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An Investigation into the Training Needs of Social Entrepreneurs in Ireland



A thesis submitted in fulfilment of a Master of Business Studies

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B.A. (Hons)

Supervisors

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Abstract

An Investigation into the Training Needs of Social Entrepreneurs in Ireland.

Internationally, social entrepreneurship is a relatively recent phenomenon; an expanding area of interest to researchers, academia, policy makers and the general public. Social entrepreneurship seeks to create and sustain social value. The concept of social entrepreneurship is contested, because it is capable of multiple interpretations. The concept is informed by a number of academic, practitioner and policy streams across a number of jurisdictions. The concept encompasses themes of social economic activity; activities of non-profit organisations; the promotion of social innovation; new types of philanthropy and a corporate sector intent on behaving in a more socially responsible way.

This sphere of activity in Ireland is mainly informed by social enterprise organisations operating in the social economy and by the promotion of social entrepreneurial initiative by philanthropic organisations. There is however, the acceptance that the activity is comparatively underdeveloped in Ireland. Social economic activity in Ireland lags behind European averages, and this research has found individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activity, who do not identify with the concept of the social entrepreneurship. This study sought to increase the visibility and knowledge on this sector, and specifically how it might be supported by training. The purpose of this research was to investigate the training needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland.

The study identified key training requirements for those engaged in this activity. It also found a certain convergence on the skills and competencies required for this activity, which focused on sustaining the activity through income generation, the increasing need to prove the worth of the social value created, and the need to acquire a suite of soft skills necessary to work in a complex, multi-constituency environment. The study holds that these findings need to be contextualised by the requirements of the practitioner, the outcome sought by educators, and an environment lacking an enabling policy to stimulate the identification and value of those engaging in social entrepreneurial activity.

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(Si scirem, quid nunc scimus)

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Glossary of terms and abbreviations

Terms

Pobal: a not-for-profit organisation that manages various funding programmes on behalf of the Irish Government and the EU.

Forfas: National policy advisory board on enterprise

Non Profit: Generally referring to non-governmental, non-profit activity. This term is used to refer to this activity across all jurisdictions.

Social Economy: that part of the economy, between the private and public sectors, which engages in economic activity to meet social objectives.

Third Sector: enterprises and organisations which are not primarily seeking profit nor are part of the public sector

Abbreviations

ALMP: Active Labour Market Policies, have a focus of re-integrating the long term unemployed back into the workforce through job placement and training.

DTI: Department of Trade and Industry, HMG, United Kingdom

EMES: (Emergence des entreprises sociales en Europe). An EU funded research network, established in 1996 to study the emergence of social enterprise in its European context.

EESC: European Economic and Social Committee

GECES: Expert Group (Social Entrepreneurship) set up European Union

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development

SEC: Social Enterprise Coalition, umbrella body for social enterprise in the United Kingdom, changed name in 2011 to Social Enterprise United Kingdom (SEUK)

SEETF: Social Enterprise and Entrepreneurship Task Force (Ireland)

SEUK: Social Enterprise United Kingdom, umbrella body for social enterprise sector in U.K., since 2011

W I S E: Work Integration Social Enterprise. Organisations that emerged from a combination of active labour market policies, and social economic activity, identified as social enterprises by the European research network on social enterprise EMES

Chapter 1.0 Introduction to Research

1.1 Introduction

The context for this research is the ongoing global interest in the concept and practice of social entrepreneurship. Individuals displaying entrepreneurial skill-sets in addressing social problems and deficits have always existed (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Cukier, *et al.*, 2011). This begs the question as to the nature of the more recent conceptualisation of these individuals as social entrepreneurs. This fact leads some to inquire whether the current popularity of social entrepreneurship is ‘a new case for an old idea’ (Light, 2006, p47).

Research literature into social entrepreneurship and social enterprise has increased significantly (Short, Moss and Lumpkin, 2009). International fora such as the Skoll World Forum popularise and legitimise social entrepreneurial approaches to solving social inequalities. Educational courses referencing social entrepreneurship proliferate (Welsh and Kruger, 2013), while the number of educational institutions offering training in the area continues to expand (Brock and Steiner, 2009). Recent policy initiatives such as the European Union Social Business initiative in 2011, and events such as the creation, in 2009, of the Office of Social Innovation and Civic Participation in the United States administration, attest to government’s recognition of the potential of this area of activity in addressing various social problems. These initiatives signal governments’ intention to support and encourage socially entrepreneurial behaviour, which in turn points to training needs for this activity.

In Ireland a similar situation occurs in relation to the popularisation of social entrepreneurship. Philanthropic organisations promoting the concept of social entrepreneurship such as Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, Ashoka Ireland, and the School for Social Entrepreneurs, have popularised the activity. Educational outputs such as the Initiative on Social Entrepreneurship (2010) by The Centre for Non-profit Management at Trinity College Dublin indicate academic interest in the subject. Educational courses and modules which reference social entrepreneurship feature in third level institutions in Ireland (Appendix A). On the policy front, an initiative from government, examining the potential of job creation in social enterprise (Forfas, 2013) is imminent.

1.2 Subject matter of research

Social entrepreneurship is not a homogenous field of activity. The concept is informed by a number of academic, practitioner and jurisdictional streams, encompassing

themes of social economic activity, activity of non-profit organisations, promotion of social innovation, new types of philanthropy and a corporate sector looking to behave in a more socially responsible way (Kerlin, 2006; DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008). The field and the concept are still evolving (Mendel and Nogales 2008), which poses a difficulty for this research, in terms of clarifying and identifying the behaviour of interest.

This research adopts a generic approach to social entrepreneurship, and by extension social entrepreneurs. A generic perception is predicated on social entrepreneurship not being the sole preserve of the individual entrepreneur. According to Light (2006, p47), the focus on the individual social entrepreneur ‘neglects to recognise and support thousands of other individuals, groups and organisations that are crafting solutions to troubles around the globe’. A generic approach recognises that entrepreneurial social value creation by individuals and groups, across a myriad of organisational formats may be socially entrepreneurial. Such a ‘broad church’ approach to social entrepreneurship can be problematical in that it does not recognise distinctions which may lead to conceptual confusion (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008; Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik, 2010). A more pertinent issue for this research is that a generic perception of social entrepreneurship broadens the field of research, and makes identification of research samples difficult.

The subject matter- the social entrepreneur- is not a member of clearly identifiable homogenous group. There are individuals engaged in socially entrepreneurial work who would not describe themselves as social entrepreneurs (Thompson, 2002). Similarly, the question of whether someone is a social entrepreneur because they are supported by a philanthropic organisation, whose remit is to encourage social entrepreneurship, is a valid one. In this research, the concept of the social entrepreneur is derived from key themes in the literature that distinguish social entrepreneurship from other forms of activity. It is how participants relate to these key themes, which determines whether the criteria for social entrepreneurial activity are met.

This research accepts the variegated nature of the field, and holds that identifying subjects variously engaged in social value creation activities, is of a practical value. Such an inclusive position not only supports the identification and mapping exercise of different training needs, but also recognises training contexts such as intrapreneurship. A generic approach is also justified by recent policy initiatives such as the European Union’s Social

Business Initiative (2011), which reflects a broad approach incorporating a number of elements, rather than exclusive formulations.

1.3 Justification for research

The research is in a growing area of activity and scholarship, which is of interest to the researcher and the Institute of Technology, Tralee. This research will inform the provision of training in the social entrepreneurial sector, and will add to previous research, undertaken into aspects of social entrepreneurship and social enterprise in Ireland (Clarke and Eustace, 2009; Prizeman and Crossan, 2011; DKM, 2011). The practical value of identifying and mapping of training needs will contribute to the recognition, growth and support for the sector (Social Business Initiative, 2011; Forfas, 2013).

It will also contribute to the academic work in the Centre of Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development at the Institute of Technology, Tralee, which is already recognised nationally and internationally for initiatives in entrepreneurship. It will also complement other research currently being conducted in the Institute by staff and students in the areas of entrepreneurship and social studies.

1.4 Aim of Research

The aim of this thesis is to investigate, identify and map the training needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland.

1.5 Research Objectives

The research objectives to achieve that aim are to identify and gain an insight into the mind-set of individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activities, particularly in regard to challenges and problems they face. To that end the organising questions are as follows:

- 1 What motivates and influences one to engage in social entrepreneurial activity?
- 2 What are the key problems and challenges faced by individuals and groups during their social entrepreneurial experiences?
- 3 What are the current training facilities, programmes and resources available for social entrepreneurs?
- 4 What are the key training and education needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland?

1.6 Research Design

This study employs a mixed methodology combining (1) an interpretivist exploration of the social entrepreneur's values and meaning when engaging in social entrepreneurial activity, with (2) a quantitative training needs analysis, underpinned by an international literature review. Methods employed to achieve this include:

- 10 semi- structured interviews with a purposive sample of individuals, exploring their engagement in social entrepreneurship.
- Using themes both pre-set and emergent from these semi - structured interviews, a quantitative training needs questionnaire is administered to a larger population sample of individuals and organisations to assess training needs of same.

1.7 Delimitations

The concept of social entrepreneurship is contested. To inform the research, distinguishing features of the activity are clarified. However, it is not the purpose or the intention of this research to delineate the concept of social entrepreneurship.

1.8 Chapter Outlines

Chapter Two- Literature Review

Chapter two reviews the relevant literature on the social entrepreneurship. The activities from different jurisdictions which inform the concept are outlined, as is the cross sectoral and evolving nature of the phenomenon. Government interest in social entrepreneurship is examined, giving an overview of policy approaches, policy drivers and policy discourses. The key requirement of impact measurement for policy makers is also considered. Clarifying and distinguishing social entrepreneurship from other types of social value creation is then undertaken. The contexts and approaches to education and training for social entrepreneurship are then examined. The field of social enterprise/ entrepreneurship in Ireland is reviewed, and an overview of the education and training resources available for this activity is given.

Chapter Three - Research Methodology

Chapter three considers the epistemological, theoretical and methodological variables in research design. These considerations are used to argue for a particular research design to answer the research objectives. The development of the research design methods, sampling

plans, and analyses of data are presented. Limitations and issues of validity, particularly of the quantitative instrument, are discussed.

Chapter Four - Qualitative Analyses

In this chapter the qualitative analysis of ten semi-structured interviews, with a purposive sample of individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland is presented. Qualitative data is thematically analysed, and themes are organised as those identifying social entrepreneurship, identifying the social entrepreneur, problems and challenges faced, and competencies and requirements for social entrepreneurial activity.

Chapter Five - Quantitative Analysis

This chapter presents the quantitative analysis of training needs assessment for a sample of 115 individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland. Using descriptive statistics generated by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), information on these individuals and their organisation is analysed and presented. The method and rationale used to calculate training needs for individuals is given. Overall training needs are generated and cross tabulated by role and organisational type. Training needs are presented, analysed and interpreted. The contexts for delivery of training needs are then examined.

Chapter Six Discussion/Conclusions/Recommendations

The concluding chapter restates the research objectives, summarises overall findings and discusses how the objectives were met. The different contexts for the research findings are then considered. The research concludes with recommendations for recognition of the field, and future research.

Summary

The background, subject matter, and justification for the research were presented. The aim, objectives, organising questions and the design of the research were outlined. The chapter outlines indicating the structure of the thesis were given.

Chapter 2.0 Social Entrepreneurship: Concept, Practice, Policy

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on the practice, policies and concept of social entrepreneurship. This will set the contextual background for the research by examining the antecedents of the social entrepreneurial phenomenon, its evolving cross sectoral nature, government policy contexts, and discourses that inform the concept. Having established the features of, what is an essentially evolving field, the main distinguishing themes of social entrepreneurial activity are explored. The literature on educating the social entrepreneur is then considered. To set the context for the research, the Irish landscape is then examined in terms of practice, policy and educational resources. The chapter will review the literature in the following areas:

- Caveats to consider when approaching the literature.
- The major schools of thought on social entrepreneurship and enterprise are outlined.
- Policy contexts for social entrepreneurship.
- Distinguishing social entrepreneurship.
- Educating the social entrepreneur.
- The social entrepreneurial landscape in Ireland.
- Overview of education and training in Ireland.

