study is presented in this section. The major objectives of this study include identifying the direct determinants of social innovation, scaling of social impact and social enterprise financial performance and the mediating effect of social innovation. The specific objectives are given below:

1. To examine the relationship between bricolage behavior and social innovation.
2. To identify the relationship between social capital and social innovation.
3. To investigate the relationship between social innovation and scaling of social impact and financial performance.

4. To identify the mediating role of social innovation between bricolage behavior and scaling of social impact and financial performance.
5. To examine the mediating role of social innovation between social capital and scaling of social impact and financial performance.

A total of five hypotheses are proposed based on these study objectives and then tested for their statistical significance with the help of Smart PLS 3.2.7. The empirical results have provided support for all the study hypotheses.

### **5.3 Discussion**

#### **5.3.1 Bricolage Behavior and Social Innovation**

This section discusses the first objective of this study i.e. the positive relationship between bricolage behavior and social innovation (refer to Table 4.8). It implies that bricolage behavior is the direct determinant of social innovation and the higher it is, the higher will be the social innovation. This finding is fully consistent with the existing studies that state that bricolage behavior through recombination of existing resources at hand influences the innovation in general (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005; Beckett, 2016; Covin & Miles, 2007; Garud & Karnøe, 2003; Guo et al., 2015; Gurca & Ravishankar, 2016; Hargadon, 2003; Katila & Ahuja, 2002; Katila & Shane, 2005; Sandeep Salunke et al., 2013; Senyard et al., 2014; Senyard et al., 2011).

The results clearly support the existing notion that the probability of innovative outcomes increases due to the resource-poor environment (Dubey et al., 2015; Fisher,

2012; Gibbert et al., 2014; Moreau & Dahl, 2005; Starr & MacMillan, 1990) like Pakistan, in particular. The resource-poor environment, as an enabler and not an inhibitor of the innovation, (Gibbert et al., 2014; Gibbert, Hoegl, & Välikangas, 2007; Gibbert & Scranton, 2009; Giddens, 1984; Goldenberg et al., 2001), especially BOP markets of mostly developing countries is thereby substantiated (Agarwal et al., 2017). Social enterprises have also demonstrated creative behaviors despite being the victims of such restrictions (Bacq et al., 2015) due to their innate innovation based existence (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Hechavarría & Welter, 2015). These creative behaviors lead to social innovation which is bound to happen in such a penurious resource-poor environment (Austin et al., 2006; Bornstein, 2003). This finding is particularly supported by a number of social innovations introduced by the Pakistanis recently, that made the headlines. Such ventures are basically initiated with an intention to make a difference through public service like the launch of Social Innovation Lab (SIL), an incubator for social ventures, to effectively address the social dilemmas through innovative solutions (Rizwan, 2015).

It further confirms the claim made by an international agency, *igenious*, that Pakistan as a developing country is a fertile ground for innovation despite the resource constraints (Hutchinson & Patel, 2014). The resource constraints have proved to be the originator of the innovation but after going through the process of bricolage behavior (Shen, 2018) which is practiced more often in BOP (Linaa, 2013). This finding is particularly relevant and important to Pakistan which is being characterized as a host to huge BOP population i.e. almost 60 million people and impoverished environment (Bouri, 2015; Shaikh, 2017).

This finding is also congruent with the existing studies that state that bricolage behavior is associated with creativity (T. Baker et al., 2003) and innovation (Duymedjian & Rüling, 2010; Fuglsang & Flemming, 2011). Social ventures refuses to accept the limitations imposed by the poor resources (Desa & Basu, 2013; Domenico et al., 2010) and make do with their existing, free and accessible resources (T. Baker et al., 2003; Desa, 2012; Gundry et al., 2011b; Yujuico, 2008) to come up with innovative solutions for the emerging social needs (Halme et al., 2012; Zollo et al., 2018).

Using existing resources in response to the new problem or opportunity contributes most to the bricolage behavior of the social enterprises in Pakistan as already mentioned in chapter 4. It means that when the social enterprises are encountered with new opportunities and hurdles, they immediately seek rescue by recombining their existing resources resulting in the social innovation that is particularly addressed to solve the social issues (The Young Foundation, 2012). Social innovation depends upon the capabilities of the social ventures to recombine existing resources in a creative way to find the solution of the ignored and most pressing problems of the society (Barraket et al., 2018; Gundry et al., 2011a; Kickul et al., 2018).

The resulting social innovation represents the solutions to improve the individual's wellbeing (Souza et al., 2018). It is also compatible with the radical RBT that the bricolage behavior as a capability is used to derive new services from the existing resources in order to perform that can ultimately lead to the overall wellbeing of the

multiple stakeholders (Bell & Dyck, 2011). For example, Tripda in Pakistan is an online carpooling application that recombines the existing resources to come up with innovative solution i.e. transport to make traveling safe, cost-effective and fun with like-minded people all over the country (Ramsha, 2015).

Another plausible reason for such finding is that bricolage is particularly associated with a resource-poor environment where it is not always possible to find abundant resources to come up with innovations. However, the low-income BOP economies (less than \$2 a day) are believed to be the destination of “a new generation in innovation systems”, by solving local problems through locally available resources (Kaplinsky et al., 2009; Linaa, 2013). This assertion is vindicated through this finding. One such example is “Reading Room Project” initiated in a small apartment for low-income students for smart education through internet access (Ramsha, 2015).

Sehat Kahani, a Pakistan based social venture is the perfect example of coming up with the innovative solution to the social problems of basic health facilities deprived huge population on one hand and bringing almost 75% of the out of profession female medical practitioners back into mainstream health practice through digital technology (Afzaal, 2019; Saeed, 2019). They are using the existing setups of midwives and nurses by connecting them with the professional doctors staying at home through a digital platform to make high-quality health facilities available to impact the lives of a million people.



In short, the bricolage behavior has a significant positive relationship with social innovation especially under the resource-poor environment of Pakistan as a BOP market. The BOP markets with extremely meager resources are identified as new destinations for the innovations while questioning the prevailing stances of abundant resources required to come up with innovations. The resource-poor environment requires social ventures as innovators in this market, to utilize their existing resources by recombining them. It results in brilliant unforeseen results to solve the persistent social issues where the benefits don't accrue to the innovator only rather caters to the overall wellbeing of the multiple stakeholders.

### **5.3.2 Social Capital and Social Innovation**

The empirical results of this study reveal that there is a significant positive relationship between social capital and social innovation (refer to Table 4.8). Social capital as another important determinant of social innovation is, hence, proved by showing that any increase in the social capital results in the corresponding increase in social innovation. It suggests that more the social ties a social venture possess both with its internal and external stakeholders along with the resources embedded and accessed through them, higher will be the social innovation in Pakistan.

Our findings are in line with the existing studies which considers social capital as an originator of the innovation in general (Abdulai, 2019; Faccin et al., 2017; Grebel et al., 2003; Hartmann & Arata, 2011; Molina-Morales & Martínez-Fernández, 2010; Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017; Thomas, 2019; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998; L. Zhao & Aram, 1995). Therefore, social capital can be seen as the social asset which is

exploited in order to mobilize the resources (Starr & MacMillan, 1990) that ultimately contribute to the innovative solutions of the prevailing rampant societal problems at large (Alijani et al., 2016; Gundry et al., 2011b) especially when there is dearth of resources (Datta & Gailey, 2012). The resource constraints are one of the dominant challenge faced by BOP markets (Goyal et al., 2015) which are believed to be overcome by the presence of social capital (Ansari et al., 2012).

Our investigation supports the importance of social relations and resources embedded in them as an important strategy for mobilizing the resources in social entrepreneurial ventures (Domenico et al., 2010; Yujuico, 2008). Social ventures usually strive for seeking the support from the resource holders in the form of social capital, which is later used as an enabler of social innovation under acute shortage of resources (Alvord et al., 2004; Ansari et al., 2012; Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Peredo & Crisman, 2006) as it is considered as the most important barrier to their growth (Hoogendoorn & Thurik, 2010; Sharir & Lerner, 2006).

The term “social” in social innovation indicates its implantation in social relations (Ayob et al., 2016). Therefore, it can be explicated that ventures who engage simultaneously with their employees, local communities, volunteers, suppliers, and partners as well with other relevant stakeholders like policy makers at local and national level come up with innovations (Lundvall, 1992). It holds especially true for the social ventures who are trying to target the social issues through social innovations (Littlewood & Holt, 2018a; Phillips et al., 2015). One of the Pakistani social venture social innovation lab (SIL) together with a friend venture Aghaiz and other

stakeholders including Philia and impact brought together the social ventures from Pakistan and Afghanistan in an impact conference in January 2019 (Social Innovation Lab, 2019). The venture utilizes their social capital to learn from each other and to come up with innovative solutions.

Social networks and relations play a major role in the contemporary “social economy” for the origination of social innovation (Murray et al., 2010). It can be taken as another counteracting strategic tactic to overcome resource limitations besides bricolage behavior. The resources embedded in and available through the social ties between employees or units/departments as well as with the external entities include information sharing, trust, and cohesion (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Dai et al., 2015). High level of such social ties along with their resources is believed to be one of the major reasons behind the introduction of social innovations (Biggeri et al., 2017).

This study extends this finding by affirming that many such social ventures are set up by the individuals who are members of a particular community and their ventures are embedded within and serving the same community (Mulgan, 2006). It helps them to identify and present novel solutions of the social problems much better than any outsider by utilizing their social relations much effectively (Bhatt & Ahmad, 2017). Under social entrepreneurship, social innovation is more like a collective phenomenon where multiple players are involved in the identification and development of new solutions (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014; Caroli et al., 2018). Therefore, in social organizations, the key agent of innovation is the wider network (Murray et al., 2010).

Another tenable justification for this positive relationship is the cultural standing of Pakistan as a highly collectivist society, where the people belongs and stay loyal to ingroup in exchange for the care provided by the group (Hofstede, 2017). The relationship between employee and employer is taken more seriously in moral terms like a family link where loyalty is paramount. It also emphasizes the embeddedness of individuals in a larger group and highly collectivist countries like Pakistan are suggested to specialize in sectors which are more coordination extensive (Gorodnichenko & Roland, 2012) like social entrepreneurship. Innovation is increasingly believed as a network effort and embeddedness (Landry et al., 2000; Rutten & Boekema, 2007). Therefore, these social relationships both within and among organizations can help in mobilizing the resources more efficiently and can bring a number of ideas along ultimately engendering the social innovations.

Therefore, it can be succinctly articulated that this study provides the evidence to further the role of social capital in understanding the resource mobilization strategies in social entrepreneurship. By utilizing the social capital, the social ventures recognize the potential unused value in the resources which are not under their direct control. This unused value can significantly reduce their costs as well as the risk associated with the financial expenditures related to innovative activities. Social capital creates and extends the innovative solutions by engaging with stakeholder both within and outside the social ventures. However, this process is associated with the resource-poor environments, like the BOP market of Pakistan, which forces social ventures to use all possible means to obtain the unutilized or underutilized resources necessary for innovative solutions.