2.1 Caveats when Approaching the Literature

Social entrepreneurship is the application of entrepreneurship in the social sphere (Roberts and Woods, 2005). In the literature, social entrepreneurship is frequently conceptualised by comparing and contrasting it with commercial entrepreneurship (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Cukier, *et al.*, 2011; OECD, 2010). Commercial entrepreneurship is about ‘for-profit businesses pursuing as a primary objective economic value creation and its appropriation’, while social entrepreneurship is ‘primarily aiming at addressing and satisfying unmet social needs, and thereby creating social value’ (OECD 2010, p 186). Social value creation as defined by Peredo and McClean (2006, p 59) is the aim ‘to contribute to the welfare or well-being in a given human community’, and it is this primary focus on social value creation which distinguishes social entrepreneurship from other forms of entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurs prioritize social value creation over financial value creation (Leadbeater, 2007).

Research into social entrepreneurship has largely been phenomenon driven (Mair and Marti, 2006), resulting in the literature being dominated by conceptual articles (Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik, 2010; Bacq and Janssen, 2011). The field is also beset by definitional problems which is symptomatic of a relatively immature line of academic inquiry (Cukier *et al.*, 2011).

Different definitions focus on different aspects of the phenomenon, and reflect different emphases on the concept. In contrast to the accent on the primacy of social value creation found in the literature (Dees, 2001), other areas of the literature associated with the activities of non-profit organisations in the United States, stress that social entrepreneurship is ‘the art of simultaneously pursuing both a financial and a social return on investment’ (Boschee, 2014). This is reflective of the commercial activities engaged in by these non-profit organisations, to sustain their social mission (Boschee and McClurg, 2003). This approach is regarded as having a ‘narrow’ focus on income generation according to some sources in the literature (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006). Dees, Emerson and Economy (2002,p326) hold that ‘Social entrepreneurship is not about starting a business or becoming more commercial. It is about finding new and better ways to create social value’. The focus on income generation also contrasts with the conceptualisation of the social entrepreneur by Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, as an individual who:

is compelled to act for public or social benefit (rather than to make money) has an innovative approach in addressing a well -defined problem and has an ability to effectively develop and grow their new idea to maximise impact (Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, 2014)

This definition de-emphasizes economic value creation as criteria for social entrepreneurship.

However, social entrepreneurship integrates both economic and social value creation (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Mair and Marti, 2006). Resulting organisational types tend to be hybrid forms, pursuing both social and financial value creation (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). There are myriad organisational forms associated with the term ‘social entrepreneurship’. Organisational formats such as social enterprise, social firm, social business, social purpose business, socially entrepreneurial ventures, double/triple-bottom line organisations, all refer to organisations creating both economic and social value, with varying emphasis placed upon social and commercial goals.

The term ‘social enterprise’ is an example of different emphases and understandings found in the literature. For Haugh (2005) social entrepreneurship is the process of creating social enterprise. The meaning of the term social enterprise, however, is jurisdiction specific (Kerlin 2006; DeFourny and Nyssens, 2010). In the European setting it is understood largely, as collective type undertakings benefitting a constituency or community employing a democratic type governance structure and using mixed revenue streams. In this setting, social enterprise is seen as a potential tool in strengthening the social economy. In the United Kingdom, social enterprise is encouraged to act in a business-like fashion, competing against private companies in the market place to deliver public services (GHK, 2006). Commerciality is also a feature of social enterprise in the United States of America, where it is an umbrella term for non-profit organisations, not necessarily community based or having a participatory governance structure, looking to ensure sustainability through commercial income generation. For some commentators, social enterprise may be distinguished from, and is not necessarily the outcome of social entrepreneurship. Muhammad Yunus, awarded a Nobel laureate for innovative micro-financing of indigent populations, holds that the term social enterprise is applied to any type of social undertaking, not necessarily involved in any commercial activity (Kickul, *et al.*, 2012). His preference is for the term “social business” to describe an organisation pursuing a social objective as a non-profit, non-loss making enterprise. Mendel and Nogales (2008), hold that social enterprise preceded social entrepreneurship, which is an expanding and evolving concept, and a more recent phenomenon than social enterprise. O’Broin (2012, p20) distinguishes between social enterprise and social entrepreneurship stating:

The former is a broad approach to economic development based on economic and social solidarity and a more democratized society, the latter an evolution of the recent marketization of the management and delivery of many public services.

The literature on social entrepreneurship reveals a broad umbrella construct applied to a burgeoning field of activities (Nicholls, 2006); where different understandings prevail of what social entrepreneurship is, and how it is organized. Geographical and political contexts must be taken into account, while a number of competing discourses must also be considered. This research takes an intuitive approach to the literature of social entrepreneurship holding that ‘social entrepreneurship’ refers to a process, that the ‘social entrepreneur’ is the founder of an initiative, and that ‘social enterprise’ is the tangible outcome of social entrepreneurship, mindful of the aforementioned caveats on definitions, different organisational forms and use

of conceptual terms interchangeably, which should be recognised to avoid conceptual confusion (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008; Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik, 2010).

It is not the remit of this research to delineate the concept of social entrepreneurship, however it is necessary to recognise the different strands informing, both its concept and practice. This will inform both the investigation of training needs and the methodology used in this study.

2.2 Activities informing the Social Entrepreneurial Concept

Conceptualizing social entrepreneurship, Thompson (2002) writes of a ‘blurring of the lines’, between the traditional tripartite division of society into public, private, and third (or non-profit) sector. Social entrepreneurship is a cross sectoral phenomenon, mixing elements from private business, non-profit activity, and provision of public goods and service (Leadbeater, 1997; Wolk, 2007). Social entrepreneurship can occur in the non-profit, for profit, or government sectors (Austin, Stevenson, and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Thompson, 2002; Wolk, 2007).

Traditionally, in Western capitalist democracies, the private sector focused on profitable markets, the public sector responsibility was to address market failure, while the non-profit sector engaged citizens in meeting societal needs (Wolk, 2007). A number of trends emerged in the 1980s which challenged this notional demarcation, and influenced the development of the socially entrepreneurial concept.

The public sector saw political shifts in the United States and the United Kingdom, resulting in government retrenchment and the adoption of policies leading to the marketisation of public services. The non-profit sectors in these jurisdictions were faced with reduced government subsidy, and competition from private sector companies in areas traditionally perceived as non-profit domains. In other jurisdictions fiscal constraints led to changes in welfare states, as they existed (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008). In the private sector, the perception of social services delivery as a profitable opportunity took hold (Ryan, 1999); while the sector also began to respond to calls for more socially responsible business practices (Mendel and Nogales, 2008). The nature, aims and methods employed in philanthropy also changed (Frumkin, 2003). These changes occurred against a backdrop of what Dees (1998, p56) calls ‘the triumph of capitalism’, a general belief in the market system, and ‘the presumption that commercialization implies greater efficiency’. From these

contexts the activities that inform the concept of social entrepreneurship and the social entrepreneur emerged:

- Non-profit organisations in the United States of America engaging in commercial activity to ensure sustainability,
- Non-profit organisations in the United Kingdom enabled to deliver social services,
- Social economy organisations in the European Union delivering social services,
- The social entrepreneur addressing social problems in an entrepreneurial way.

These activities and their approaches to entrepreneurial social value creation inform the concept of social entrepreneurship, and researchers have found it useful to categorise these different approaches into ‘schools’, which explain the main lines of thought informing the concept (Kerlin 2006; DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008; Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik, 2010; Bacq and Jansen, 2011).

2.2.1 Schools of Social Entrepreneurship/Enterprise

There are four main “schools” of thought on social entrepreneurship and social enterprise, each having distinguishing features, which generally inform both the concept and literature. These are the European Social enterprise approach (hereafter Social Enterprise EU), the approach to Social Enterprise in the United Kingdom (hereafter Social Enterprise U.K), the Social Enterprise movement associated with the non-profit sector in America (hereafter Social Enterprise U.S), and the Social Innovation School, associated with prominent American business schools, and various philanthropic organisations such as Ashoka and the Skoll Foundation. These will now be discussed.

Social Enterprise EU

In Europe, the problems of welfare states in the 1970s and 1980s were the catalyst for the development of social enterprise (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008). Various European states dealing with long term unemployment, and associated social problems, constrained by high budget deficits, utilised Third Sector organisations to deliver active labour market programmes (ALMP’s). The aim of such programmes was to integrate the long term unemployed back into the labour market, through subsidised job creation, whereby the training and experience gained by the participants would assist with this re-integration. These programmes developed by the matching of social needs that were not being met (for example - childcare, senior care) with work integration types of employment, which featured in many European jurisdictions. These programmes aimed to tackle long term unemployment, reduce spending, while also facilitating a shift away from a welfare state based on entitlement to a

model where personal responsibility and active engagement were encouraged (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008).

For the Third Sector organisations enabled to deliver these active labour market programmes, it opened up possibilities of resources with which to address local needs, particularly in disadvantaged areas (Duggan, 1999). As DeFourny and Nyssens (2010, p33) point out: ‘This kind of public scheme fostered the trend toward a more productive role of, and entrepreneurial dynamics within the non-profit sector’.

In European countries where there was a strong tradition of co-operative societies, the 1980s saw many of these organisation adapted to deliver active labour market programmes, or work integration social enterprises (WISES), as they became known (DeFourny, and Nyssens, 2008) In Italy, this culminated in 1991, with a new legal form of social co-operative, created to deliver both social needs and employment. What emerges from this period is a European model of social enterprise, developed to different degrees in different jurisdictions. Whereas in some jurisdictions (France, Italy) governments began to use these organisations to address market failures, in other countries (e. g. Germany) these organisations have retained a social welfare ethos (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008).

A general characteristic of the European model is that the organisations that emerged as social enterprises had mainly community or collective type origins, which is reflected in their governance structure, emphasising democratic decision making and stakeholder involvement. Social enterprise in the EU is seen as a part of the Social Economy, with objectives of solidarity and the strengthening of democracy through social inclusion measures (European Economic and Social Committee, 2012).

Social Enterprise UK

A different emphasis is found in the approach to Social Enterprise in the United Kingdom. This approach was formulated and legislated for during the years of New Labour governments (1997-2010), and was used as a policy instrument to tackle economic re-generation, problems of social cohesion and delivery of public services. This approach is distinct from the European social economy model in that it is characterised by government enabling and supporting Third Sector organisations to operate as a social enterprise, in a decidedly business-like fashion, tendering and competing with other economic entities in the

marketplace to deliver goods and services (Amin 2005; Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009; Teasdale, 2010). The UK government promoted social enterprise as:

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 (DTI 2002,p7).

The UK approach sees third sector organisations acting as social enterprises contributing to economic development, which is different to other jurisdictions (GHK 2006; Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik, 2010). Social enterprise as a sustainable, accountable, business with a social purpose differentiates the UK model from the EU approach of the solidarity social economy.

Social Enterprise U.S.

In the United States organisations of the non- profit sector were the driving force in the creation of what became known as the “earned-income”, or the Social Enterprise U.S., School (Dees, 2003). Many of these non- profits had been funded by the federal government in the 1960s, delivering community development and educational programmes (Ryan, 1999). The 1970s saw a faltering economy and a political shift which resulted in funding cuts to many of these non-profit organisations. Significantly, the political shift also resulted in what Eikenberry and Kluver (2004) refer to as a market model of public management. This model encouraged outsourcing of public services, resulting in commercial organisations encroaching into areas of public service delivery, previously the domain of non-profit organisations and the public agencies that funded them (Ryan, 1999; Eikenberry and Kluver, 2004). In response, many non-profit organisations professionalised and looked at commercial activities, including sub-contracting to, and partnering with commercial organisations, to ensure revenues and sustainability. Advocates for this approach argued that the pursuit of earned income to underpin social mission as socially entrepreneurial (Boschee and McClurg 2003). These developments were facilitated and encouraged by a sub-industry of consultancies that advocated and advised the non- profits on becoming commercially active and thereby sustainable (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008). A representative body for social enterprise in the United States, the Social Enterprise Alliance, defines social enterprise as ‘businesses whose primary purpose is the common good. They use the methods and disciplines of business and the power of the marketplace to advance their social, environmental and human justice agendas.’ (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2014)

In summary, Social Enterprise U.S has a very strong focus on income generation as a means to sustain social mission, is organisationally defined by tax law and not allowed to distribute profits under that law.

Social Innovation school

While the schools of social enterprise across the jurisdictions focus on the organisational formats resulting from the entrepreneurial activity, the fourth school of thought, known as the Social Innovation School is focused on the individual, the idea and process of social entrepreneurship. This school got its impetus from the activities of philanthropic type non-profit foundations such as Ashoka (founded 1980), Schwab Foundation (founded 1998), Skoll Foundation (founded 1999), which sought to champion locate and support ‘the social entrepreneur’ to solve social problems (Bornstein 2005). The Skoll foundation state ‘our mission is to drive large scale change by investing in, connecting and celebrating social entrepreneurs and the innovators who help them solve the world’s most pressing problems’ (Skoll Foundation, 2015). Impetus from academics seeking to posit the social entrepreneur in the general field of entrepreneurship (Dees 2001; Martin and Osberg, 2007) was also a factor in the conceptualisation of the social entrepreneur emanating from this school of thought. The establishment of educational initiatives on social entrepreneurship within business schools of eminent universities in the United States was a confirmation of academic and general interest in this approach (Brock and Steiner 2009)

The social entrepreneur in this conception has all the characteristics of a “mainstream” entrepreneur. They are ‘one species in the genus entrepreneur’ (Dees, 2001 p2). They act in resourceful and innovative ways to deliver solutions to social problems. In this approach, innovation is key, which emphasizes new ways of doing things, or delivering things in a new way (Leadbeater, 1997). The literature from this school of thought celebrates the social entrepreneur as the embodiment of new and sustainable ways of addressing social problems (Bornstein 2005; Roberts and Woods, 2005; Mair and Marti, 2006; Martin and Osberg, 2007; Certo and Miller, 2008).

2.2.2 Commonalities and Divergences in Approaches

Consideration of these different approaches informs the understanding of social entrepreneurial activity. Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik (2010; p13) point out that ‘the various approaches are distinct from each other and that when these distinctions are not made

explicit, discussion can drift into conceptual fuzziness'. Common to all approaches is the primacy of social value creation (Bacq and Jansen, 2011).

The goal of social value creation is 'to contribute to the welfare or well-being in a given human community' Peredo and McClean (2006, p59). The Social Innovation approach creates social value by providing a sustainable solution to societal problems (Johnson, 2002). In the Social Enterprise U.S., approach, social enterprises are 'businesses whose primary purpose is the common good' (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2014). On the European landscape, social enterprise, as conceptualised by the body created to investigate the phenomenon, the European Research Network (EMES), has an explicit aim to benefit the community, while in the UK approach, social enterprise is described as a business with primarily social objectives (DTI 2002). The three social enterprise approaches engage by definition and intent, in economic activities to underpin social value creation. The Social Innovation approach does not stipulate economic activity; however there is an emphasis on sustainability within the school, which in an open market economy usually involves economic activities (Leadbeater, 2007; Chell, Karatas-Ozkan and Nicolopoulou, 2007))

The Social Innovation School tends to focus on the individual entrepreneur as the embodiment of social entrepreneurship, while the Social enterprise U.S., focus is on the entrepreneurial organisation. For Social Enterprise EU, the influence of individual is not discounted (Defourny and Nyssens, 2012); but the focus is more on collective dynamics and democratic governance. The UK approach also references the potential collective, community nature of social enterprise (DTI2002).

In the Social Innovation School, no particular organisational format, governance or rules on profit taking is stipulated. According to this view the social entrepreneur creates the appropriate organisational model (non-profit, for profit), depending on the task in hand (Austin, Stevenson, and Wei-Skillern 2006,). In contrast, the other three approaches emphasizing particular organisational formats of social enterprise in U.S., E.U., and the U.K, are conceptualised by how they are organised, governed and rules concerning profit distribution. Social enterprise US is defined and regulated by Law 501c, which confers tax exemption status. The social enterprise schools, either bar (as in the case of Social Enterprise U.S.), or restrict (as in the case of Social enterprise EU and UK) profit taking.

On the European landscape different legal forms are used across different states to designate socially entrepreneurial activity, the co-operative form being prevalent in Italy,

Spain, France, Portugal and Scandinavia (Galera and Borzaga 2009). In the United Kingdom, the social enterprise concept is potentially applicable to Third sector organisations in general (Teasdale 2010), as well the legal form of Community Interest Companies, created in 2005 to give a formal identity, governance and regulation for social enterprise in the United Kingdom.

The main differences between the approaches are summarised in Table 1

Table 1 Characteristics of the Main Schools of Social Entrepreneurship

Characteristics of the Main Schools of Social Entrepreneurship				
Title	Social Innovation	Social Enterprise U.S.	Social Enterprise EU.	Social Enterprise U.K.
School Focus	Individual Social Entrepreneur(Actor)	Non-Profit Income generation(strategy)	Social enterprise in Social Economy	Social Enterprise as a Business
Social Value creation	Through Innovative entrepreneurial approach	Social mission underpinned by income generation	Social economy activity	Third sector as economic actor
Organisational Model for outcome	None Preferred	Non Profit defined by tax law	EMES social and economic criteria	Third Sector Businesses
Profits	Not prohibited	Not distributed	Limited distribution	Limited distribution
Governance	Not specified	Not specified	Collective ideal	Collective referenced.

The activities encompassed by these different schools inform the concept and the literature of social entrepreneurship (Bacq and Jansen, 2011). The literature cautions that formulations on social enterprise and social entrepreneurship are idealised, whereas in practice there are overlaps (Dees, 2001; EMES, 2011).

In practice the field on social entrepreneurship continues to evolve (Mendel and Nogales 2008; Driver, 2012). Trends in the third, private and public sectors point to what Driver (2012, p 421) describes as ‘the social becoming more entrepreneurial but also the entrepreneurial becoming more social’ These trends have contributed to continued cross sectoral blurring to the extent that a certain convergence is argued for, between conventional and social entrepreneurship Chell (2007); and the view that social entrepreneurship is an evolutionary stage in capitalism (Driver, 2012)

2.2.3 Continued Evolution

Social enterprise across the jurisdictions (U.S., U.K, EU), has originated from the Third Sector. Defourny (2001, p1) has characterized the sector as ‘socio-economic initiatives which belong neither to the traditional private for profit sector nor to the public sector’. This sector is known by different names in different jurisdictions; non-profit sector in the United States; social economy in the European setting and, third sector in the United Kingdom. The research uses the term Third Sector to generally describe this sphere of activity.

The third sector is not a uniform phenomenon across various jurisdictions, which according to the social origins explanation of Anheier and Salamon (1996), is the result of the interplay between unique political and social circumstances in various jurisdictions. So while co-operatives feature prominently on the European landscape, co-operatives are not normally regarded as inherent to the United States non-profit sector. A further example is the government of the United States historically utilising the non-profit sector to deliver public services (Zietlow, 2001); due to the relative underdevelopment of the welfare state in that jurisdiction.

There are many and varied organisational forms within this sector, ranging from non-profit, non- governmental organisations engaged in charity, philanthropy, advocacy, social justice, to community and voluntary associations, to co-operatives, mutual type organisations and associations. There are profit seeking entities in the sector such as trade co-operatives, but the primary ethos across the sector has traditionally been the prioritization of social value creation. Defourny (2001, p7) outlines the guiding principles of the European social economy as:

- the aim of serving members or the community, rather than generating profit;
- independent management;
- a democratic decision making process;

- the primacy of people and labour over capital in the distribution of income.

In Italy, social co-operatives adapted to deliver work integration programmes; community based social enterprises in the United Kingdom delivering educational and healthcare services, and earned income strategies of the U.S., non-profit sector are regarded as examples of third sector engagement in social entrepreneurship.

Underpinning the evolving and cross sectoral nature of the phenomenon, social entrepreneurial activity in the third sector has shifted position from the strict non-profit taking origins. The non-profit sector in the United States regards for-profit enterprises as legitimate activities (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2014). This is largely achieved by either partnering with existing private commercial organisations or creating new organisations with new management and governance structures (Ryan, 1999). In the United Kingdom, a legal form for social enterprise, the Community Interest Company created in 2005, allows for limited private equity and some profit taking, albeit with an asset lock in place. The experimental use of innovative financial instruments such as social impact bonds (where investors are paid a premium for providing the finance for a project, if certain social value creation targets are met by the project) to finance social value creation are an example of harnessing the profit motive to a social end. Government initiatives such as the European Union's, Social Business Initiative, encourages and requires private sector type investment in social entrepreneurship (SBI, 2011).

Another factor influencing the Third Sector has been the growth of a pervasive pro-market environment, particularly in neo-liberal jurisdictions (Dart, 2004; Grenier, 2002). Referring to the non-profit sector in the United States, Young (2001 p4) writes, 'Terms such as entrepreneurship, marketing, and venture capital, virtually unknown in the marketplace twenty years ago, are now commonplace'. The nature of philanthropy also changed, through the adoption of business approaches, terms, and practices used in the private sector by, particularly newer, philanthropic organisations, (Reis and Clohesy, 1999; Zietlow, 2001). These changes resulted in philanthropic organisations seeking to target specific issues, looking for measurable results within specific timeframes, rather than provision of open-ended support to social causes. Donations were re-configured as investments, and philanthropic organisations sought a measurable impact from their investment. This ultimately underpins the concept of venture philanthropy, which invests in social value creation projects, seeking both a financial and social return (Frumkin, 2003). Generally, a

more business-like approach evolved in philanthropy, not only providing financial to the third sector, but non-financial support as well, in the form of business advice, mentoring and monitoring (Maclean, Harvey, and Gordon, 2013; Jenson, 2013). These changes to philanthropy have affected the evolutionary arc of social entrepreneurship in two fundamental ways. Firstly, it has obliged organisations getting support from philanthropic foundations to professionalise and quantify the social impact of their activities (Nicholls, 2009; Achleitner, Bassen, & Roder, 2009). Secondly, philanthropic organisations have been to the fore in championing the concept of the social entrepreneur, investing and supporting innovative approaches to social problems that have impact and scaling potential (Bornstein, 2005).

If the third sector has oriented in a pro-market direction, the private sector has turned decidedly pro-social. The growth of social entrepreneurship has occurred at a time when the private sector has adopted a more socially responsible approach to business (O’Broin, 2012). This is also reflected in the SBI (2011), which noted ‘the growing desire of Europeans for their work, consumption, savings and investments to be more closely attuned to and aligned with 'ethical' and 'social' principles’ (European Commission, 2011,p2).

In the private sector, the organisational format of ‘for profit’ does not preclude the creation of social value by socially committed organisations and corporations (Peredo and McClean, 2006; Austin, Stevenson, and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Auerswald, 2009). The private sector provides resources and capital (usually in the form of philanthropic grants) to a range of social entrepreneurial initiatives (Peredo and McClean, 2006). Financing social enterprise offers the private corporate sector ‘an alternative mechanism to act in socially responsible ways’ (Chell, Karatas-Ozkan, and Nicolopoulou, 2007, p50)

Social entrepreneurship is evolving in ‘paradigm of corporate accountability’ (Chell, Karatas-Ozkan and Nicolopoulou, 2007). Private sector organisations in attempting to be more socially responsible are turning to new organisational formats and reporting practices that stress, the social and environmental value creation of organisations. Concepts such as triple bottom line companies– (Profit, People, Planet) - (Elkington, 2004); and Social Purpose Business, which is a for-profit organisation having a stated social mission, are commonplace. In relation to corporate social responsibility (CSR); being perceived as socially responsible is good for business (Johnson, 2002; Doane, 2005). The term ‘Corporate Social Entrepreneurship’ is also found in the literature, being described as an advanced form of CSR

(Austen and Reficco, 2009). CSR is differentiated from social entrepreneurship due to the relative weighting given to financial over social value creation (Driver, 2012; Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Hulgard, 2010). Doane (2005) points out that structurally, the corporate organisational format is primarily about financial value creation for shareholders.

There are other developments within the private sector that are pushing the boundaries of social entrepreneurship, by advocating for profitable economic activity that creates social value. Prahalad and Hart (2002) pointed out the potential for profit and social value creation in low income population clusters and markets. Mulgan (2006, p 159), highlighted the scale of potential opportunities emerging in social value creation stating:

It is also becoming apparent to many that the key industries of the twenty-first century—health, education, childcare and eldercare, each of which will be a far larger share of GDP than information technology or cars—will require very different approaches.