### **5.3.3 Social Innovation and Social Enterprise Performance**

As mentioned earlier, the term ‘social innovation’ is the perfect construct to understand the creation of social change (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014; Phills et al., 2008). The results also clearly support this notion by indicating the significant and positive relationship between social innovation and scaling of social impact (refer to Table 4.9). It can be interpreted, therefore, that as social innovation increases, it will result in the corresponding increase in the scaling of social impact.

These findings are congruous with the existing studies that state that social ventures try to achieve the desired social impact through innovation (Goyal et al., 2015) with the belief that it is the solution of the social problems of the BOP market (Desa & Koch, 2014). However, the social innovation should be considered relevant here instead of any general form of innovation as social entrepreneurship is also taken as enterprising social innovation i.e. through blended methods of world business and philanthropy to create sustainable social value (Dees & Anderson, 2006, p. 40).

The results of this empirical investigation indicate the importance of social innovation in order to cast the social impact (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010; Desa & Koch, 2014; Gabriel, 2014; Sengupta & Sahay, 2017; Souza et al., 2018; Weber & Kratzer, 2013; Weber et al., 2015). It further affirms the notion of social innovation producing social impact from a utilitarian perspective that ultimately leads to the improving the quantity or quality of life of the disenfranchised members of the society (Pol & Ville, 2009). The social innovators are more likely to promote social renewal in the deprived communities (Maclean et al., 2012) like the BOP market.

The resulting innovation is likely to be adapted across various social and economic sub-sectors as a result of geographic expansion resulting in the scaling of social impact (Bocken et al., 2016; Drayton, 2002). In other words, scaling of social impact can be taken as synonymous to the scaling of social innovation (Davies & Julie Simon, 2013; Gabriel, 2014). In this way, the benefits of social innovation do not lie with the innovator only rather they also encourage others to adopt it in order to spread the impact to match and serve the social need.

The results of our study also indicate the positive and significant relationship between social innovation and financial performance of social enterprises. It means as social innovation increases so are the financial performance of the social ventures. The social innovation should not only be capable of casting a social impact, but it should be profitable as well to achieve the dual objectives of the social enterprises (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Upadhyay et al., 2017). Hence, financial growth is crucial for social ventures besides scaling of social impact (Alvord et al., 2004; Dees et al., 2004; Weber et al., 2015) to come up with the innovation targeted at the solving the social issues (Dyck & Silvestre, 2018).

These findings are in line with the social enterprise school of thought by Dees and Anderson (2006) whose major focus is on “earned income for social mission”. The ongoing flow of resources i.e. sufficient profits is considered crucial to bringing about any sustainable societal transformation through innovation (Alvord et al., 2004; Santos et al., 2015). The social ventures try to find creative solutions to the existing problems through scalable and sustainable approaches (Light, 2005), i.e. by integrating social and financial value (Gabriel, 2014). Therefore, social ventures introduce innovation in

the form of a new product, services, and markets that leads to their overall growth (Tasavori et al., 2018) including both social and financial aspects (Holt & Littlewood, 2016).

One Pakistan female entrepreneur Mehr-Un-Nisa has launched the E-LOVE cutlery, the edible spoons, to fight the battle against environment degradation by keeping it clean and green and avoiding plastic cutlery. Her innovative idea of edible spoons in different flavors has received a warm response from the community at large due to its affordable prices along with the positive societal impact it is casting. This example clearly depicts how social innovation is gaining popularity while integrating social and financial values together.

Similarly, in order to tackle the hunger issue of Pakistan, as it is ranked 107 out of 118 developing countries on Global Hunger Index (Imran, 2017), one social venture start-up Rizq has introduced the innovative solution of setting up the food banks in the slum areas. The majority of the people in such areas can afford only one meal a day while in Pakistan 40% of the food is wasted along the supply chain (Khaishgi, 2017; Mughal, 2018). Therefore, Rizq collects excessive and left-over food from the marriage halls, hotel banquets, and restaurants and store them in food banks and then channelize the food to hungry. A meager amount of Rs. 10 is charged from the donor for packing and receiver as well to make it financially sustainable as well (Mengal, 2018). This is how social innovation is contributing towards creating social impact along with financially sustainable.

These findings are in line with the radical view of the RBT that states that the resources and capabilities should be imitable so as to cast an impact on the wellbeing of the multiple stakeholders (Bell & Dyck, 2011). Therefore, it can be inferred that growth in the social innovation through the geographic expansion and its adoption by the multiple stakeholders, including even competitors, makes it economically more viable while spreading the social impact simultaneously. It endorses the previous stance that no social impact through social innovation is meaningful unless it can be financed by the social venture itself i.e. earned income for a social mission. The CEO of the social innovation lab (SIL), a social venture in Pakistan, Maryam focuses on the combination of doing social work while earning money as a way to achieve the “best of both worlds” to motivate them.

It can be, therefore, concluded that creative solution to the societal problems, including health, sanitation, education, poverty, hunger, women empowerment and others in BOP market, i.e. social innovation is adopted across various socio-economic sectors resulting in its geographic expansion. However, the successful scaling of social impact is only one side of the coin as the other side of financial growth is also necessary to achieve the double bottom line of social ventures as hybrid organizations. Hence, social enterprises in Pakistan are pursuing both goals of social impact and financial performance by incorporating social innovation.



#### **5.3.4 Mediating Role of Social Innovation Between Bricolage Behavior and Social Enterprise Performance**

This study proposes the mediating effect of social innovation between bricolage behavior and social enterprise performance both along the dimensions of scaling of social impact and financial performance (see Table 4.11). The results in the fourth chapter indicate that social innovation is a significant mediator for the above-mentioned relationship. The finding suggests that financial and non-financial performance of social enterprises can be achieved by exhibiting bricolage behavior through social innovation. The social ventures are recombining their existing resources for a new purpose or when any new opportunity arises, especially in the resource-poor environment, and this results in the innovative solution of the societal problems at large where the benefits accrue to the disenfranchised members of the society. This ultimately leads to the financial performance of such ventures and the scaling of their social impacts.

In general, innovation is believed to mediate the relationship between bricolage behavior and firm performance (Senyard et al., 2009). The bricolage behavior is believed to be an important antecedent of the affordable value innovations synonymous to social innovations which in turn leads to the improved firm's performance (Ernst et al., 2015). One of the examples include the introduction of enriched yogurt by a multinational company which is affordable, yet it fulfills the nutritional needs of the malnourished kids in the price-sensitive emerging markets. Moreover, similar frugal and inclusive innovation are made possible in India with the ingenious use of the existing resources and technologies like SELCO, which provides

solar lighting solutions to poor rural Indians at merely 20 cents a day (Prabhu & Jain, 2015). With this financially viable business model, this solution has impacted the lives of countless Indians while providing clean and safe energy instead of Kerosene.

However, the empirical result of this study augments the previous research by Alvord et al. (2004) about multiple social ventures that introduced innovative solutions by utilizing existing assets of marginalized groups and later expanded their impact by increasing the coverage of their services. Similarly, another study by Kickul et al. (2018) confirmed that a greater realization of social impact through innovation is possible by the recombination of existing resources to new problems and opportunities. Bricolage behavior plays an important role in achieving the social innovation, by experimenting with the limited resources, that ultimately leads to the long term sustainability of the ventures by empowering the community to solve their own problems (Servantie & Rispa, 2018).

The social organizations involved in the different forms of bricolage behavior come up with innovation in the form of new products, services and markets leading to the growth of social enterprises while overcoming the resource constraints (Tasavori et al., 2018). It can result in creating social impact while generating sustainable income for the members as well (Holt & Littlewood, 2016). These findings are particularly relevant when the ventures are extremely resource-poor and cannot support the expenditure related to research and development involved in coming up with innovation.

Similarly, social ventures as hybrid organizations in Pakistan are simultaneously struggling with the competing logics of societal impact and financial performance. Their primary objective of looking for innovative ways of generating profits by using their existing resources instead of investing in new resource acquisition is supported in this study (Alberti & Garrido, 2017). Therefore, it can be inferred that social ventures in Pakistan are following the whole mechanism of recombining the existing resources in a way that leads to innovation targeted at creating societal impact along with sufficient profits for their long term sustainability (Santos et al., 2015).

The BOP market is especially considered as the ultimate destination of such new generation innovations where the innovators are more concerned about the innovative solutions of the societal problems while facing the resource limitations (Kaplinsky et al., 2009; Linaa, 2013). The social ventures at the BOP don't have enough options other than to engage themselves in recombining their existing resources and applying them in innovative and practical ways to solve the social issues (Kickul et al., 2009). The social impact should be understood here as the development of the products and services targeted at either unserved or underserved BOP population with the obvious goals to solve their otherwise ignored social issues.

The continuing example of Rizq, which is a social enterprise in the business of ending hunger in a country with 43% food insecure population, through their multiple innovative sub-projects provides an example of a sustainable business model (Mengal, 2018) targeted at achieving the double bottom line or dual objectives. The problem of hunger is addressed through the use of the existing human capital i.e. three graduating

friends with the same passion to serve humanity while initially pooling their pocket money and using their existing personal transport are trying to fight this battle of hunger (Shahram, 2016). The food packets are then prepared by using the existing food resources collected from multiple food outlets for little packing cost, as an innovative way for feeding the food insecure BOP. This social innovation is then sold to the poor at a meager amount of almost 10 US cents to the ones who have already been evaluated by the organization as the eligible target customers. Selling at a minimum price makes it financially sustainable while the services are also extended to another city resulting in the scaling of social impact (Khaishgi, 2017).

Similarly, the story of the Sehat Kahani mentioned in the first objective did not merely end up in the innovative solution rather it is subsequently creating a huge social impact by providing high-quality health service at an affordable rate on one hand and increasing the income of the nurses on the other while extending their services to more than a million people in different geographic areas (Saeed, 2019). It clearly indicates that how the recombination of the existing resources i.e. existing midwives' clinics and facilities, can result in the innovative solution of connecting non-practicing 75% female medical practitioners with the health facilities deprived BOP through digital technology, that ultimately leads to the scaling of social impacts along with the improved financial performance.

In short, it can be sufficiently posited that recombination of the existing resources by the social ventures in Pakistan resulted in social innovation that is later leveraged by them in their effort to create social impact along with financial performance.

Therefore, social innovation serves as an important link between a social venture's bricolage behavior and its performance in terms of social impact and financial performance. Bricolage explains one of the key abilities of social ventures by mobilizing resources, in the penurious environment with limited resources, to show satisfactory performance parameters. However, this relationship is not possible unless the created solutions are deemed creative and novel for the pressing problems of society at large.

### **5.3.5 Mediating Role of Social Innovation Between Social Capital and Social Enterprise Performance**

The empirical results of this study support our proposition that social innovation significantly mediates the relationship between social capital and social enterprise performance (refer to Table 4.11). It highlights the importance of social capital to achieve the dual performance objectives of scaling of social impact and financial performance through social innovation. It indicates that the inter and intra-organization relationships and the assets embedded in them serves as an avenue for the social innovation that in turn steer a path towards social enterprise performance i.e. scaling of social impact and financial performance.

In general, it can be stated that the benefits of trust, information sharing, co-operation, and reciprocity are reaped through mobilizing the inter and intra-organizational networks which are utilized in the innovation process and that in turn leads to the improved firm performance (Silva et al., 2018). Hence, it can be pronounced that the innovation is more like a process that starts with the mobilization of the social context

including suppliers, investors, employees, experts and customers and ends with the generation of performance (Steyaert & Dey, 2010). One of the biggest benefits of possessing the networks is access to information and advice besides accessing the resources possessed by the resource holder. Such access in interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships creates innovative outcomes particularly for the social ventures (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017) which in turn leads to social value creation (Ozeren et al., 2018).

Similarly, the social ventures in Pakistan exploit all forms of their personal and organizational social relationships (internal and external) to generate the new ideas which are later converted into new solutions of the societal problems at large to create the desired positive social impact (Ayob et al., 2016). They utilize their existing relationships to come up with noticeable innovative solutions and a far-reaching impact necessary for the social change to occur (Alijani et al., 2016; Barraket et al., 2018; Gundry et al., 2011b). Particularly, the underlying process in the social venture is revealed through the mobilization of social capital to achieve social innovation that in turn leads to social impact (Weber et al., 2013).

However, the scaling of social impact without viable financial performance is not possible due to the hybrid nature of social ventures with a focus on the dual objectives (Battilana, 2018). Therefore, the role of social capital is also proved crucial in influencing the innovation that in turn is pivotal for the sustainability (including financial and non-financial aspects) of the social ventures (Dawson et al., 2011) in Pakistan. Social ventures can give innovative solutions to the social problems which

are also entrepreneurial in nature i.e. financially feasible, due to their superior understanding and deep immersion in the socio-cultural milieu (Bhatt & Ahmad, 2017; Maclean et al., 2012).

These findings are particularly addressing the limitations imposed by the resource-constrained environment of BOP market i.e. Pakistan. In continuation of our previous discussion, it can be utterly stated that the penurious environment forces social ventures to mobilize their all possible resources in order to display performance, and social capital is one of these salient resources. The multiple stakeholders i.e. the social networks and their support are not only the source of human and financial resources (Sharir & Lerner, 2006), necessary for the generation of new ideas (Desa & Koch, 2014), but also for growth and performance of the social entrepreneurial organizations (Battilana, 2018; Griffin et al., 2014; Weber & Kratzer, 2013; Zhou, 2017).

In Pakistan, AMDEN is a for-profit social enterprise that envisions the eradication of chronic poverty through agriculture-based revolving livestock model (Amden, 2018, November 15). It has an integrated business model that is deeply rooted in the use and mobilization of strong social capital that leads to the innovative solution of revolving livestock, ultimately giving on to the financial viability of the venture along with the scaling of its social impact. To date, it has successfully taken 300 families out of chronic poverty in multiple geographic regions by making them self-sustainable with their own livestock animals, birds, and organic vegetables. It is also included in the “60 Asian social ventures to watch for”, in a social venture challenge held by National University Singapore recently. Similarly, another social venture Social Innovation Lab

is focused on building the right connections with other people and organizations that can help create innovative solutions and run feasible social ventures.

One of the plausible reasons for the above-mentioned relationships is that the social ventures possess social capital which can, in turn, take the form of multiple resources when needed including donations, volunteers, family and friends support and media exposure, etc. These multiple resources can be a source of social innovation which helps such ventures to reach their dual goals sooner (Tajammul, 2017, Jan 7). As compared to the commercial ventures, the social ventures get more support rather empathy from the community because such ventures are normally the first ones to identify the societal problems and are more committed for its solutions.

This relationship is also well depicted by another award-winning social venture in Pakistan, Jaan Pakistan, which is trying to build a greener world with their renewable energy cooking stoves for the low-income communities belonging to the BOP market. Social capital is the key secret behind the success of their business model where they involve people at every step of the problem-solving process through cultivating a collaborative spirit. They spend most of their time in the field to get the innovative ideas and have now gradually upgraded their product to better match the gravity of the social need in the cheapest, fastest and reliable way possible. The resulting product is creating the impact by saving the 40% of the daily income of BOP which they spend on fuel while ensuring the sustainable profits for the venture at the same time (Tajammul, 2017, Jan 7).



It can be affirmed from the above discussion that social capital is an essential pre-requisite in a highly collective society of Pakistan (Hofstede, 2017) which focusses on the embedded social relations both inside and outside the organization, to come up with innovation which is believed to be a network effort (Landry et al., 2000). The ideas for the social innovation are created by mobilizing the multiple resources and assets embedded in social capital that after properly executing leads to the superior performance of social ventures, including both scaling of social impact and the financial performance.

#### **5.4 Research Implication**

Based on the findings and discussions, this study has offered two important implications: (1) theoretical implications in the field of social entrepreneurship literature and theory, (2) practical implication for practitioners. The implications are discussed in the ensuing sections one by one:

##### **5.4.1 Theoretical Contribution**

This study offers notable and original contributions to the literature on social enterprises in a number of ways. First of all, little is known about the resource mobilization strategies (social capital and bricolage behavior) and their influence on social enterprise performance. This study attempts to address this research gap by introducing an integrated model that delineates how social capital and bricolage behavior influence the social innovation that subsequently leads to the superior performance of social ventures. It will add up to the collective understanding of the

social entrepreneurship sector as to why some organizations are more successful than others.

Furthermore, it is also in response to the latest call to focus on a process-oriented approach of the resource mobilization that can generate multiple outcomes overtime (Clough et al., 2019). The main theoretical gap addressed in this study is the mediating role of social innovation in explaining the relationship between bricolage behavior and social enterprise performance and social capital and social enterprise performance. Social innovation is proposed as the intervening process to open up this black box and considered as a paramount and independent construct that explains the achievement of the double bottom line of scaling of social impact along with financial performance. This contributes towards the ongoing discussion as to what are those factors that contribute and enhance the performance of social ventures as hybrid ventures.

Moreover, the potential for theory development in the field of social entrepreneurship is endorsed by this study because the early studied were not based on a theory with an obvious inclination towards practical consideration (Dees & Anderson, 2006). It can also be taken as a response to the famous call from P. A. Dacin, Dacin, and Matear (2010, p. 43) to investigate the application of existing theories to the mission-related phenomenon. The fragmented research in the arena of social entrepreneurship, with a lack of integrated framework, is addressed with the help of radical view of the Resource-based Theory (RBT). Though RBT has been applied under various disciplines, however, few studies have explored the role played by the RBT in SE (Day & Jean-Denis, 2016) especially its radical view.

It is a pioneer study that applies the radical approach of RBT to explain the performance of social enterprise through the lenses of bricolage behavior, social capital and social innovation to the best of author's knowledge. Its application to the field of social entrepreneurship can successfully explain that how various resources (i.e. social capital) and capabilities (bricolage behavior) can be mobilized to influence the overall wellbeing of the multiple stakeholders through sustainable innovative solutions.

This study also addresses the limitation identified by Massis et al. (2018) to look at the benefits of resource scarcity which is ignored in RBT. By employing the radical view of RBT, it deals with the theory scarcity issue in the field of social innovation (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014). This study also answers the call to further the research in social innovation in the different international contexts (Bhatt & Ahmad, 2017; Chell, Nicolopoulou, & Karataş-Özkan, 2010). This study has proved to be a deviation from the existing concentration of the social entrepreneurship researches around developed countries to an under developing country Pakistan as suggested (Sengupta & Sahay, 2017).

As the social sector is distinctively different from the commercial sector, therefore, the social capital and its associated benefits are always considered crucial and deserve special attention (Busch, 2014). This research has contributed to the social capital literature by reinforcing it as an important depiction of collective effort (Villanueva et al., 2012) in order to foster social innovation resulting in the stimulation of the

collaborative value creation. By integrating social capital into RBT, this study has responded to the call by Littlewood and Khan (2018).

By extending RBT from mature markets to BOP, this study adds to the existing body of knowledge of BOP market by identifying the strategic choices (bricolage behavior and social capital) employed by social ventures in Pakistan to overcome the challenges imposed by the resource-poor environment and make social interventions. This research provides empirical evidence on the previous BOP studies that networking, and the assets and benefits associated with them are essential in this market. This study also contributes to the ongoing debate to explore other strategies in addition to bricolage behavior to achieve the performance objectives of social ventures (Tasavori et al., 2018).

Moreover, this study has successfully contributed in overcoming the biasness attached to the social entrepreneurship studies in the developed countries only (Bhatt & Altinay, 2013; Doherty et al., 2014; C. Kline et al., 2014; Littlewood & Khan, 2018; Sunduramurthy et al., 2016; Tasavori et al., 2018; Weerawardena & Mort, 2006). This study is in response to the call to study social enterprise related studies among emerging and developing countries (Ayob et al., 2016) characterized by a chronic shortage of resources (Goyal et al., 2015; Kwong et al., 2017).

#### **5.4.2 Practical Contribution**

The empirical findings of this study are not only important to theory, but it also offers some useful practical contributions. The first and foremost important implication is

the identification of the strategic choices for making better and informed decisions by the social ventures in the resource-poor environment of Pakistan. Given that the social ventures confront with the poor resources (Desa & Koch, 2014; Molecke & Pinkse, 2017) and innovation is crucial for the performance and survival of social ventures (Davies & Julie Simon, 2013; Goyal et al., 2015; Upadhyay et al., 2017), this study is expected to benefit the managers and social entrepreneurs that are striving hard with limited resources to achieve the innovation goals. It can help them identify the strategies necessary for social innovation. As social innovation has a positive impact on social enterprise performance (Souza et al., 2018; Weber et al., 2013), the findings can shed light on how the social ventures can improve their social impact and financial performance in the resource-poor environment through introducing innovative solutions.

These findings highlight the importance of bricolage behavior for attaining the goals of social innovation and dual performance objectives of the social enterprises in Pakistan. It guides the social ventures with limited resources to conquer their limitation and realize their social innovation goal by recombining their existing resources at hand and make do with them. It helps them overcome the stigma attached to the prevailing notion of the presence of abundant resources to come up with innovation. They need to change their lens of viewing resource constraints as an inhibitor and curse but rather as an enabler of innovation and blessing in disguise. They can intentionally practice bricolage behavior by recombining their existing resources for a new purpose when and where it is needed to pursue their performance objectives.