Bill Gates of Microsoft, and latterly of the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, has called for “creative capitalism”, which would use a ‘hybrid engine of self-interest and concern for others’ (Gates, 2008). Companies should create businesses that focus on building products and services for the poor, and that ‘Such a system would have a twin mission: making profits and also improving lives for those who don’t fully benefit from market forces’ (Gates, 2008). For Michael Porter of Harvard Business School, the traditional financial value creation focus of businesses has been too narrow. Business cannot afford to overlook ‘the well-being of their customers, the depletion of natural resources vital to their businesses, the viability of key suppliers, or the economic distress of the communities in which they produce and sell’ (Porter & Kramer, 2011,p1). For Porter social issues are profit opportunities, there to be exploited. This is called the shared value approach, which is defined as:

Policies and operating practices that enhance the competitiveness of a company while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates. Shared value creation focuses on identifying and expanding the connections between societal and economic progress (Porter and Kramer 2011; p2).

The relative positioning of social and financial goals is a key discourse in the investigation of social entrepreneurship. Social value creation as the primary mission is superordinate to financial value creation and is a distinguishing feature of social entrepreneurship. (Dees 2001; Peredo and McClean, 2006) Private sector organisations engaging in corporate responsibility programmes are an example of where the social value delivered is subordinate and contingent on financial value creation is. Likewise, private sector

companies have a history of involvement in social services delivery, such as nursing homes, education, across a number of jurisdictions, pre-dating the current social entrepreneurial zeitgeist. The social value created in these cases is again subordinate to financial value creation and the interests of shareholders.

Summary

In the foregoing section the activities from the literature which inform the concept and literature of social entrepreneurship were outlined. These activities reflect what Defourny (2001, p2) calls ‘a new entrepreneurial spirit focused on social aims’. According to the literatures that focus is context dependent on:

- Activities of social economy organisations operating in the European Union, informed by principles of solidarity and collective action (Defourny, 2001).
- Commercial activities to ensure independence and sustainability by the non-profit sector in the United States (Ryan, 1999).
- Third sector organisations in the United Kingdom engaging in social enterprise, as an expression of a new ideal and reality (Teasdale, 2010).
- The individual entrepreneur as an agent of social change (Bornstein, 2005).

These activities have occurred against a backdrop characterized as the social sector behaving more entrepreneurially, but also the private corporate sector behaving in more socially conscious way. The field is evolving, particularly in regard to private sector conceptualisations on the future direction of the phenomenon.

Given the cross sectoral nature of social entrepreneurial activity it is also necessary to examine the role of the public sector as this also contributes to the evolving landscape. The public sector’s role is regulatory, but through policy initiatives can create an enabling environment for social entrepreneurship (GHK, 2006; SBI, 2011). The impetus for social entrepreneurship has increased in the wake of the 2008 economic crash, being perceived as a vehicle to deliver social and economic value creation (SBI 2011; Forfas, 2013). The different policy contexts influencing social entrepreneurship are now discussed.

2.3 Policy Contexts for Social Entrepreneurship

Introduction

Increased interest in social entrepreneurship and consequent policy initiatives by governments world-wide is an integral part of the evolving Social Entrepreneurial landscape. Recent reports such as *Job Creation through the Social Economy and Social Entrepreneurship* (OECD, 2013), while developments such as the establishment of The

White House office of Social Innovation and Civic Participation (SICP, 2009), and the European Union, Social Business Initiative (SBI, 2011) attest to this.

In this section the stated policy drivers for social enterprise are examined, followed by an overview of policy approaches in the United States, the European Union, and in the United Kingdom. Competing discourses on policy intent are then considered and the nature of the evolving policy landscape is explored. The relatively new requirement of impact measurement stipulated by recent policy initiatives is then presented.

2.3.1 Policy Drivers for Social Enterprise

Government policies, where they exist, have focused on social enterprise type organisations as vehicles for social and economic value creation. Labour market integration, promotion of social inclusion, contributing to economic development, and augmenting public service delivery, are the potential social and economic benefits of social enterprise (Mendell and Nogales 2008; GHK 2006).

Labour Market Integration and Social Inclusion Measures

Combatting social exclusion through labour market integration schemes is one of the principal objectives of social enterprise transnationally (OECD, 1999). The concept of social enterprise was introduced to many European countries through the activity of re-integrating the long term unemployed back into the workforce through job placement and training. The use of what were called Active Labour Market Policies to this end, were a European wide phenomenon (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008; 2012). Many of the organisations that emerged from such active labour market policies were understood retrospectively as social enterprises, and called ‘Work Integration Social Enterprises’ (O’Hara and O’Shaughnessy, 2004). These work integration policies targeted other groups, seen as potentially marginalized and socially excluded, such as those suffering from mental or physical disability, ex-offenders and substance abusers. In Italy, where the co-operative movement has been to the fore in social enterprise development, there is the legal entity of the social co-op B type, established in 1991, created specifically as work integration social enterprises, where at least 30% of the members must be from the disadvantaged target groups. (Galera and Borzaga 2009). In Ireland work integration social enterprise funded and regulated under the Community Services Programme stipulates that 70% of employees must be either long term unemployed or from other designated socially marginalized groups (Pobal, 2012). In the United States non-profit sector, work integration type organisations are also prevalent as social enterprises,

given the stipulation that a business activity must be linked to the tax exempt social goal of the non-profit organisation (Kerlin 2006).

There is no consensus on the efficacy of social enterprise to combat social exclusion. For some sources work integration social enterprises have been effective and an important innovation in addressing problems of marginalised groups (Spear 2005; EESC 2012). In contrast, a recent OECD report on social enterprise concluded:

there appears to be a wide discrepancy between the claims made in policy literatures that social enterprises empower vulnerable workers, support decent working conditions, and foster democratic participation and some empirical studies which find social economy work to be low paid and insecure'(OECD 2013, P23)

Economic Development

A key policy driver for social enterprise is that it 'can provide economic regeneration benefits in disadvantaged communities and in doing so contribute to the stability and vibrancy of local communities' (Peattie and Morley, 2007, p24).

In contrast to the performance of the mainstream economy, the resilience and growth shown by the European social economy, including social enterprises, in the recent economic recession, is cited as proof of contribution to economic stability (EESC, 2012). This resilience and growth is seen as an aid to European regional development and cohesion (SBI, 2011). In the UK social enterprise is seen to have the potential to create jobs, and improve competitiveness in the economy (DTI 2002; Harding 2004; GHK 2006); and aid community re-generation (Mawson, 2008; SEUK, 2011). In Ireland, the focus of various reports and submissions on social enterprise have focused on the potential of job creation in the sector (Forfas, 2013; SEETF, 2012)

In the United States., the non -profit sector, is already an important and integral part of the economy, generating a majority of its activity from economic activity (Sherlock and Gravelle, 2009; Kerlin, 2006), in competition with other non -profits and private companies for resources and opportunities. The non-profit sector accounts for half of U.S. colleges and hospitals, and for nearly two-thirds of all social service agencies (GHK 2006). In the United Kingdom, the policy objective of New Labour was to create a viable economic entity in social enterprises which contributed to the overall economy by job creation, by generating a majority of its income, and being capable of competing and tendering for delivery of public service contracts.

There is less of a commercial or economic focus in the European tradition of social enterprise, which is seen to add another dimension to, and thereby, strengthen the social economy (SBI, 2011; OECD, 2013). Within this understanding, social enterprise is one of a number of approaches to social value creation, where it is also equally valued for citizen initiative, participation, collective ownership (where it applies) and the societal benefits that arise from that – cohesion, shared values, norms, and the creation of social capital (Klaer-Morselli, 2012; Defourny, 2001).

Public Service Delivery

Public service delivery by social enterprises (U.K), social economy organisations (EU), and non-profit organisations (U.S.), is common across all jurisdictions. In the United States, public services such as education and health have long been delivered by the non-profit sector. In Europe, the legal entity entitled social co-operative type ‘A’, established in Italy in 1991, is an organisational form dedicated to the delivery of public services such as health, and senior care. Social enterprises are usually community based and have local knowledge (Shaw and Carter, 2007); which, is seen as an ideal vehicle where there is market or state failure to deliver (OECD 2013).

In the United Kingdom, the policy of encouraging Social Enterprises to compete against commercial organisations to deliver public services is prevalent. This process gained momentum through privatisation and New Public management policies under the Conservative governments of the 1980s and 1990s. Under New Labour the role envisaged for social enterprises included public service delivery (DTI2002; GHK 2006); and under the present UK administration the trend continues with competitive tendering encouraged on the grounds of better efficiency, quality and cost.

Having considered the stated potential social and economic benefits of social enterprise, an overview of policies supporting social entrepreneurial activities across the jurisdictions is now considered.

2.3.2 Overview of Policy Approaches

Policy in the United States

In the United States, where social enterprise is a concept firmly rooted in the earned income approach of the Non-profit sector, there have been no Federal Government policy initiatives encouraging the activity (Kerlin 2006). There is no legal entity for the social

enterprise organisation, although at state level there have been attempts to label socially progressive organisations- the B corporation, and by the creation of a type of limited liability company the 'L3C' which facilitates more efficient access to funding for Non-Profit organisations (Doeringer, 2010).

In essence, non-profit organisations (including social enterprises) are defined by their tax exempt status conferred by law 501(c) 3, and by a strict non - distribution of profits. There is no bar on non-profit organisations engaging in for profit activities through subsidiaries, as long as tax is paid on those profits and they are not distributed. To avoid tax for what is termed "unrelated business income", there must be a causal connection between the business activity and the tax exempt purpose of the non-profit organisation. Work and societal integration initiatives, fit into this category, and provide many examples of social enterprise in the sector

The non-profit sector has seen substantial growth, accounting for 5.5% of GDP and over 10% of jobs in the American economy (Bloomberg, 2012). What is notable, is that market based activities provide the majority of funding to the U.S., non-profit sector (Sherlock and Gravelle, 2009; Jenson, 2013). This growth and economic activity is largely driven by the sector itself. The growth of social enterprise within the sector is well served by private foundations, such as The Roberts Enterprise Development Fund (Redf.org) and consultancy organisations such as Social Enterprise Alliance (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2014) that support, facilitate, and champion earned income strategies for the sector (Zietlow, 2001).

At federal level the most significant policy development has been the establishment of the new government department of Office for Social Innovation and Civic Participation (SICP, 2009). Working on the premise that societal challenges cannot be solved by any one particular sector or organisation, the office has been charged with engaging the social, private and public sectors 'to find new ways to solve old problems' (SICP, 2009). It seeks to develop a "bottom-up" (i.e. community based) approach, encouraging participation and shared responsibility. It provides for public and private funding through an associated Social Innovation Fund, while concentrating on 'cross-sector models that use evidence and evaluation to drive impact and create resultant scale' (SICP, 2009) This initiative reflects the values of the Social Innovation school, stressing innovation, impact and scale, while not stressing the requirement of any particular organisational format.

This policy initiative was stimulated, not least by the promotion of social entrepreneurship/enterprise by private foundations and educational establishments. The social innovation approach to social entrepreneurship had long been championed, researched and supported by private non-governmental foundations and organisations (Ashoka, Skoll Foundation), which have a worldwide reach. The business schools of major universities (Harvard, Duke, Stanford, etc.), provide educational resources to support and research the approaches of both the Social Enterprise School U.S., and the Social Innovation School.

The field of social enterprise in the United States is largely the result of the promotion of and advocacy for social entrepreneurial activity by non-profit private non-governmental organisations (Kerlin 2006). This is reflective of the political economy of the United States, where government retrenchment gave impetus to the increased commercialisation of the non-profit sector, which underpins the prevailing concept of social enterprise in that jurisdiction (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2010). The advent of the office for Social Innovation and Civic Participation in 2009 recognises the value of cross sectoral approaches to social problem solving.

Policy in the European Union (Focus on Social Economy)

In contrast to the United States, the European landscape of social entrepreneurship and enterprise sees greater government involvement, across various nation states (Peattie and Morley 2007). Some jurisdictions such, as Italy and the United Kingdom have particularly embraced the concept of social enterprise, actively creating an enabling environment through policies and legislation for their particular vision for the sector. In other jurisdictions such as in Germany, social enterprise remains relatively underdeveloped. (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008)

Social enterprise in its European context is seen as another component or subset of the social economy, enhancing and strengthening the sector, but not replacing it (EESC 2012). The social economy can be defined as ‘that part of the economy, between the private and public sectors, which engages in economic activity to meet social objectives’ (Clarke and Eustace, 2009, p8). The European social economy provides employment to 14.5 million people, about 6.5% of the working population (EESC 2012). The particular organisational

form adopted by countries, is indicative of particular characteristics of each states political economy:

Social enterprises play different roles in different European countries. The definition, purpose and responsibility of social enterprises are intrinsically linked to the economic, political and judiciary traditions of each state' (OECD 2010.P2)

In countries such as Italy, Spain, where co-operative movements were historically and culturally prevalent, these organisations have been adapted to deliver both work integration and social care type services (Galera and Borzaga, 2009). In Italy, the success of co-operative organisations, adapted and promoted as social enterprises, has seen significant growth in their number since legal recognition in 1991. There were 7300 of these social cooperatives, employing 244,000 workers, registered by 2005 (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008). This is in contrast to other countries such as Germany and Ireland, where the scope of social enterprise is limited to work integration for disadvantaged groups which are more welfare than enterprise oriented (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008). An ideal type of social enterprise is delineated by EMES (Emergence des entreprises sociales en Europe), the European Union funded research network, established in 1996 to study the emergence of social enterprise in its European context. EMES uses both economic and social criteria to define the social enterprise concept. The social criteria used emphasises collectivist, democratic governance, explicit aim to benefit the community and limited profit distribution while the economic criteria referenced are autonomy, continuous economic activity and attendant risk (Defourny and Nyssens 2012).

The most significant supranational policy development on the European landscape is the EU Social Business Initiative 2011(SBI 2011). The initiative depicts social enterprise as:

An operator in the social economy whose main objective is to have a social impact rather than make a profit for their owners or shareholders. It operates by providing goods and services for the market in an entrepreneurial and innovative fashion and uses its profits primarily to achieve social objectives. It is managed in an open and responsible manner and, in particular, involves employees, consumers and stakeholders affected by its commercial activities" (Communication from the Commission, 2011/682 final. P3)

The SBI (2011) sees social business (the general term it uses for innovative businesses with a primarily social mission, including social enterprises) contributing to its Europe 2020 strategy of promoting growth, employment and competitiveness, and combatting poverty while creating a more inclusive society. The initiative includes the aim to

develop an enabling environment for social enterprise across Europe, by addressing issues of recognition, funding and evaluation. The initiative also states that the EU Commission:

has placed the social economy and social innovation at the heart of its concerns, in terms of both territorial cohesion and the search for new solutions to societal problems (Communication from the Commission, 2011/682 final. P2).

In summary, the EU strategy is to launch €90m of new funding (European Social Entrepreneurship Funds) for social enterprises along with the development of private investment funds to encourage growth. Social enterprise is also recognised as an investment priority for EU structural funds, which have a budget of €375bn in the period 2014-2020. To stimulate opportunity for the sector the strategy seeks to revise public procurement procedures to ensure greater consideration of social and environmental criteria. Issues of recognition and evaluation are also addressed by the strategy which includes provisions on impact measurement to assess the effectiveness of social enterprise, and mapping exercises to quantify the levels of activity.

In relation to new financing measures, the promotion of social enterprise may be prioritised in a nation's share of structural funding 2014-2020, but is a matter for each nation state to negotiate, and which will require individual national strategies. In that regard, outcomes will be influenced by 'the intention of member states to promote the different degrees to which an undertaking may prove to be social' (Klaer-Morselli, 2012, p111). This in turn will influence the range and type of organisations accessing the European Social Entrepreneurship Funds. Social enterprise across the EU is characterised by national differences and emphases (GHK 2006). This trend is set to continue under the SBI (2011).

While the thrust of Social Business Initiative in relation to social enterprise is the development of a more 'social' economy as a necessary counterbalance to problems of globalisation and prolonged economic recession, the policy environment for social enterprise in the United Kingdom has pursued a stronger economic role for third sector organisations. The UK approach to Social Enterprise, initiated under New Labour government (1997-2010), was to use social enterprise as a policy instrument to tackle economic regeneration, problems of social cohesion and delivery of public services. This policy approach created a distinct model of social enterprise, characterised by enabling and supporting third sector organisations to operate in a business-like fashion (GHK, 2006).

Social Enterprise Policy in the United Kingdom (Policy driven)

In the United Kingdom, the 1980's saw a neo-liberal agenda of a decentralizing contracting government promoting marketisation and privatisation of public utilities and housing stock. In opposition the Labour party, while articulating the need for local regeneration, community development, and the tackling of issues such as poverty, social alienation, long term unemployment and welfare dependency, also sought to distance itself from a commitment to the historic welfare state. New Labour wanted to represent a new type of social democracy where participation, obligation and individual responsibility were to replace the entitlement culture associated with the old Welfare state (Amin, 2005). This re-positioning became known as the "Third Way". It sought to facilitate individual and collective responsibility, self – help, and participation within society. For New Labour, social enterprise could embody these new ideals. For Teasdale (2010, p 4) social enterprises, having both economic and social goals may be construed as an 'organisational exemplar of the Third Way'.

Following election to power in 1997, New Labour set out to actively create an institutional support structure for social enterprise, promoting and focusing on creating a supportive culture, with adequate access to training and finance, interfacing with a public sector willing to work with social enterprises. In 2001 the Social Enterprise unit (SEU) was set up within the UK Government Department of Trade and Industry (DTI). The DTI was charged with co-ordinating business support and training for social enterprises.

In the policy document, *Social Enterprise: A Strategy for Success* (2002), the UK government defined Social Enterprise as:

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 (DTI 2002,p7) .

Teasdale (2010) argues the definition was kept deliberately broad to include many types of third sector organisation. In a follow up strategy review, *Social Enterprise Action Plan: Scaling New Heights* (2006) the government stressed the commercial nature of social entrepreneurial activity:

Social enterprises are businesses motivated by the pursuit of social and environmental objectives, which they must be commercially successful to achieve. The role of government is not to create social enterprises, but to create an environment that allows them to succeed (DTI, 2006, p20).

The emphasis on social enterprise as a business is a distinguishing feature of the UK model. A Department of Trade and Industry funded review, GHK(2006, p 4) stated: ‘The UK policy emphasis on social enterprise as a policy instrument of economic development extends the understanding of the economic outcomes expected of the sector, compared to other countries’.

Although the government’s definition did not stipulate qualifying levels of economic activity, the government funded umbrella representative body, Social Enterprise Coalition (SEC), did. A social enterprise should have at least 50 % of its income from market sources, or at least 25%, if in start-up situation. SEC also highlighted what was best practice for social enterprise which should ‘combine a public service ethos with the innovation and efficiency of a commercial business’ (cited by Li & Wong, 2007, p 7) This emphasis on Social Enterprise as a sustainable, accountable, business with a social purpose, differentiates the UK model on the European landscape.

In the social enterprise landscape post New Labour, the Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition has put forward a programme called Big Society. Under this initiative, social enterprises and other third sector type organisations (autonomous, voluntary/community/non-profit) organisations, are being encouraged to compete in the marketisation of public services. The Coalition government had a target to devolve up to 25 % of public services to private and voluntary organisations. To that end, an enablement culture continues with the establishment of Big Society Capital - encouraging investments made for social and financial return, thereby helping to finance organisations that are engaged in social value delivery (Big Society Capital, 2015). A further initiative which is perceived as potentially beneficial to social enterprise is the Social Value Act 2012 (SEUK, 2012). This legislation requires that consideration is given to social and environmental factors as well as economic criteria in the public procurement process for public service contracts

Following the overview of policy approaches, discourses on those approaches, and the direction of policy as informed by recent initiatives is now considered.

2.3.3 Policy discourse and direction

There are pragmatic reasons why governments endorse social entrepreneurship. From a fiscal standpoint:

Working with social enterprises and promoting their development can result in short and long-term gains for public budgets through reduced public expenditures and increased tax revenues compared with other methods of addressing social needs (OECD/EU, 2013, p3).

Of further benefit to governments, is that social entrepreneurship results in increased leveraging of private financial resources into addressing social problems (Wolk 2007). Furthermore, by typically involving a cross sectoral, collaborative approach, social entrepreneurship implies a sharing of responsibility and risk for outcomes, while encouraging the active involvement and participation of different actors in the solving of social problems (SICP, 2009; Hulgard, 2010).

Social entrepreneurship is a fluid concept capable of different interpretations (Teasdale, 2010). Concerning the meaning and intent that governments place on social entrepreneurship, a primary discourse is whether it may be interpreted as a reflection of the increased marketisation of public services, or a realignment of societal sectors in which the value of solidarity and collective action is recognised (Hulgard, 2010). The idea of social entrepreneurship as a tool, in neo-liberal jurisdictions, to facilitate increased marketisation of public services and disengagement by the state, is found in Grenier (2002); Dart (2004); and O’Broin (2012). For Dart (2004) social enterprise in the U.S non- profit sector is linked with ‘neo-conservative, pro-business and pro-market political and ideological values that have become central to many OECD countries’ (p411). Grenier (2002) argues that social entrepreneurship in the U.K., has emerged with an emphasis on the individual, on achieving results, and adopting private sector approaches, values that reflected the prevailing political and social trends at the time, and act ultimately as a legitimizing factor. Dart (2004) proposes that in the neo-liberal jurisdictions of both the United Kingdom and the United States, the prevailing pro-market, business ethos resulted in third sector organisations that were grant dependent, being viewed as less legitimate than organisations ‘that followed a more business-like model framed as entrepreneurial generating income’(p419).

The policy of social enterprises being encouraged, enabled and expected to deliver public services are a feature of the discourse on social enterprise in the United Kingdom (McMillan, 2009; Di Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009). There are concerns for third sector organisations encouraged to get involved in public service delivery (Amin 2004, Baines, Bull and Woolrych, 2009; Di Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009). Baines, Bull and Woolrych (2009), point out that competing to deliver services on behalf of the state, can

compromise third sector values of community, trust and togetherness by an over emphasis on a business-like approach. This concurs with Eikenberry and Kluver (2004), who point to a dilution of the principles underpinning the non-profit sector in the United States, caused by the adoption and values of the market-place approach. There are considerable challenges to ethos and identity involved in transitioning to market based activities for previously non-profit organisations (Dees 1998; Tracey and Philips 2007).

In contrast, other sources see social entrepreneurship not in terms of state disengagement, but rather as part of a re-alignment of state and civil society (Mendell and Nogales, 2008; Klaer-Morselli, 2012). For Mendel and Nogales (2008), the failure of the neo-liberal model to address structural problems of growing inequality and social exclusion, prompted governments to look at the concept of social enterprise as an approach to solving social problems. This is a realignment of societal sectors which recognises the values of solidarity and collective action (Hulgard, 2010). Social economy based social enterprises, as new models of economic and social solidarity are reflective of this re-alignment (Mendell and Nogales, 2008; O’Broin, 2012). This approach advocates the potential of social economy social enterprises as opposed to the argument that social entrepreneurship is ultimately about downplaying the role of political action and responsibility through the marketisation of social services (Grenier, 2002)

Recent policy initiatives (SICP, 2009; SBI, 2011) indicate how governments are currently positioning social entrepreneurial activity, bringing themes of the necessity for social innovation, cross sectoral collaboration, and social responsibility into the remit of all sectors.

The focus of the SICP (2009) is the promotion of social innovation which ‘is focused on finding new ways to solve old problems and doing so in the public interest’. The SICP (2009) emphasises the need for innovative solutions to social problems using community based and cross sectoral approaches, enabled by voluntary effort and a combination of public and private funding. The cross sectoral approach to solving social problems was referenced by Senator Barack Obama in 2008 saying: ‘The challenges we face today, from saving our planet to ending poverty, are simply too big for government to solve alone’. (Whitehouse.gov, 2009).

The SBI (2011) is part of a range of E.U., initiatives (including social innovation, and corporate social responsibility) that seeks to encourage ‘all actors working for a social

inclusive economy' (European Commission, 2011, p 1). The European policy focus is on the creation of a more open, competitive and more socially responsible environment for conducting business; in which social enterprise in the social economy is a recognised as an element.