This research can also contribute practically by guiding the social enterprises to exclusively focus on the relevant social capital that can pave the path for social innovation and ultimately lead to the achievement of their dual performance objectives. They can implement a broader inclusion strategy by involving multiple stakeholders across the socio-economic spectrum of society, including even those who are the direct victims of the societal issues i.e. disadvantaged groups, to come up with the most relevant and highly engaged innovative solutions. In this way the impact will be maximized as all of the stakeholders will not only be interested in the cost-effective innovative solutions, but they will also try to make it successful financially by spreading the innovation geographically so that the social ventures can sustain in the long run as well.

This study can help understand the managerial and entrepreneurial behaviors in hybrid organizations as they provide a rich research setting for its understanding (Barraket et al., 2018). It can also help the impact investors in their decision making to prioritize and channelize their funds into the organizations that are well versed with the resource mobilization strategies of recombining their existing resources and mobilizing the assets in the networks to overcome the limitations attached to poor resources and come up with innovative solutions of the social problems.

This study can also useful for several actors beside social ventures in identifying and conquering the untapped potential market of BOP including multinational companies, not for profit organizations and local SMEs as well. The local SMEs and social innovator ventures especially are at an advantageous position as compared to the

others because they are well versed and highly responsive to the local needs, information and context. It enables them to identify the problems due to their personal experiences, utilize the underused or unused local resources (both tangible and intangible) and mobilize their networks and the assets embedded in them to bring innovative social solutions. Their local embeddedness and limited technical knowledge and resources help them design innovative, yet simple and affordable solutions based on their local strengths.

The present research has implications for the policymakers as well, like the Center for Social Entrepreneurship (CSE) under the ministry of planning development and reforms. They can play a pivotal role in facilitating the occurrence of bricolage activities. The most important aspect where they can help the most is by aiding the social enterprises to become better connected with multiple stakeholders including the impact investors and mobilize their resources and share information. They can regularly arrange social and networking events by involving the social ventures, government agencies, impact investors and other for-profit organizations interested in casting social impact. It can help such parties by being better connected and ultimately improving their capabilities to bring about any fruitful transformative social changes resulting in the pragmatic implementation of such vision.

### **5.5 Research Limitations**

Like every empirical study, this research is also not without limitations which should be taken into consideration before generalizing the findings. First, this study has followed a non-probability purposive sampling. The data collection was the most

hectic part of the research due to the absence of any compiled database of social ventures in Pakistan and the difficulties to access them. Therefore, snowball sampling was also used which resulted in a relatively small sample size of only 131 social ventures. Despite all the efforts, it was possible to collect the data from only two provinces that may not truly represent the geographic distribution of social ventures in Pakistan.

Moreover, this study is only limited to the social ventures of one country i.e. Pakistan that comprises only 15% of the BOP population. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalized to the whole BOP market and may differ in different countries due to their different socio-economic and cultural settings. Most of the responding social ventures are managed by the males (please refer to Table 4.5). However, the results may vary for the female managed social enterprises as they can opt for different strategies for resource mobilization in order to cast an impact along while being financially viable. Similarly, most of the respondents categorize themselves as not for profits with only 20% for profit social ventures. The resource mobilization strategies and performance of for-profit social ventures may vary due to their status.

An additional limitation is the cross-sectional design of the study due to time and cost constraints and causal inferences drawn from such studies are just inferences. There can be a change in the study variables and some other variables can also influence the social enterprise performance over time. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the results. Moreover, the complete data, including all the study variables i.e. bricolage behavior, social capital, social innovation and social enterprise performance, collected



by the same key informant at the same time can cause the common method variance (CMV). Though both procedural and statistical remedies are applied to overcome or minimize this problem, however, the findings should be interpreted with caution.

Moreover, the data is collected through the self-reported measures which can be associated with the social desirability bias. The tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner increases particularly when the scope of the study involves socially sensitive issues (Grimm, 2010b), like the ones discussed in our study. Though this study has addressed this biasness by ensuring the respondent's privacy and anonymity and that all the information will be kept confidential (Grimm, 2010b), however, the results should not be interpreted without caution.

Lastly, this research has not considered social capital along the dimensions as it is the first ever attempt to study the mediating effect of social innovation in the relationship between social capital and social enterprise performance (scaling of social impact and financial performance) to the best of this author's knowledge.

## **5.6 Future Research Directions**

Keeping in view the above-mentioned limitations, future studies can be conducted with a randomly selected population to make it more generalizable, in case a list is compiled by the newly established Centre for social entrepreneurship (CSE) in Pakistan. Future research comparing different sectors like healthcare, education, renewable energy, etc. might reveal interesting practices of different social ventures.

It is also advised to adopt a longitudinal approach for the collection of data, by overcoming the time and cost limitations, to track all the possible changes occurring in the social enterprises and understand the social enterprise performance in a deeper manner. This type of data collection along with additional case study approach can help in developing the causality and to get an additional understanding of how the innovation and performance of the social ventures are made possible throughout the life cycle of social ventures.

Future studies may also use other sources to collect information about social enterprise performance and their social innovations as well. For example, the scaling of social impact can best be assessed by taking perspectives from multiple stakeholders including the social venture employees, direct beneficiaries and the community at large. There is immense potential for future research in studying the female managed social ventures as their behavior and strategies are significantly different from the male managed social ventures. Also, the social venture performance can be compared among for-profit and not for profit organizations in the future to get a deeper understanding of their mission related differences.

Similarly, comparative studies can be conducted in other BOP economies like India, Bangladesh, etc. to fully capture the functioning and role of social ventures in solving the long-standing the social problems and strengthen the applicability of the existing research framework. Moreover, future studies can study the social capital along its multiple dimensions to check if either internal or external social capital is playing more

important role in coming up with social innovation that ultimately leads to the social enterprise performance.

### **5.7 Conclusion**

The results from this study have conferred support to all the research objectives and have successfully answered all the research questions despite certain limitations. The study has successfully probed the relationship between bricolage behavior, social capital, social innovation and social enterprise performance in social enterprises of Pakistan. Taken together, the present study has provided additional empirical evidence to the emerging body of knowledge of social entrepreneurship concerning the direct determinants of social enterprise performance i.e. scaling of social impact and financial performance by incorporating the mediating role of social innovation.

The findings also advanced support to many theoretical contributions. Firstly, even though there have been many studies that investigated the social enterprise performance, however, the important theoretical research gap is addressed with the introduction of social innovation as a mediator in the scant literature of social entrepreneurship. Secondly, the application of radical view of RBT in the arena of social entrepreneurship in the resource-poor environment of the BOP market of Pakistan represents another mention worthy theoretical contribution. In addition to the theoretical contribution, this study has also made a notable practical contribution. It has guided the policymakers and relevant government department to help the social ventures develop the right kind of networks to benefit from them. It also guides multiple stakeholders besides social ventures including impact investors,

multinational companies, local SMEs and not for profit organization to overcome the limitations attached with poor resource environment of the BOP market. The findings provide empirical support for intentionally practicing bricolage behavior and focus on relevant social capital for the said purpose. Finally, future research directions are drawn based on the limitations of the study.



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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### English Questionnaire



Dear Respondent,

I am a Postgraduate student in Universiti Utara Malaysia and carrying out a survey regarding social enterprises, in order to fulfil the degree of Ph.D. requirement of Universiti Utara Malaysia. The objective of this research is to determine the contribution of social capital, bricolage behavior and social innovation towards the financial performance and social impact of social organizations in Pakistan.

This information will be useful for both researchers and the Centre for Social Entrepreneurship at Ministry of Planning, Development and Reform, Pakistan, in an effort to enhance the performance of social enterprises. We are requesting for your consent to participate in this study by filling survey questionnaire. I realize that your time is priceless and very precious; however, your involvement in this survey, which will only need 25-30 minutes of your time will certainly contribute to the success of this study.

There is no right or wrong answer to the statements listed in the questionnaire. If you choose to participate in this survey, then your sincerity and honesty are highly required in responding to these statements and also denotes your willingness to participate in the study. Rest please be assured that all your responses will be kept confidential and will strictly be used for the academic research purposes only.

With this I highly appreciate your cooperation and participation in this study. I would like to convey my thanks in advance. If you are interested in this study and require any further information, please contact me via email at [javeriaabbass@bzu.edu.pk](mailto:javeriaabbass@bzu.edu.pk) or call me at +923006327030 or my supervisor Associate Professor Dr. Darwina at [darwina@uum.edu.my](mailto:darwina@uum.edu.my).

Thank you for your time and kind attention

Yours sincerely,

Javaria Abbas

Ph.D. student,  
School of Business Management,  
College of Business.

### **Section A:**

Considering only your perception, please circle the most appropriate answer to describe your response based on the appropriate number on the scale.

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Somewhat disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Somewhat agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
Questions							
1	In our organization, we usually find workable solutions to new challenges by using our existing resources					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2	In our organization, we typically take on a broader range of challenges than others with our resources would do					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3	In our organization, we use any existing resource that seems useful to responding to a new problem or opportunity					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4	In our organization, we deal with new challenges by applying a combination of our existing resources and other resources inexpensively available to us					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5	In our organization, when dealing with new problems or opportunities we immediately take action by assuming that we will find a workable solution					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
6	By combining our existing resources, in our organization, we take on a very broad variety of new challenges					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
7	In our organization, when we face new challenges we put together workable solutions from our existing resources					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
8	We combine resources to accomplish new challenges in our organization that the resources were not originally intended to accomplish					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
9	To deal with new challenges, our organization access resources at low or no cost and combine them with what we already have.					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
10	Our employees have a passion to achieve common goals.					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
11	Our employees can keep their promises to each other.					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
12	Our employees have a common goal and vision.					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
13	Employees in our organization maintain close relationships.					1	2 3 4 5 6 7

14	Employees in our organization tries their best to avoid harming other's interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	There is trust among employees in our organization. Even if one has the opportunity to take advantage of the other, he/she will not do so.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Employees in our organization regularly exchange knowledge or information through informal conversations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Our stakeholders and our organization keep promises to each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Our stakeholders have an open attitude toward introducing new customers to us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Our organization frequently comes in contact with other new customers through existing customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Our stakeholders try their best to avoid harming our interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Our stakeholders maintain intimate relationships with us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	There is trust between our stakeholders and our organization. Even if one party has the opportunity to take advantage of the other, it will not do so.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Our stakeholders maintain personal friendships with our organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Our organization's approach allows us to serve potentially large groups of people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	In our organization, we improve our offerings by expanding market reach (e.g., offering services to more people).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	In our organization, we have increased up our capabilities to address our mission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	In our organization, we have greatly expanded the number of individuals we serve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	In our organization, we have substantially increased the geographic area we serve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Our organization's work and approach are transferable to other locations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	We use different sources of ideas to develop social projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	We collaborate with different partners to design social projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	We obtain funds for social projects from few sources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	We use different tools to measure our social projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	We intervene in communities through different approaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

35	We share reports of achievements of our projects through different channels.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	We improve our organization by delivering social projects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	Our projects make changes in different social sectors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	Beneficiaries participate in the project of our organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	We partner with different organizations in delivering social projects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	Our projects are financially sustainable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### **Section B**

In your organization, what is the degree of importance attached to the following items?