These initiatives have added to the jumble of concept, sector and practice that is social entrepreneurship. They have not supplanted the activities originally informing the concept of social entrepreneurship explored in section 2.2. The SICP (2009) encourages community led social innovation in a landscape where the earned income approach of the U.S., non-profit sector and the concept of the individual social entrepreneur, as sought out by philanthropic foundations and conceptualised by American academia, co-exist. Similarly, the SBI (2011) is promoting a more social approach to economic activity in general, which recognises the contribution that social economy social enterprise, amongst others, can make to that end.

These initiatives have not necessarily brought clarity to the field of social entrepreneurship. Regarding the SBI (2011) the research network EMES, responsible for much of the academic output on social enterprise in the EU, submitted that using the term 'social business' can be interpreted 'as any type of business present in the market with a social purpose' and that 'the use of the expression 'social business' instead of that of 'social enterprise' entails a risk of overlooking organisations devoted to the delivery of welfare services in an entrepreneurial way' (EMES, 2011, p3). Neither does the SBI (2011) reference the requirement for a collective type organisation with democratic governance, which was posited by EMES as representative of an ideal type of social enterprise on the European landscape (Defourny and Nyssens 2012).

What these initiatives have done is to officially recognise and potentially resource socially entrepreneurial activity, while not delimiting the field. Resourcing this activity involves combinations of public and private funding as in the Social Innovation Fund (SICP, 2009), and Social Entrepreneurship Funds (SBI, 2011). As a consequence, these initiatives have a focus on the measurement of outcomes for social entrepreneurial activity which has led to a requirement to measure the impact of such activities.

2.3.4 Requirement to measure impact

In a further example of sectoral blurring, the relatively more recent requirement for metrics on performance and impact is a feature of the policy landscape of social entrepreneurship

Nicholls (2009) points out that the traditionally third sector operated on trust; with a less demanding reporting requirement than that applied to the private sector, provided an organisation's mission and organisational format (i.e. non-profit distributing, charitable status) were aligned. There was also the belief that much social value creation was 'beyond quantification' and because of a lack of numeracy associated with the sector, attempts to measure and quantify social value creation 'has traditionally been challenged as inappropriate, inaccurate, and invalid' (Emerson, 2003, p40).

Those views have changed and now measurement of social impact is deemed necessary for the growth and legitimacy of the social entrepreneurial sector (SBI 2011). Access to European Social Entrepreneurship Funds, is predicated on measurable social impact (GECES 2013). Social impact measurement gives investors and policy makers, information on effective and efficient use of resources to achieve results (Achleitner, Basserand and Roder, 2009; GECES 2013). This emphasis on performance metrics reflects the embrace of a business mind-set by governments (Ryan 1999). The adoption of business metrics by philanthropic organisations was also a factor. In reference to the United States, Clark *et al.*, (2004, p2) noted the measurement of impact had arisen as a result of the 'lines between grant making and investing have begun to blur', with the emergence of a new type of philanthropy focusing on investment and social impact (Reis, 1999; Frumkin, 2003; Nicholls, 2009).

Measurement of social impact focuses on the results of social interventions. It evaluates the inputs involved in the production of a social good (Example: training opportunities for long-term unemployed), the resultant outputs (i.e. the number of clients who availed of the training) and the outcome of the intervention (i.e. number of clients finding employment due to the training). The social impact is 'the portion of the total outcome that happened as a result of the activity' (Clark *et al.*, 2004, p7)

An emphasis on social impact reporting in social entrepreneurship takes place against a backdrop of general societal requirement which holds that 'For a sustainable world a more

holistic perspective considering social, environmental and economic consequences must come to the fore' (GECES, 2013, 3.1). The recognition of 'the entrepreneurial' becoming 'more social' was noted in section 2.2.5, with private sector organisations increasingly interested in assessment of their social and environmental impact, as well as financial performance (Emerson 2003). There are a number of reporting practices, which attempt to combine social and financial value creation, already extant in the field. Management tools used in the non-profit sectors such as 'balanced scorecard' and double bottom line evaluations are examples of this (Emerson, 2003).

Yet, demonstrating the impact of social entrepreneurship, which has a primary aim of social value creation, is not an easy or straightforward task (Ashoka, 2006; Dees, 2007). Social entrepreneurship encompasses a broad range of heterogeneous activity, for which there is no standardised measurement system available (Nicholls 2009; Prizeman and Crossan, 2011). There are inherent difficulties in standardising impact measurement given the variety of social outcomes sought; that quantitative indicators do not capture the detail of social value creation; and the imperative that measurement must be comparable, relevant, and appropriate (GECES, 2013). The Social Return on Investment approach attempts to monetise the outcomes of social entrepreneurial activity. Developed by the philanthropic organisation Roberts Enterprise Development Fund (Redf.org) to measure the effectiveness of training and employment programmes, it did so by calculating the savings to society which accrued from its clients having employment, and expressing the outcome as a return on investment ratio. This approach however cannot capture the 'more nuanced and contingent social and environmental impacts and outcomes' (Nicholls, 2009 p756). As Dees (2007, p29) points out 'How and when do we know that someone has been moved out of poverty in a sustainable way or that a strategy will slow global warming?'

In practice, given the lack of a general measurement system, the field of social impact reporting continues to evolve, with new proposals for enhanced or alternative models being a feature of the literature (Nicholls 2009; Achleitner, Bassen and Roder, 2009; Parenson, 2011). There is a recognition that given the breadth and scope of social value creation, that the reporting will be somewhat bespoke and will involve social entrepreneurs engaging in a process of identifying what best captures the impact of their activities (GECES 2013). For Nicholls (2009) social impact measurement is an analytical tool with which social impact can be better understood by both practitioners and policymakers.

The measurement of the effectiveness of social entrepreneurial activity is a key focus of policy in this area. The SBI (2011) has set up an expert group on impact measurement (GECES), to advise on formulating a European methodology of impact measurement. In the United Kingdom., which has highly developed institutional settings for social entrepreneurship (Nicholls, 2006; 2009); the Social Value act came in to law in 2013. It requires public bodies in England and Wales ‘to consider how the services they commission and procure might improve the economic, social and environmental well-being of the area’ (SEUK, 2012, p2). The overall stated focus is on getting value from public spending. The act envisages cross sectoral consultation to establish what is of social value, which is intended to inform procurement processes. The SBI (2011) recognises the need for social and environmental impact to inform public procurement policies in the EU, while the SICP (2009) also has a focus on evaluation and impact.

Summary

Government interest in social entrepreneurship has been indicated by recent policy initiatives. Potential social and economic benefits, as well as a sharing of responsibility, are drivers for this interest by governments. There is no uniformity in policy approaches across various jurisdictions. The SBI (2011) has focused on the creation of an enabling environment for innovative enterprises that have primarily a social mission, including social enterprises in member states, which are ultimately seen as a means of strengthening the social economy. The facilitation of new approaches and cross sector collaborations to address social problems is the focus of the Office for Social Innovation and Civic Participation established in the United States in 2009. In the United Kingdom, the concept of social enterprise as a business entity, initiated by New Labour in 1997 continued under the Conservative/Liberal Democratic coalition (2010-2015). A discourse on the true intent behind government’s promotion of social entrepreneurship is found in the literature. This discourse explores whether governments are interested in the re-alignment of society to enable better ways of doing things, or alternatively whether governments are ultimately interested in divesting responsibility for social service provision.

Recent policy initiatives have contributed to the evolving field, valuing social value creation activities and emphasising a need for cross sectoral approaches to problem solving. Impact measurement has been identified by governments as a key legitimising factor for establishing the value of social entrepreneurship, and its future growth.

2.4 Distinguishing Social Entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship is the creation of social value through the use of the entrepreneurial model (Schaeffer and Dunn, 2008, p1964).

Given the broad range of activities informing the social entrepreneurial concept, it is necessary to distinguish the essential common characteristics of social entrepreneurship. For the purposes of this research it is necessary to refine social entrepreneurship, and by extension the social entrepreneur.

The literature presents a number of themes which distinguish social entrepreneurship from other types of entrepreneurship and from other types of social value creation (Lepoutre *et al.*, 2013; Defourny and Nyssens 2008; Hulgard, 2010). Exploring these themes serve to distinguish social entrepreneurship, but also highlight different emphases and understandings by both practitioners and researchers. Lepourte *et al.*,(2013, p5) state ‘In particular, three selection criteria seem to stand out from extant literature: the predominance of a social mission, the importance of innovation, and the role of earned income’.

2.4.1 Primacy of social mission

The most common and oft quoted definition of what the social entrepreneur does is that formulated by (Dees, 2001). For Dees, 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 (P4).

In doing so, Dees presents an ideal, which references classical and contemporary theorists on entrepreneurship. The social entrepreneur as one who creates value (Say), as an agent of change and innovation (Schumpeter), pursuing opportunity (Drucker), and exhibiting resourcefulness (Stevenson), are integral to the formulation. While Dees recognises that this ideal formulation will be reflected to different degrees by different actors, it positions the ideal of the social entrepreneur within mainstream entrepreneurship.

A mainstream entrepreneurial approach encompasses resourceful, risk-taking, innovative, and opportunity seeking behaviour to create 'higher' forms of economic value. The social entrepreneur may be equally innovative, in exploiting both opportunities and resources to create value (Nicholls 2006; Mair and Marti, 2006). The value creation goal, in this case however, is primarily social, and not a financial one. Economic value creation by commercial entrepreneurship also produces social value, as a by-product (Auerswald, 2009; Chell, 2007). However, the primary difference between commercial and social entrepreneurship is the prioritisation of social over economic value creation in social entrepreneurial activity (Mair and Marti, 2006). Social entrepreneurs aspire to create social value (Peredo and McLean, 2006).

Echoing the central part played by opportunity recognition in entrepreneurship; the process of social entrepreneurship is the recognition of a potential opportunity for social value creation (Guclu, Dees and Anderson, 2002). The social entrepreneur is 'sensitive' to a particular category of opportunity (Mair and Noboa, 2003). These opportunities may be characterised generally as social needs of people and communities that are unmet, usually resulting from state or market failure (Seelos and Mair, 2005; Leadbeater, 2007; Guclu, Dees and Anderson, 2002; Perrini and Vurro, 2006; DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008). For Mair and Marti (2006, p 38), the process of social entrepreneurship seeks, 'to explore and exploit opportunities to create social value by stimulating social change or meeting social needs'.

Given the myriad activities that constitute social value creation, it is reasonable to introduce the notion of scale into the conception. The theme of primacy of social value creation is a common goal for social entrepreneurial activity. Realistically, the social value created is differentiated by the impact it has on a given community. Brock and Steiner (2009, p 7), in a study of education for social entrepreneurship state 'Teaching scale ensures students understand the difference between a small community enterprise and a social entrepreneurial organisation that makes long term impact on society'. The idea of a scale of social value creation, recognises the reality of a broad range of socially entrepreneurial activity, posits the primacy of that activity as a unifying theme, but also recognises that different levels of social value creation are achieved.

The primacy of the social value creation goal, not only distinguishes social from commercial entrepreneurship, but also differentiates it from other social value creation activities. Accordingly, corporate social responsibility activities where the social value

creation is not the primary aim of the organisation, would not be, on this understanding, social entrepreneurship (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). Similarly, hybrid forms of organisations such as Social Purpose business, where social value creation is dependent on financial value creation, do not give primacy to social value creation. It is the primacy of the social value creation goal which is the key distinguishing feature of social entrepreneurship (Dees, 2001; Mair and Marti, 2006; Certo and Miller, 2008; Peredo and McLean, 2006; Thompson, 2002).

However, the literature also recognises the requirement to sustain the social value creation activities of social entrepreneurs, which involves financial value creation as well (Seelos and Mair, 2005; Mair and Marti, 2006). The role of generating income to sustain the social value creation activity is now examined.

2.4.2 Earned income/Sustainability

The formulation on social entrepreneurship by Dees (2001, p4) states that the social entrepreneur acts by ‘Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value)’. To ‘create’ and ‘sustain’ social value implies a solution, not a once off act of social value creation, and that while “private” value may be created, it is not the driving force (Peredo and McClean, 2006; Leadbeater, 2007)

In addressing unmet social needs it is often very difficult to capture economic value, simply because the clients served cannot afford to pay (Mair and Marti, 2006; Seelos & Mair, 2005). Wolk (2007) describes potential situations for social entrepreneurship, where no market, a very limited market, or a low profit market exists for a particular product or service. Accordingly, the entrepreneurial task involves leveraging financial resources. The social entrepreneur in these cases looks to leverage government subsidy or ‘patient capital’ (another term for social venture capital) that may be available from philanthropic sources to initiate the venture, but will work towards an income generation strategy to underpin sustainability. Earned revenue from economic activities is a distinguishing theme for the social enterprise schools (Boschee and McClurg, 2003; Defourny and Nyssens, 2012; GHK, 2006). Various studies attempting to measure social entrepreneurial activity use levels of earned income as an indicator for social entrepreneurial activity (Lepoutre *et al.*, 2013; Prizeman and Crossan, 2011).

While Dees (2001) does not focus on earned income as a prerequisite for social entrepreneurship, others interpret the requirement to sustain social value creation as placing a

distinct onus on financial value creation. In the United States non-profit sector, social entrepreneurship is ‘The art of simultaneously pursuing both a financial and a social return on investment’ (Boschee, 2014). Within this view, the social entrepreneur seeks to ensure financial viability, to underpin creation and delivery of social value (Boschee and McClurg 2003). This interpretation of social entrepreneurial behaviour has contributed to an overt commerciality associated with the non-profit sector in the United States, as opposed to other third sectors (Sherlock and Gravelle, 2009).

In practice this has led to organisations engaging in a range of activities, and partnerships with corporations, not necessarily linked to their social value creation mission, to ensure an income flow. This “earned income” approach is perceived as a strategic response by the non-profit sector in the United States to an environment, historically characterized by government economic retrenchment, increased competition for resources, and the entry of for-profit entities into markets traditionally served by non-profit organisations (Ryan 1999; Kerlin, 2006).

In a study of not-for-profit (NFP) organisations in Australia, Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, (2006) hold that social entrepreneurship should be conceptualised and understood in the context of the environment within which it operates. That context is a dynamic one, dealing with the effects of globalisation, economic retrenchment, government policy, and increasing competition for funding. The institutional theory approach used by both Grenier (2002) for the US non-profit sector and Dart (2004) for the UK’s social enterprise sector, explains the emphasis on the earned income within the sectors, as the result of the pro-market hegemony of neo-liberal jurisdictions.

The earned income approach represents a ‘shift towards managerial competencies and market-based attitudes of non -profits in order to improve their operational efficiency and effectiveness’ (Perrini and Vurro, 2006, p62). According to Grenier (2002, p6/7), the initial formulation of social entrepreneurship by Dees (2001), represents the ‘metaphorical adoption of entrepreneurship’ by the use of an entrepreneurial “drive” or particular approach to solving social problems, whereas the entrepreneurship associated with the earned income generation approach ‘is the identification of entrepreneurship with a more literal understanding of business as being about making a profit’.

The focus on earned income in the delivery of social mission is a key discourse in the literature, with a number of authors deeming the pursuit of earned income associated with the

U.S., Non-Profit sector to be a limited or “narrow” form of social entrepreneurship (Austin, Stevenson, and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Dees 2003), as opposed to a “broader” form represented by the creativity and innovativeness associated with the classical entrepreneurial process (Johnson, 2002; Grenier, 2002; Mair and Marti, 2006). Dees (2003) emphasises that social entrepreneurship is about innovation and impact, not income. He contrasts the position of social entrepreneurs not engaged in market activities, who are adept at fundraising for their ventures, as opposed to the overt commerciality of the non-profit sector in the United States. For Dees, ‘earned income is only a means to a social end, and it is not always the best means’ (Dees, 2003, p1). There is less of a focus on earned income, and more of a focus on sustainability, in the Social Innovation approach to social entrepreneurship

Yet, in reality, sustainability is linked to income and market orientation, not only in the non-profit sector of the United States, but across the social entrepreneurial spectrum of activity. Leadbeater (2007:p3) states ‘Long-term solutions have to be self-sustaining and in a market economy that usually means finding a way to make money from them so producers can sustain themselves’.

The pursuit of income to sustain social mission, differentiates social entrepreneurial organisations from other Third Sector organisations, which are wholly dependent on public funding. Generating income is a key approach to sustaining the social value creation activity (Mair and Marti, 2006). However, for the social innovation school, generating income by economic activity is not the focus of social entrepreneurial activity (Dees, 2001; Martin and Osberg, 2007). In contrast, the social enterprise schools, representative of a more entrepreneurial mind-set in the Third sector, see economic activity as essential for autonomy and sustainability (Defourny, 2001). Social enterprise creates social value through economic activity, such as work integration organisations delivering social services. The European Research Network EMES, formed to investigate the emergence of social enterprise in Europe, emphasise the requirement of continuous economic activity, and paid employees as criteria for social enterprise (Defourny and Nyssens, 2012). In the United Kingdom, official recognition as a social enterprise is dependent on levels of earned income (Social Enterprise Mark, 2015).

The role of earned income points to an internal distinction within social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurship seeks to sustain the social value it creates. To that end, generating income is important, particularly where social and economic value creation

are integrated, as in social enterprise. However income generation is not the principal reason for engagement.

The issue of earned income creates distinctions on the social entrepreneurial spectrum. The literature also points to distinctions based on the general entrepreneurial requirement of innovation, which is now considered.

2.4.3 Innovation

Social entrepreneurship is about innovative methods to create social value (Mair and Marti 2006; Nicholls 2006; Hulgard, 2010). Social economy based social enterprises are used in innovative cross sectoral approaches to address unmet social needs and market failures (Defourny, 2001; Mendell and Nogales, 2008; Leadbeater, 2007). While being innovative is a key behavioural aspect of an entrepreneurial approach (Shaw and Carter, 2007; Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, 2006; Helm and Andersson, 2010), the theme of innovation as applied to social entrepreneurship needs clarification.

Social entrepreneurship is inherently innovative, in that it blends conventionally paradoxical concepts of the social and entrepreneurial to address social problems (Woods and Roberts 2005). Social entrepreneurship is seen as an innovative response to socio-economic trends (Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, 2006). For Ryan (1999), activities informing the U.S. school of social enterprise are an innovative response to operating pressures in the non-profit sector. This ‘earned income’ approach of U.S, non-profit sector is regarded a ‘narrow ‘ form of social entrepreneurship by some sources, in that the focus is on income generation as opposed to the innovativeness and creativity of the classic entrepreneur depicted by Schumpeter (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Hulgard 2010). The conceptualisation, emanating from the United States non-profit sector that a social entrepreneur is any person running a social enterprise in any sector (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2014), does not stress social innovation as a requirement.

Innovation is ‘the application of new ideas or the re-application of old ideas in new ways, to devise better solutions to our needs’ (Leadbeater, 2007, p2). Innovation becomes social innovation when this approach is taken to addressing social issues; such as access to education, health, or access to economic opportunity for marginalized groups. Social innovation refers to innovative activities and services that are motivated by the goal of meeting a social need and are delivered by organisations whose primary purposes are social

(Mulgan, 2006). Social innovation may produce changes in employment status, access to information, social cohesion, economic and community development (Perrini and Vurro, 2006). In practice, trying to effect these changes reflects what social entrepreneurs, social enterprises and many non-profit organisations attempt to do. Thus innovation is a distinguishing feature of social entrepreneurship, and depicts the social entrepreneur as an agent of change using innovative approaches to solve social issues (Dees, 2001; Grenier, 2002; Mair and Marti, 2006).

Yet, there is a discourse within the literature, which seeks to differentiate different levels of social entrepreneurship on the grounds of innovation. For Wolk (2007, p25), to qualify as social entrepreneurship, initiatives must ‘at least have the potential for transformative social innovation on a local, national, or global scale’. Transformative change is the essence of social entrepreneurship for many authors (Martin and Osberg, 2007; Woods and Roberts, 2005). Martin and Osberg (2007) distinguish between solving social problems, social service provision and what they consider to be the real outcome of social entrepreneurship; the creation of a new social order.

A typology of social entrepreneurs developed by Zahra *et al.*, (2009) introduces the concept of different types of social entrepreneur, depending on scale and impact on social systems. The typology describes the social entrepreneur working at a local level as a ‘Social Bricoleur’, whose goal is to address a social inequity. Use of local knowledge, resources and networks typifies this approach. Leadbeater (1997, p2) describes how the social entrepreneur engaging in bricolage proceeds: ‘They take under-utilised and often discarded resources – people and buildings – and re-energise them by finding new ways to use them to satisfy unmet and often unrecognised needs. The typology contrasts the bricoleur providing small scale solutions to local problems with ‘Social Constructionist’, on the grounds of scale. Social Constructionist, again seek to redress social inequalities, but do so on a broader scale. The constructionist creates ‘alternative structures to provide goods and services that governments, agencies, and businesses cannot’ (Zahra *et al.*, 2009, p525) A third type, the ‘Social Engineer’ differs from the other two because they identify ‘systemic problems within the social systems and structures and address them by bringing about revolutionary change. The mission is not necessarily to fix social problems, but to spearhead social change (Zahra *et al.*, 2009, p 526). Noted management scholar Frances Westley concurs, holding that social entrepreneurship, while creating a new product or process which serves an existing market,

doesn't necessarily address the system dynamics that created the problem in the first place (Weber, 2012).

Introducing the idea of different degrees of social entrepreneurial activity makes for more meaningful comparison. (Masseti, 2008). Innovation in social entrepreneurship, involves new approaches and new combinations of resources to address social deficits at local, national and international levels. This incorporates a large range of activity and outcomes, which are innovative to different degrees.

The idea of different levels or degrees of social entrepreneurial activity and resultant typologies, placing the social entrepreneur as an agent of disruptive change at its apex, focuses the concept on the individual entrepreneur (Martin and Osberg, 2007; Zahra *et al.*, 2009) In section 2.2, the focus on the individual social entrepreneur as an agent of change, emanating from the Social Innovation School was noted. This was contrasted with the collective focus of European social enterprise. The literature recognises that social entrepreneurial activity can have an individual group, community or collective dimension

Light (2006,p50) argued for an inclusive approach to social entrepreneurship depicting the social entrepreneur as 'an individual, group, network, organisation, or alliance of organisations that seeks sustainable, large-scale change through pattern-breaking ideas' Jeff Skoll founder of the eponymous Skoll Foundation, which champions the concept of social entrepreneurship concurs, in that the focus on the individual is 'effectively the tip of the socially entrepreneurial iceberg,' with most social entrepreneurship the product of groups or networks (cited in Bacq and Janssen, 2011, p382). Light (2009) revised his earlier inclusive position to focus more on individual entrepreneurs, but still maintained that teams, networks and communities can engage successfully with social entrepreneurship. Thompson (2002) in a study of community based social entrepreneurs in the United Kingdom, presents a framework for the social entrepreneurial process as recognising a unmet need (Envisioning), deciding to do something about this (Engaging), gathering the resources for the solution (Enabling), and leading the project (Enacting). He points out that there is nothing to prevent the roles that this framework implies being split or shared, in that the opportunity spotter and the project leader may be different people. Light (2009) also maintains social entrepreneurship is not exclusively about founding new organisations and that established organisations can nurture and encourage the activity. This view is supported by other sources

which hold that older organisations can be shaped by new internal dynamics which can inform socially entrepreneurial activity (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008; Luke and Chu, 2013).

Summary

The pre-eminence of social value creation distinguishes social entrepreneurship from conventional entrepreneurship and activities such as corporate social responsibility. The social entrepreneur seeks opportunity to create social value. The social entrepreneur sustains that social value creation through strategies to generate income. There is a discourse in the literature on the role of earned income in the social entrepreneurial process. The pursuit of sustainability, distinguishes social entrepreneurial organisations from charities and other third sector organisations wholly dependent on grants and philanthropy. The concept of innovation is inherently linked with entrepreneurship and is displayed to different degrees by both organisations and individuals. Socially entrepreneurial activity may be engaged in by individuals, groups and communities.

2.5 Educating the Social Entrepreneur

Introduction

In previous sections the activities, concept and policy directions informing social entrepreneurship were examined. In this section the training and educational requirements for social entrepreneurial activity are explored. The training needs of social entrepreneurs are informed by the conceptualisation of what role the individual plays in the process of social entrepreneurship. The management of associated organisational types, which combine social and financial value creation, also informs the training. Current approaches in the literature to the education and training of social entrepreneurs are also examined.