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
	<b>Extremely unimportant</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat unimportant</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Somewhat important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Extremely important</b>
Questions							
41	Sales level					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
42	Sales growth					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
43	Profitability					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
44	Net profit					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
45	Gross profit					1	2 3 4 5 6 7
46	Ability to fund enterprise growth from profits					1	2 3 4 5 6 7

In your organization, what is your degree of satisfaction with these items for the last three years?

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Extremely dissatisfied</b>	<b>Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Somewhat dissatisfied</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Somewhat satisfied</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Extremely satisfied</b>

Questions

47	Sales level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	Sales growth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	Profitability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50	Net profit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	Gross profit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52	Ability to fund enterprise growth from profits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### **Section C: Demographic information**

This section requires you to provide some basic demographic information. These are used exclusively for research purposes across the entire sample of people responding, and in no way are meant to identify you or be used in any other individual analysis. Please fill in blank and tick (✓) in the appropriate boxes that corresponds to your answer to each of the following questions below.

1. Geographic Location: Province \_\_\_\_\_  
City \_\_\_\_\_

2. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

3. Your organization status: ☐ For profit ☐ Non-profit (NGO)

4. What is your highest completed level of education?

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> No formal education | <input type="checkbox"/> Less than matriculation |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Matriculation       | <input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under graduation    | <input type="checkbox"/> Graduation or above     |

5. Which of the following would best describe your job level?

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social entrepreneur | <input type="checkbox"/> Project manager           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Senior manager      | <input type="checkbox"/> Any other, please specify |

\_\_\_\_\_

6. Number of employees in your organization \_\_\_\_\_ people

7. How long has this organization been established? \_\_\_\_\_ Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months

8. Ownership

☐ Joint venture, if so please mention the partner\_\_\_\_\_

☐ Locally owned

☐ Foreign owned

☐ Government owned

☐ Any other please specify\_\_\_\_\_

9. Source of major funding (you can tick more than one)

☐ Self-funded

☐ Government funded

☐ Local private

☐ International institutions

☐ Any other please specify\_\_\_\_\_

10. In what industry is the organization operating?

☐ Health

☐ Education

☐ Financial services

☐ Energy

☐ Agriculture and processing

☐ Manufacturing

☐ Information and communication technology (ICT)

☐ Any other, please specify\_\_\_\_\_



**UUM**  
Universiti Utara Malaysia

## APPENDIX B

### Urdu Questionnaire



### جناب محترم!

میں اتارہ یونیورسٹی ملائیشیا میں پوسٹ گریجویٹ سطح کی سٹوڈنٹ ہوں اور اسی یونیورسٹی سے اپنی پی ایچ ڈی کی ڈگری کی تکمیل کے لیے سوشل انٹرپرائزز (سماجی کاروبار) سے متعلق ایک سروے کرنا چاہ رہی ہے۔ اس تحقیق کا مقصد یہ ہے کہ ہماری معاشی کارکردگی اور پاکستان میں کام کرنے والی سماجی تنظیموں کے معاشرے پر اثرات میں سماجی سرمایے، ہمارے اصلاحاتی مزاج اور سماجی ایجادات کی شراکت یا حصے کا تعین کیا جائے۔ یہ معلومات محققین کے لیے اور سوشل انٹرپرائزز کی کارکردگی میں بہتر لانے کے لیے وزارت منصوبہ بندی، ترقی و اصلاحات کے زیر اثر کام کرنے والے "سنٹر فار سوشل انٹرپرائزینورسپ" کے لیے بھی فائدہ مند ہوں گی۔ اس سوال نامے کو پُر کر کے ہماری تحقیق میں معاونت کے لیے آپ کی رضا مندی درکار ہے۔ مجھے بخوبی علم ہے کہ آپ کا وقت بہت قیمتی ہے تاہم اس سروے میں آپ کی شمولیت اس تحقیق کی کامیابی اور وقعت بڑھانے کا باعث ہوگی۔ اس کے لیے آپ کے صرف پچیس سے تیس منٹ درکار ہیں۔

اس سوال نامے میں شامل سوالات کا کوئی بھی جواب صحیح یا غلط نہیں ہوگا۔ اگر آپ اس سروے میں شامل ہونا پسند کر رہے ہیں تو مجھے ان سوالات کے جواب کے لیے صرف آپ کی ایمان داری اور خلوص ہی سب سے زیادہ درکار ہوگا اور اسی سے آپ کی اس تحقیق میں شمولیت کی رضامندی ظاہر ہوگی۔ میں آپ کو مکمل یقین دلاتی ہوں کہ آپ کے رد عمل اور تمام جوابات کی



رازداری کو مکمل طور پر قائم رکھا جائے گا اور صرف اور صرف علمی تحقیق کے مقصد کے لیے ہی استعمال کیا جائے گا۔ اس کے ساتھ ہی میں اس تحقیق میں آپ کے تعاون اور شرکت کو بے حد سراہتی ہوں اور پیشگی شکریہ ادا کرتی ہوں۔

اگر آپ اس تحقیق میں دلچسپی رکھتے ہیں اور اس کے بارے میں کوئی بھی دیگر معلومات درکار ہیں تو مجھ سے میرے یا میری سپروائزر صاحبہ کے مندرجہ ذیل ای میل پر رابطہ کر سکتے ہیں:

**Javeria Abbas**

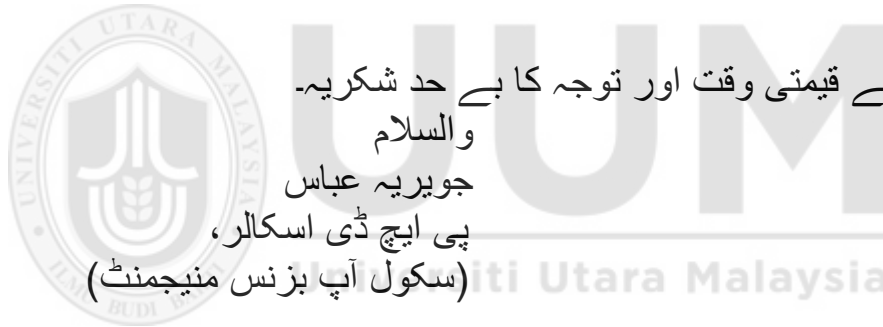
Email: [javeriaabbass@bzu.edu.pk](mailto:javeriaabbass@bzu.edu.pk)

Mob/ Whatsapp: +92-300-6327030

**Dr. Darwina**

Associate Professor

Email: [darwina@uum.edu.my](mailto:darwina@uum.edu.my).



آپ کے قیمتی وقت اور توجہ کا بے حد شکریہ۔  
والسلام

جویریہ عباس  
پی ایچ ڈی اسکالر،  
(سکول آپ بزنس منیجمنٹ)

#### **Section A:**

اُس جواب کے گرد دائرہ لگائیے جو آپ کے خیال کی رُو سے سب سے زیادہ مناسب ہو:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
بالکل غیر متفق	غیر متفق	کسی حد تک غیر متفق	غیر جانبدارانہ	کسی حد تک متفق	متفق	بالکل متفق

- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں عام طور پر ہم تمام دستیاب وسائل (ریسوسز) کو استعمال کرتے ہوئے نئے چیلنجز کا قابل عمل حل تلاش کر لیتے ہیں۔
- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم عام طور پر چیلنجز کو زیادہ بڑا سمجھ کر قبول کرتے ہیں بہ نسبت اُن دیگر لوگوں کے جو ہمارے جتنے وسائل (ریسوسز) رکھتے ہیں۔
- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم ہر اُس دستیاب وسیلے (ریسوسز) کو استعمال کرتے ہیں جو ہمارے خیال میں نئے مسئلے (پرابلم) کے حل کے لیے مفید ہو سکتا ہو۔
- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم نئے چیلنجز سے نمٹنے کے لیے تمام دستیاب وسائل (ریسوسز) کے امتزاج (کمبی نیشن) سے کام لیتے ہیں اور اُن دوسرے وسائل (ریسوسز) سے بھی جو ہمیں سستے دستیاب ہوں۔
- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں نئے مسائل کا حل تلاش کرنے کے لیے ہم اُس پر فوری کام شروع کر دیتے ہیں یہ سمجھ کر کہ ہم اُس مسئلے کا قابل عمل حل ڈھونڈ لیں گے۔
- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم تمام دستیاب وسائل (ریسوسز) کو اکٹھا کر کے مختلف اقسام کے چیلنجز پر کام کرتے ہیں۔
- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں کام کرتے ہوئے جب ہمیں نئے چیلنجز کا سامنا ہوتا ہے تو ہم اپنے دستیاب وسائل کی روشنی میں ان چیلنجز کے تمام قابل عمل حل اکٹھے رکھ کر دیکھتے ہیں۔
- جب کسی نئے چیلنج سے نمٹنا ہو تو ہم اپنے تمام دستیاب وسائل (ریسوسز) کو اکٹھا ایک ساتھ رکھ کر جانچتے ہیں اُن وسائل کو بھی جو اصل میں اس منصوبے پر کام کے لیے نہ ہوں۔

- نئے چیلنجز پر کام کرتے ہوئے ہماری آرگنائزیشن بہت
- 9 سستے یا مفت دستیاب ہونے والے دیگر ذرائع کو پہلے سے اپنے پاس موجود ذرائع سے موازنہ کرتی ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 10 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے تمام ملازمین مشترکہ اہداف/مقاصد حاصل کرنے کا جذبہ رکھتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 11 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے تمام ملازمین ایک دوسرے سے طے شدہ معاہدوں کا پاس رکھ سکتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 12 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے تمام ملازمین کا اک مشترکہ ہدف اور مقصد ہوتا ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 13 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے تمام ملازمین آپس میں قریبی تعلقات قائم رکھتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 14 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے ملازمین ایک دوسرے کے مفادات کو نقصان پہنچانے سے گریز کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 15 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے ملازمین کے درمیان اعتماد کا رشتہ قائم ہے یہاں تک کہ اگر کسی ایک کو دوسرے سے کوئی فائدہ سمیٹنے کا موقع ہاتھ آ بھی جائے تو وہ ایسا نہیں کرتا۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 16 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے ملازمین غیر رسمی گفتگو کے ذریعے ایک دوسرے سے علم اور معلومات کا تبادلہ باقاعدگی سے کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 17 ہمارے اسٹیک ہولڈرز (شراکت دار) اور ہماری آرگنائزیشن ایک دوسرے کے ساتھ اپنے معاہدوں کا پاس رکھنے کے اہل ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 18 ہمارے اسٹیک ہولڈرز (شراکت دار) نئے گاہکوں (کسٹمرز) کو ہمارے ساتھ متعارف کرانے میں بڑی کشادہ دلی کا مظاہرہ کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 19 ہماری آرگنائزیشن اپنے پرانے کسٹمرز کے ذریعے نئے کسٹمرز کے ساتھ مسلسل متعارف ہوتی رہتی ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- 20 ہمارے اسٹیک ہولڈرز ہمارے مفادات کو نقصان پہنچانے سے حتی الامکان گریز کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 21 ہمارے اسٹیک ہولڈرز ہمارے ساتھ گہرے دوستانہ روابط قائم رکھتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 22 ہمارے اسٹیک ہولڈرز اور ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے درمیان ایک اعتماد کی فضا موجود ہے۔ یہاں تک کہ اگر ایک کو دوسرے سے کوئی فائدہ سمیٹنے کا موقع بھی ملے تو وہ ایسا نہیں کرتا۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 23 ہمارے اسٹیک ہولڈرز ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے ساتھ نجی یا ذاتی دوستی کا تعلق بھی قائم رکھتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 24 مجموعی طور پر سوشل کیپیٹل/سماجی سرمایہ (آرگنائزیشن کے اندر یا باہر کے لوگوں کے باہمی لین دین سے حاصل ہونے والا سرمایہ) سوشل انٹرپرائز/سماجی کاروبار کے لیے بہت اہم ہوتا ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 25 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کی قابلیت ہمیں لوگوں کی ممکنہ بڑی تعداد کو خدمات مہیا کرنے کی اجازت دیتی ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 26 اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم اس قابل ہیں کہ اپنی مارکیٹ کی پہنچ (مثلاً زیادہ لوگوں، نئی منڈیوں اور نئے مقامات تک جانا) کو بڑھا کر اپنی مصنوعات یا پیشکشوں کو بہتر بنا سکیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 27 اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم نے اپنے مقاصد حاصل کرنے کے لیے رفتہ رفتہ اپنی قابلیتوں میں اضافہ کیا ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 28 اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم نے وقت کے ساتھ ساتھ اُن لوگوں کی تعداد میں خاطرخواہ اضافہ کیا ہے جنہیں ہم خدمات مہیا کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- اپنی آرگنائزیشن میں ہم نے وقت کے ساتھ ساتھ اُس علاقے
- 29 یا جغرافیائی حدود میں بھی کافی اضافہ کیا ہے جہاں ہم خدمات مہیا کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 30 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کا کام اور طریق کار ایسا ہے جسے کسی دوسرے مقام پر بھی منتقل کیا جا سکتا ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 31 سوشل پراجیکٹس (سماجی منصوبے) بنانے کے لیے ہم خیالات کے مختلف ذرائع (مینو فیکچررز، سپلائرز، کنسلٹنٹس، آرگنائزیشن کے ملازمین، یونیورسٹیز کے ریسرچرز اور حکومت کی آراء) سے کام لیتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 32 ہم نئے سوشل پراجیکٹس (سماجی منصوبے) بنانے کے لیے مختلف حصہ داروں (پارٹنرز) کے ساتھ مل کر کام کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 33 سوشل پراجیکٹس کے لیے ہم بہت محدود ذرائع سے فنڈز حاصل کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 34 اپنے پراجیکٹس کو ماپنے/جانچنے کے لیے ہم مختلف آلات/طریقے استعمال کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 35 ہم اپنے پراجیکٹس کی کامیابیوں کی رپورٹس مختلف مختلف ذرائع سے عام کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 36 ہم سوشل پراجیکٹس دے کر اپنی آرگنائزیشن کو بہتر بناتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 37 ہمارے پراجیکٹس مختلف سماجی شعبوں میں تبدیلیاں لاتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 38 ہماری آرگنائزیشن کے پراجیکٹس میں مستفید ہونے والا طبقہ بھی حصہ لیتا ہے۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 39 ہم سوشل پراجیکٹس دینے کے لیے مختلف آرگنائزیشنز (تنظیموں) کے ساتھ شراکت داری کرتے ہیں۔ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

40 ہمارے پراجیکٹس معاشی حوالے سے پائیدار/قابلِ عمل 1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
ہوتے ہیں۔

### Section B

ہماری آرگنائزیشن میں مندرجہ ذیل اُمور میں سے کون سا کتنا اہم سمجھا جاتا ہے؟

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
انتہائی	غیر اہم	کسی حد	غیر	کسی حد	اہم	انتہائی
غیر اہم		تک غیر اہم	جانبدارانہ	تک اہم		اہم

41	ایک خاص وقت میں اشیا/خدمات کی فروخت کی مقدار	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42	ماضی کی نسبت حال میں اشیا/خدمات کی فروخت میں اضافہ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	کسی کاربار کی آمدن میں اضافے کی صلاحیت	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	خالص منافع(خام مال کے اخراجات ، ملازمین کی تنخواہیں اور ٹیکسز وغیرہ منہا کرنے کے بعد)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	کل منافع (صرف خام مال کے اخراجات منہا کرنے کے بعد)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46	کاروبار میں اضافہ کرنے کے لیے منافع میں سے فنڈ دینے کی صلاحیت	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

پچھلے تین سالوں میں مندرجہ ذیل اُمور کے حوالے سے آپ کی آرگنائزیشن میں اطمینان کی سطح کیا ہے؟

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
انتہائی مطمئن	غیر مطمئن	کسی حد تک غیر مطمئن	غیر جانبدارانہ	کسی حد تک مطمئن	مطمئن	انتہائی مطمئن

47	ایک خاص وقت میں اشیا/خدمات کی فروخت کی مقدار	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	ماضی کی نسبت حال میں اشیا/خدمات کی فروخت میں اضافہ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	کسی کاربار کی آمدن میں اضافے کی صلاحیت	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50	خالص منافع(خام مال کے اخراجات ، ملازمین کی تنخواہیں اور ٹیکسز وغیرہ منہا کرنے کے بعد)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	کل منافع (صرف خام مال کے اخراجات منہا کرنے کے بعد)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52	کاروبار میں اضافہ کرنے کے لیے منافع میں سے فنڈ دینے کی صلاحیت	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### شماریاتی (آبادی سے متعلق) معلومات

اس حصے میں ہمیں آبادی سے متعلق کچھ معلومات درکار ہیں۔ لوگوں کی طرف سے اکٹھی ہونے والی تمام معلومات کو صرف اور صرف تحقیقی مقاصد کے لیے ہی استعمال کیا جائے گا اور کسی بھی طرح سے اس کا مطلب آپ کی شناخت معلوم کرنا یا اس معلومات کو کسی انفرادی تجزیے کے لیے استعمال کرنا ہرگز نہیں ہے۔

1- جغرافیائی مقام: صوبہ \_\_\_\_\_ شہر: \_\_\_\_\_

2- جنس: ☐ مرد ☐ عورت

3- آپ کی تنظیم (آرگنائزیشن) کی کیفیت: ☐ منافع بخش ☐ غیر منافع بخش (این جی او)

4- آپ نے زیادہ سے زیادہ کتنی تعلیم حاصل کی ہے؟  
☐ غیر رسمی تعلیم ☐ میٹرک سے کم  
☐ میٹرک ☐ انٹرمیڈیٹ  
☐ گریجویشن سے کم ☐ گریجویشن یا اُس سے زیادہ

5- مندرجہ ذیل میں سے کون سا نام آپ کی موجودہ جاب کے لیے موزوں ترین ہے؟  
☐ پراجیکٹ مینیجر ☐ (سماجی کاروبار شروع کرنے والا)  
☐ سینئر مینیجر  
☐ کوئی اور ہے تو یہاں لکھ دیجیے

6- آپ کی تنظیم (آرگنائزیشن) میں ملازمین کی تعداد: \_\_\_\_\_ لوگ

7- اس آرگنائزیشن کو بنے ہوئے کتنا عرصہ ہو چکا ہے؟ \_\_\_\_\_ سال \_\_\_\_\_ ماہ

8- ملکیت [مالک کون ہے؟]  
☐ مشترکہ ملکیت ہے تو پارٹنر (حصہ دار) کا نام لکھیے: \_\_\_\_\_

☐ مقامی مالک کی ہے ☐ غیر ملکی مالک کی ہے ☐ گورنمنٹ کی ملکیت ہے  
☐ ان کے علاوہ کسی اور کی ملکیت ہے تو یہاں نام لکھیے: \_\_\_\_\_

9- سرمایے (فنڈنگ) کا سب سے بڑا ذریعہ کون سا ہے؟ (آپ ایک سے زیادہ جوابات پر بھی نشان لگا سکتے ہیں)



- ☐ از خود فنڈ (اپنے سرمایے سے کاروبار کرنا)  
☐ فنڈ (گورنمنٹ کے سرمایے سے کاروبار کرنا)  
☐ لوکل پرائیویٹ (مقامی اور نجی سرمایہ)  
☐ بین الاقوامی اداروں کی طرف سے فنڈ  
☐ ان کے علاوہ کوئی اور ذریعہ ہے تو یہاں لکھیے: \_\_\_\_\_

10- آپ کی آرگنائزیشن (تنظیم) کس میدان یا شعبے میں زیادہ تر کام کرتی ہے؟

- ☐ صحت ☐ تعلیم ☐ معاشی خدمات  
☐ توانائی  
☐ زراعت اور خام مال کی فراہمی ☐ مصنوعات کی تیاری ☐ مواصلات  
☐ انفارمیشن اینڈ کمیونٹی کیشن ٹیکنالوجی  
☐ ان کے علاوہ کوئی اور شعبہ ہے تو یہاں لکھیے: \_\_\_\_\_



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## Appendix C

### Social Enterprises List in Pakistan

	Name	Details	Address
	<b><u>LAHORE</u></b>		
1	Active Shehri	Civic-minded technology enthusiasts who want to change the way an average citizen in Pakistan tackles his daily problems.	info@activeshehri.com 6th Floor, Arfa Software Technology Park, Lahore,
2	Alif Laila Book Bus Society - Sub Ki Library		3-B Main Market Gulberg II Lahore, tel: +92 42 35758395
3	Amal Academy	Education, Job-skills and career training	Mall Road, 259-B Khizer Road, Wapda Officers Colony Upper Mall Scheme (042) 35958687
4	Amden		549-Ravi Block Allama Iqbal Town, Lahore, 1800 200 300
5	Akhuwat Foundation		19 Civic Center, Sector A2, Township, 042-111-448-464 or, info@akhuwat.org.pk
6	Bukhsh Foundation	Fizza Farhan	Plot No. 3-R (Almas Tower) M.M.Alam Road Gulberg III, Lahore
7	ChaiChalk	Their ultimate goal is to provide publication opportunities to potential writers from Pakistan to drive positive social change	Social Innovation Lab, Opposite Sector U, DHA (042) 35608000
8	Clubinternet	Hassan Baig	Arfa Technology Park
9	Desi tour project		Lahore
10	DIYGeeks		Arfa Software Technology Park, Lahore, Pakistan/+92 343 5187556
11	foriEDU.com	Teachus/ForiEdu is the first 'Online Home Tutor Portal' in Pakistan with professional, experienced and certified home tutors	346-b, Ferozepur Road, Nishter Town/+92 348 000 3333 info@foriedu.com/2nd F, PlanX,
12	Ghonsla		Head Office, Packages Ltd. Shah-e-roomi, Lahore / +92 423 581 0408 / info@ghonsla.com zehra@ghonsla.com
13	Home and Office Services	Home and Office Services is a web/mobile-based company committed to bringing better employment opportunities to blue-collar workers to improve their standard of living	202, Miraj Plaza, Main Market (near Girls School), Gulberg II
14	Justice Project Pakistan		Zaman's, 25-A, Lane 2A Lane 2, Zaman Park, Lahore/(042) 35782110
15	MIT Enterprise Forum Pakistan		Facebook page

16	Nutright		Arfa software technology park
17	Kashf Foundation		<a href="mailto:info@kashf.org">+92-42-111-981-981/ info@kashf.org</a>
18	Lok Sawari Adventure		Facebook page
19	Entrepreneur organization Lahore chapter		<a href="https://www.eonetwork.org/laore/">https://www.eonetwork.org/laore/</a>
20	Pakistan sustainability network		
21	Pharmagen		5 - A, Zafar Ali Road, Gulberg V, Lahore/ (+92-42) 5759564, <a href="mailto:info@pharmagen.com.pk">info@pharmagen.com.pk</a>
22	Rabtt	The Rabtt team organizes a 2-3 week camp every summer where their team of volunteers teaches low-income children English, Mathematics, Physics, along with Critical Thinking, Drawing and Drama.	<a href="mailto:info@rabtt.org">info@rabtt.org</a> /0333 4505972/ <a href="http://rabtt.org/">http://rabtt.org/</a>
23	Shaukat Khanum Memorial		Lahore
24	Social innovation lab SIL		<a href="mailto:hello@socinnlab.org">hello@socinnlab.org</a> /45 A, Khayaban-e-Iqbal Section XX, DHA Phase 3 Lahore
25	Seed out		Plaza No 285, FF Block, Phase 4, DHA, Lahore/ <a href="mailto:info@seedout.org">info@seedout.org</a>
26	Studentary		Level 09, Arfa Software Technology Park, 346-B, Ferozepur Road, Lahore Ph:03331337141, 03214833553
27	The Aurat Foundation		House No 18, Zaman Park, Canal Bank, Lahore, Pakistan E-mail: <a href="mailto:rdlhr@af.org.pk">rdlhr@af.org.pk</a> Tel: +92-042-36286296
28	TurrLahore		Firhaj Shoeware Industry, House 57, M, Firhaj Rd, Sector 1, Lahore/ (042) 35728068
29	YES (youth engagement services)		92-0423-7401517-18 <a href="mailto:contact@yesnetworkpakistan.org">contact@yesnetworkpakistan.org</a>
30	Rizq Foundation		Street Number 3, Sultan Park Qasimpura/ 0322 8842089
31	Women digital League		Address: 13-M, Commercial Area, Phase 1, DHA Lahore
32	Rex clinic	Customized diet plans	9 Q block, near PSO pump, link road, Model town, 0324 890000 03111 567 568 (Dr. Faisal)
33	AutoSahulat	AutoSahulat has been providing reliable roadside breakdown services for vehicles of all makes and models.	<a href="mailto:info@autosahulat.com">info@autosahulat.com</a> 0342 - SAHULAT (7248528) 1st Floor, Plaza No. 88 CCA, DHA Phase 6, Lahore, Pakistan

34	Rizq		
35	Findmyadventure		
	<b><u>KARACHI</u></b>		
36	Adorn online	Supporting the work of mostly women artisans in the rural and urban areas of Pakistan.	<a href="mailto:najia@adorn.com.pk">najia@adorn.com.pk</a> <a href="http://www.adornonline.org">http://www.adornonline.org</a> (021) 32446208
37	Aman Foundation	Transforming Lives and Empowering the People	Plot # 333, Korangi Township Near Pakistan Refinery Ltd, +92 (21)111-111-823, <a href="mailto:info@amanfoundation.org">info@amanfoundation.org</a>
38	Bahria Medics	Umar Anwar Jahangir/ social welfare organization run by doctors and medical students.	Adjacent to PNS SHIFA, DHA Phase-II, Karachi +92-21-35319491-9, <a href="mailto:info.bumdc@bahria.edu.pk">info.bumdc@bahria.edu.pk</a>
39	doctHERs	doctHERs is a novel, digital healthcare platform that connects female doctHERs to health consumers	C4C Ittehad Commercial Area Ground Floor Phase 6, DHA (021) 35246711 <a href="mailto:info@doctHERs.com">info@doctHERs.com</a>
40	NayaJevan		C-4-C, Ittehad Commercial Area, DHA Phase VI/ <a href="mailto:nayajeevan@njfk.org">nayajeevan@njfk.org</a> (021) 35846570
41	Ecoenergy finance (2009)	EcoEnergy provides affordable, cutting-edge solar technology directly to people with no access to electricity	1401-1405 Dilkusha Forum Tariq Road, Karachi/ <a href="mailto:skhan@ecoenergyfinance.org">skhan@ecoenergyfinance.org</a>
42	FindMyAdventure		03330596362/ <a href="mailto:support@findmyadventure.pk">support@findmyadventure.pk</a>
43	Gulbaho Trust		
44	i-care Pakistan		F-192/1, Block 5, Kehkashan, Clifton Karachi, Pakistan. <a href="http://www.i-care-pakistan.org">www.i-care-pakistan.org</a> Tel: (+92 21) 3-583 2041-42
45	Indus Earth Trust		24th St, Phase V Tauheed Commercial Area Phase 5 Defence Housing Authority/ (021) 35864344
46	Orangi Pilot Project		ST-4, Sector 5-A, Qasba Township, Manghopir Road, Karachi/+92-21-36658021
47	Pasha Social innovation fund		(P@SHA), Room 310, 3rd Floor Business Center Block 6, PECHS Main Shahr-e-Faisal/ +92-21-35418121
48	Participatory development initiatives (PDI)		PDI House, Flat # 6, 3rd Floor Plot # 4-C, Street # 12, Badar Commercial, DHA Phase-5
49	Rickshaw project		NOWPDP House Bungalow No.83/1 N I Line Saghir Hussain Shaheed Road Saddar /+92 (21) 32294527-8

50	Saharo Welfare organization		Facebook
51	Seed ventures		Block 5 Clifton, Karachi/(021) <b>35171771</b>
52	T2F Café		10-C •Sunset Lane 5, Phase 2 Commercial Area Defence Housing Authority/ (021) <b>35389043</b>
53	SRE solutions		A – 33, Block 3, Delhi Housing Society, Near Dolmen Mall, Tariq Road, Karachi, Pakistan/ <a href="mailto:marketing@sresolutions.com">marketing@sresolutions.com</a>
54	Sughar Empowerment Society		Sughar Head Office: D2, 4th Floor, Baloch Center, Upper Gizri, clifton, Karachi Pakistan
55	The Citizens Foundation (TCF)	Nabila Mustafa	Plot No. 20, Sector # 14, Near Brookes Chowrangi, Korangi. Phone: +92-21-111-823-823 <a href="mailto:info@tcf.org.pk">info@tcf.org.pk</a>
56	Tech for Change		20th Floor, Bahria Icon Tower, Clifton, +92 305 3377887, <a href="mailto:info@techpakistan.org">info@techpakistan.org</a>
57	The Trade Development Authority of Pakistan		5th Floor, Block A, Finance & Trade Centre P.O. Box No. 1293, Shahrah-e-Faisal, +92-21-111-444-111
58	DKT		RJ Building, Plot # 37-C, Stadium Lane # 2, DHA, Karachi, +92 21 35852547-08
	<b>ISLAMABAD</b>		
59	COWLAR		Office # 14, 2nd Floor, Silver City Plaza, G-11, Islamabad +92 (51) 831 7562 Email: <a href="mailto:info@cowlar.com">info@cowlar.com</a>
60	Edopia		1 Ghaus Al Azam Rd, Bani Gala, Islamabad, Phone: (051) 2612514/+92518432824 <a href="http://Edopia.org/">Edopia.org/</a>
61	Empowerment thru Creative Integration (ECI)	training and capacity building organization for individual and institutional capacity of the development sector.	09-10, 2nd Floor, Al-Rehman, Shabbir Sharif Road, G-11 Markaz/ (+92-51) 2362870/ 71/ <a href="mailto:info@eci.com.pk">info@eci.com.pk</a> , <a href="http://www.eci.com.pk">http://www.eci.com.pk</a>
62	Fori mazdoori	Social innovationist Mustansir Tinauli	3-A, Building 100, Civic Center, Phase-4, Bahria Town/ +92 51 2724 229/ <a href="mailto:info@formazdoori.com">info@formazdoori.com</a>
63	Hashoo Foundation		
64	Invest2Innovate		The Hive Islamabad
65	INSAF Network Pakistan		House 278, Street 14, F-10/2/ +92 51 2101050-2/ <a href="mailto:info@inp.org.pk">info@inp.org.pk</a>

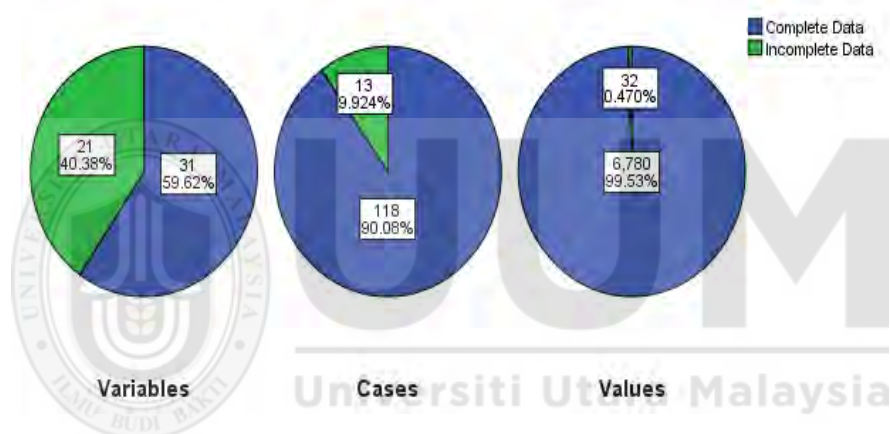
66	Khubaib Foundation		Plot # 112 , Street # 8 , Sector I 10/3/info@khubaibpakistan.org /UAN # 111-222-838
67	National Institute of Cultural Studies NICS		Gate no 6, Lok Virsa Garden Avenue Shakarparian/+92-51- 9249218/ contact@nics.org.pk
68	Pakistan foundation fighting blindness (PFFB)- Saima		Office No. 3, 2nd Floor, Al- Babar Center, Johar Road, F-8 512253709/2/pffb@comsats.net .pk
69	Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund		Plot No. 14, Street 12, G 8/1, Islamabad Phone: +92 (51) 8439450 - 79 Email: info@ppaf.org.pk
70	Women's Business Incubation Centre		Civil Lines, Rawalpindi
	<b><u>OTHERS</u></b>		
71	Popinjay/BLISS	Saba Gul/ A social enterprise which provides education and skills training to underprivileged girls	team@popinjay.co
72	Apna Arsh Pakistan (AAP)		
73	D light		Facebook page/ D.light Pakistan - "Let's Light Up Pakistan"
74	Healthy Breath	to develop an environmentally literate citizenry, who is able to participate with creativity and responsibility to make informed decisions that will help us lead a better life	+92 301 8515517 info@healthybreath.org
75	Hum-Aahang		Facebook page
76	Hometown shoes/Markhor		hello@markhor.com, Facebook page
77	Iradah		Khushab Rd, Buchal Kalan,, Chakwal District/ <b>Cell:</b> +92 333 5913530 <b>Email:</b> iradah.chakwal@gmail. com
78	Jassar Farm	Shahzad Iqbal quit his job in banking to move to a small village in Narowal.	Narowal
79	LOOP		<a href="http://loop.org.pk/about-us/">http://loop.org.pk/about-us/</a>
80	Milk'Op		Facebook page
81	Pakistan Youth Alliance		Facebook page
82	Reading Room project		<a href="mailto:info@readingroomproject.org">info@readingroomproject.org</a>
83	Ravvish		hello@ravvish.com
84	Shao'or Society		+92 41 8733910

85	Sughar Empowerment Society		<a href="mailto:info@sugherfoundation.com">info@sugherfoundation.com</a>
86	Union of Pakistani Youth (UPY)		0333 6593344
87	Saba's Gym		21-A, near Gloria Jeans, Gulgasht colony, Multan.

## Appendix D

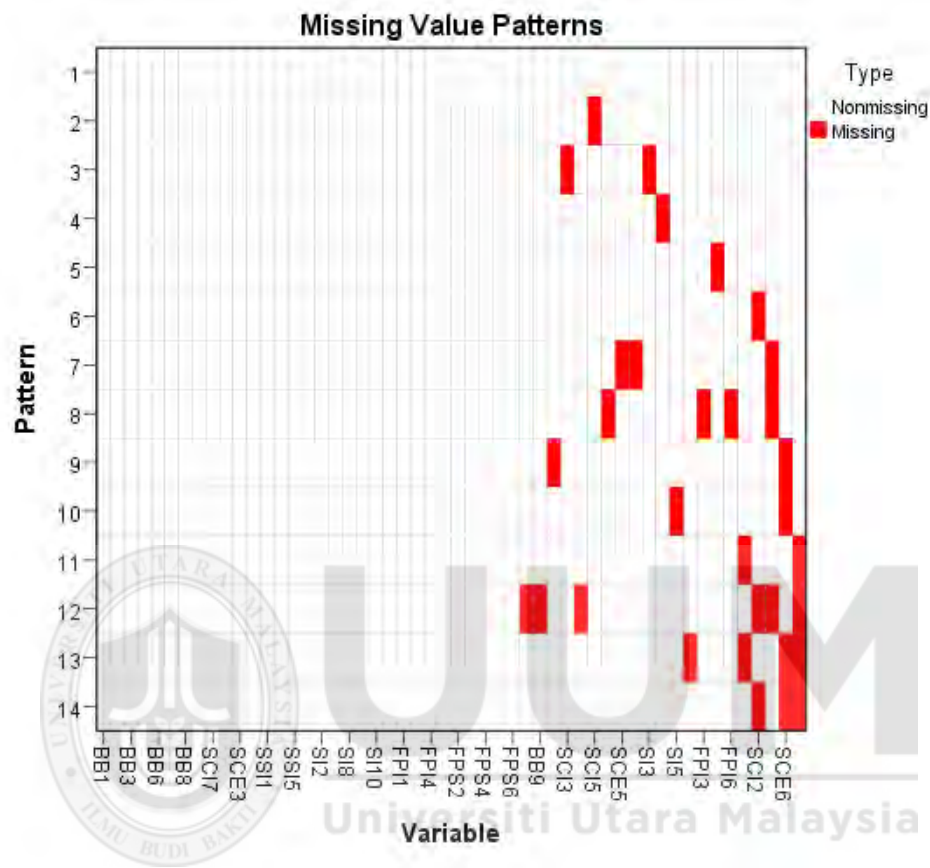
### SPSS Output Results: Missing Value Analysis

#### Overall Summary of Missing Values



## Appendix E

### Missing Value Pattern





## Appendix F

### Multivariate Outliers: Mahalanobis D2 Results

**Residuals Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	-6.6080	12.4102	7.9574	3.19455	133
Std. Predicted Value	-4.559	1.394	.000	1.000	133
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.348	1.891	.680	.268	133
Adjusted Predicted Value	-8.4584	12.5201	7.9236	3.29148	133
Residual	-20.09726	9.49538	.00000	3.65295	133
Std. Residual	-5.415	2.558	.000	.984	133
Stud. Residual	-5.459	2.660	.004	1.003	133
Deleted Residual	-20.42684	10.26288	.03378	3.79440	133
Stud. Deleted Residual	-6.238	2.728	-.001	1.041	133
Mahal. Distance	.133	32.250	3.969	4.739	133
Cook's Distance	.000	.191	.008	.022	133
Centered Leverage Value	.001	.252	.031	.037	133

a. Dependent Variable: FP

**Residuals Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.8030	6.4651	5.5946	.61666	133
Std. Predicted Value	-4.527	1.412	.000	1.000	133
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.088	.478	.173	.067	133
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.6797	6.4718	5.5983	.61180	133
Residual	-2.13956	9.00206	.00000	.93322	133
Std. Residual	-2.257	9.497	.000	.984	133
Stud. Residual	-2.613	9.689	-.002	1.012	133
Deleted Residual	-2.86815	9.37044	-.00367	.98789	133
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.676	19.113	.070	1.764	133
Mahal. Distance	.125	32.032	3.969	4.711	133
Cook's Distance	.000	.768	.012	.079	133
Centered Leverage Value	.001	.246	.031	.036	133

a. Dependent Variable: SSI

## Appendix G

### Non-Response Bias

**Group Statistics**

	NRB	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
BB	1.00	105	5.4010	.77567	.07570
	2.00	26	5.5000	.58394	.11452
SCI	1.00	105	5.3958	.77239	.07538
	2.00	26	5.6429	.65931	.12930
SCE	1.00	105	5.4051	.78174	.07629
	2.00	26	5.6390	.61762	.12112
SSI	1.00	105	5.5757	1.21689	.11876
	2.00	26	5.6710	.58161	.11406
SI	1.00	105	5.4941	.71492	.06977
	2.00	26	5.4789	.53276	.10448
FP	1.00	104	7.9199	5.10805	.50089
	2.00	25	8.1133	3.68578	.73716

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
BB	Equal variances assumed	1.267	.262	-.609	129	.544	-.09900	.16263	-.42076	.22276
	Equal variances not assumed			-.721	49.354	.474	-.09900	.13728	-.37482	.17682

SCI	Equal variances assumed	1.693	.196	-1.500	129	.136	-.24702	.16469	-.57286	.07882
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.650	43.667	.106	-.24702	.14967	-.54872	.05468
SC E	Equal variances assumed	1.318	.253	-1.419	129	.158	-.23391	.16489	-.56015	.09233
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.634	46.992	.109	-.23391	.14315	-.52189	.05407
SSI	Equal variances assumed	.877	.351	-.388	129	.699	-.09535	.24583	-.58173	.39103
	Equal variances not assumed			-.579	84.662	.564	-.09535	.16466	-.42276	.23206
SI	Equal variances assumed	1.648	.202	.102	129	.919	.01530	.14971	-.28090	.31150
	Equal variances not assumed			.122	49.882	.904	.01530	.12564	-.23706	.26766
FP	Equal variances assumed	2.283	.133	-.178	127	.859	-.19346	1.08504	-2.34055	1.95363
	Equal variances not assumed			-.217	48.851	.829	-.19346	.89123	-1.98459	1.59767

## Appendix H

### Harman's Single Factor Test

#### Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	14.374	31.247	31.247	14.374	31.247	31.247
2	1.996	4.339	35.586	1.996	4.339	35.586
3	1.639	3.563	39.149	1.639	3.563	39.149
4	1.564	3.401	42.549	1.564	3.401	42.549
5	1.502	3.266	45.815	1.502	3.266	45.815
6	1.478	3.214	49.029	1.478	3.214	49.029
7	1.366	2.969	51.998	1.366	2.969	51.998
8	1.357	2.950	54.948	1.357	2.950	54.948
9	1.289	2.803	57.751	1.289	2.803	57.751
10	1.176	2.556	60.307	1.176	2.556	60.307
11	1.135	2.467	62.774	1.135	2.467	62.774
12	1.014	2.205	64.979	1.014	2.205	64.979
13	1.011	2.197	67.176	1.011	2.197	67.176
14	.978	2.126	69.302			
15	.966	2.101	71.403			
16	.948	2.062	73.464			
17	.865	1.880	75.344			
18	.844	1.834	77.178			
19	.760	1.651	78.829			
20	.721	1.568	80.398			
21	.689	1.498	81.896			
22	.639	1.390	83.286			
23	.623	1.355	84.641			
24	.570	1.240	85.881			
25	.533	1.159	87.040			
26	.522	1.135	88.176			
27	.477	1.038	89.213			
28	.472	1.026	90.239			
29	.425	.924	91.163			
30	.388	.843	92.006			
31	.379	.823	92.829			
32	.336	.730	93.559			
33	.329	.715	94.274			

34	.308	.669	94.943			
35	.284	.618	95.561			
36	.271	.590	96.152			
37	.265	.577	96.728			
38	.248	.540	97.268			
39	.221	.481	97.749			
40	.207	.450	98.199			
41	.181	.394	98.593			
42	.165	.358	98.951			
43	.147	.320	99.271			
44	.132	.287	99.558			
45	.118	.256	99.814			
46	.086	.186	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

## Appendix I

### Inter-Item Correlation for Social Innovation

	SI1	SI2	SI3	SI4	SI5	SI6	SI7	SI8	SI9	SI10	SI11
SI1	1										
SI2	0.270	1									
SI3	0.311	0.293	1								
SI4	0.224	0.335	0.233	1							
SI5	0.475	0.364	0.334	0.289	1						
SI6	0.306	0.438	0.226	0.418	0.387	1					
SI7	0.417	0.459	0.309	0.292	0.317	0.423	1				
SI8	0.372	0.438	0.189	0.218	0.244	0.284	0.388	1			
SI9	0.337	0.342	0.280	0.246	0.250	0.265	0.228	0.367	1		
SI10	0.319	0.430	0.236	0.158	0.266	0.298	0.308	0.211	0.339	1	
SI11	0.369	0.157	0.116	0.187	0.397	0.243	0.222	0.177	0.361	0.218	1