The contexts of the training and education of social entrepreneurs, specifically who requires the training and why, is initially examined. Then consideration is given to what education and training requirements are needed for social entrepreneurial activity. The delivery of training, specifically by whom and how, is then considered.

2.5.1 Context of Training for Social entrepreneurship

The desire for social entrepreneurship to fix large -scale problems in our world such as poverty, water quality, universal education, and gender inequalities has led to the enthusiastic endorsement and facilitation of social entrepreneurship by governments,

businesses, social investors, foundations, NGOs, and individuals (Zietsma and Tuck, 2012, p 514)

There is a general tendency in business and in civil society to be more focused on social value creation (Drayton, 2006). The growth of NGO's worldwide points to a more socially engaged citizenry (Bornstein, 2005) Private commercial companies routinely emphasise the social value of their products or services while, corporate social responsibility programmes are commonplace. In section 2.3., the promotion of social entrepreneurial activity by government was considered. Governments, as witnessed by recent initiatives in the European Union (Social Business Initiative 2011) and in the United States (Office of Social Innovation and Civic Participation 2009), see the benefits of increased civic engagement, and cross sectoral approaches to solving social problems. The creation of an enabling environment by governments, of which training is an integral part, is deemed necessary for the development of social enterprise (Doeringer 2010; GHK, 2006; SEETF, 2012).

In context of such endorsements, this study needs to establish, the target audience for this training. Those interested in social entrepreneurship have been characterised as more likely to be young and educated (Harding 2004). In a study of young social entrepreneurs in Canada, Johnson (2003), found that her respondents (sample group aged 18-35), expressed a strong interest in the creation of socially responsible businesses, and a 'socially engaged' private sector (P7). Bloom and Pirson (2010) relate how the expansion of the social entrepreneurship curriculum at Stanford University was initiated by the student body, while Gregory Dees relates a similar student led demand for social entrepreneurship education and training at Yale (Worsham, 2012).

Given the broad spectrum of social entrepreneurship, and it's cross sectoral nature, there is no uniform target audience for training. Different actors are at different stages of the social entrepreneurship spectrum and therefore have different training requirements. Examples of individuals and groups at different stages with different training requirements include:

- An individual with a social value creation idea, requiring refinement and support (Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, 2014).
- A non-profit organisation exploring alternative sources of income (Tracey and Philips, 2007)

- A social economy organisation looking to enhance its role through public service delivery (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008).
- A community development organisation interested in pursuing social and economic objectives (Thompson 2002; Berman & Melon, 2012).
- National and local government procurement officials charged with considering social criteria in tendering processes (DTI 2002).
- Private sector management training in social and environmental issues (Broberg and Krull, 2010; Austen and Reficco, 2009).

Potentially, there is a broad target audience requiring training in the concept and practice of social entrepreneurial activity. Potential learners may have a training requirement imposed upon them, while others are actively seeking training and support. Different motivations and obstacles in undergoing such training apply. A recent survey into training requirements of social enterprise in the United Kingdom, found that while there was a cross sectoral demand for training, the biggest impediment was lack of time, not the cost of training (Social Impact Consulting, 2013). In the U.K. as part of an enabling environment for social enterprise, public sector procurement officials were tasked with increasing their awareness of social value creation to facilitate third sector organisations tendering for public contracts (DTI, 2002). A further example of different motivations applying to those requiring training is the pressure on third sector organisations, operating within an environment dominated by pro-business ideology, to embrace social entrepreneurship in a search for legitimacy (Grenier, 2002; Dart, 2004).

2.5.2 Training Requirements of Social Entrepreneurs

In order to assess the training needs of social entrepreneurs, the literature suggests a clear conceptualisation of the role of social entrepreneur is required. Johnson (2002, p7) points out:

If social entrepreneurship is defined as bringing market sector management and skills to the non-profit sector, the characteristics needed to fulfil the role of a social entrepreneur will be very different than cases where social entrepreneurship emphasizes innovation and creativity in finding new ways to meet existing needs through the private, public or non-profit sectors.

The conceptualisation of social entrepreneurship is important in that it not only informs what is required to be taught, but also what the pedagogical challenge is. Johnson (2002), notes that if business or management skills are the requirement these are fairly replicable, whereas if a social entrepreneur is defined as an ‘exceptionally creative and

innovative individual, replication will be much more difficult to achieve' (p10). The approach of a number of studies into the education and training of social entrepreneurs is to glean from the literature the necessary skills, attributes and competencies for social entrepreneurship (Miller, Wesley and Williams, 2012; Brock and Steiner, 2009). These approaches illustrate that different conceptualisations of social entrepreneurship produce different emphases in educational and training requirements.

In a study to investigate how competencies associated with social entrepreneurship taught at universities, aligned with competencies ranked by practitioners, Miller, Wesley and Williams (2012), sought to address and inform the education gap between the teaching of social entrepreneurship and its practice. For the authors, social entrepreneurs 'use innovative and market-based methods to address social problems while simultaneously performing against financial objectives as a means of avoiding dependence upon donor markets' (Miller, Wesley and Williams, 2012 p349). This conceptualisation of social entrepreneurship as a business required to earn income is a recognised school of thought, in the literature (Boschee and McClurg, 2003; Tracey and Philips, 2007; Peredo and McClean, 2006). The methodology used thirty-five competencies based on a literature review, which a sample group of social enterprise practitioners were asked to rank in order of importance. The particular literature review used focused on the fields of management, entrepreneurship, non-profit management and academic research in the area of social entrepreneurship, producing a list of competencies which reflected a mix of general business and financial skill, and socially orientated competencies; such as valuing social impact over financial impact; or ability to identify social problems. The study ultimately showed that the sample group placed a higher value in management and financial competencies as opposed to more socially orientated ones.

In contrast, a review of social entrepreneurship education by Brock and Steiner (2009), noted that the majority of courses offered by third level institutions were designed to provide an overview of the concept, and were not practitioner based. To establish what an overview should cover the authors completed a content analysis of the twelve most cited definitions of social entrepreneurship from leading researchers and organisations, and arrived at what they consider the essential subjects that social entrepreneurship training and education needs to address. The essential subjects are, in order of most cited:

- Emphasis on addressing social needs/problems,

- Innovation,
- Scaling a social venture,
- Creating a sustainable business model,
- Opportunity recognition,
- Measurement of outcomes,
- Resource acquisition to accomplish the organisation's mission.

A review of the sources of these cited definitions largely depict a conceptualisation of the social entrepreneur emanating from the Social Innovation School. This conception does not emphasise business skills or income generation, but rather the social entrepreneur as an innovating resourceful individual seeking opportunities to effect lasting solutions to social problems (Dees, 2001; Mair and Marti, 2006; Martin and Osberg, 2007). Brock and Steiner (2009) use the analysis to distinguish their conception which emphasises innovation as 'a key differentiator between non-profit management and social entrepreneurship'.

A further inductive approach to education and training is to consider what the process of social entrepreneurship involves, and what skill requirements arise from this. Focusing on the process of social entrepreneurship is reflective of the evolution of mainstream entrepreneurship research, which moved away from the quest of identifying entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial traits, to examining what entrepreneurs do and the organisations they establish to achieve this (Gartner, 1989). Guclu, Dees and Anderson (2002) outline a process framework of how social entrepreneurship is concerned with opportunity recognition and development. Promising ideas generated by inputs such as personal experience, societal change, realisation of social needs unmet or recognition of social assets existing, are transformed in the social entrepreneurial process into opportunities for social impact. Based on this process model, it can be inferred that the social entrepreneur needs to be trained in developing opportunities through the creation of a social impact theory, which 'embodies the organisation's mission and values.' (p7), linked to a sustainable business model composed of both an operations and resource acquisition strategy.

Other studies consider particular aspects of the social entrepreneurial process to inform education and training needs. In section 2.2.5, the cross sectoral nature of social entrepreneurship was highlighted. Johnson (2002) points to the inherent difficulties for social entrepreneurs because of different cultures operating across the sectors. For Pache and Chowdry (2012), the social entrepreneur is active across all sectors of society, where various actors and agencies have different world views, and the social entrepreneur needs to be prepared for this if she wants to succeed. They propose a training for social entrepreneurs in

general entrepreneurship, supplemented by a training requirement unique to social entrepreneurs; the ‘skill of bridging three distinct and sometimes competing institutional logics: the social welfare logic, the commercial logic and the public sector logic’ (p495). The focus is on socialising the trainee in these different logics, through raising awareness of and exposing students to the different dynamics operating across the sectors. Their educational model proposes that this may be achieved by presentations and lectures from key actors in these sectors, as well as service visits to, and internships in the different sectors.

In Weber (2012), noted management scholar Frances Westley, holds that much of mainstream entrepreneurship education, such as business planning, operations, and resource acquisition, are applicable to social entrepreneurship training. However the nature of the marketplace is different for social entrepreneur, in that very often the beneficiary of the innovative goods or service is not in a position to pay for same (Wolk, 2007). For Westley, social entrepreneurs need to be conversant with the relatively new field of Social Finance, which is ‘concerned with how you get resources to move differently than you can in a normal for-profit’ marketplace (Weber 2012, p412).

It is not only the concept and process of social entrepreneurship used that informs the training requirements but also organisational type (non-profit, non-profit income generating, for profit) that dictates a particular skill set. Dees (1998) highlights the significant challenges and distinct competencies required in transitioning and operating a previously non-profit, grant dependent entity, into an organisation that generates revenue and retains its social ethos. The centrality of social mission, and even standing within a community may be undermined by the pursuit of commercial opportunities. Similar issues of mission and activity alignment arise in the for profit social venture (Dees and Anderson, 2003).

For Tracey and Philips (2007), the concept of the social entrepreneurship they use ‘is concerned with enterprise for a social purpose and involves building organisations that have the capacity to be both commercially viable and socially constructive’ (p265). Their focus is on the management of both non-profit and for profit organisations with social objectives. These organisations seek both financial viability, through the sale of goods and /or services, and delivery of social outcomes. They identify three particular challenges these organisational types face, namely managing accountability – the need to consult and be accountable to the various stakeholders of the organisation. This is a requirement that can impede competitiveness and slow down decision making. Secondly, managing a double

bottom line implies a requirement of how to negotiate the tension between commercial and social goals. The third requirement for these organisational types is managing identity; given the hybrid nature of its activities, is the organisation a social or commercial entity? These challenges represent for the authors ‘a particularly demanding form of entrepreneurial activity’(Tracey and Philips 2007, p266). The authors propose the integration of these requirements into mainstream entrepreneurship education, because the education of social entrepreneurs needs to reflect ‘the complex problems of social entrepreneurship’ (p268).

In this section the use of concept, process and particular organisational challenges, used by different studies to inform education and training requirements was considered. The basic premise for the education and training of social entrepreneurs is a clear sense of role and the challenges involved.

2.5.3 Training Delivery – By whom and how

In this section the delivery of social entrepreneurship education and training by third level institutions, and the pedagogical approaches employed are considered. The research will focus on how educators approach the task of training for social entrepreneurship

Given the increased interest in the concept and practice of social entrepreneurship, there has been a significant growth in the number of third level institutions offering courses in this relatively new phenomenon (Brock, *Social Entrepreneurship : Teaching Resources Handbook*, 2008). There are qualifications to this increased prevalence and popularity. Welsh and Krueger (2013) in a multi-country survey of social entrepreneurship syllabi found that many courses labelled as social entrepreneurship, did not contain any components of social entrepreneurship. The method used compared course content with the concept of social entrepreneurship as given by Dees (2001) in the oft quoted conceptualisation - ‘The Meaning of Social Entrepreneurship’. These courses covered such areas as non-profit management, sustainability, business management, strategy, corporate social responsibility, finance and information technology (Welsh and Krueger, 2013 p282). This finding is borne out by the study of Brock and Steiner (2009) where 15% of sample courses claiming to be on social entrepreneurship were excluded from the study on university syllabi, due to lack of relevance.

At Third level the education and training of social entrepreneurs has been dominated by business schools, but is now broadening to include other faculty, such as economics, public policy, social sciences and engineering (Brock, *Social Entrepreneurship : Teaching Resources Handbook*, 2008). Brock and Steiner (2009), found that of 107 courses in social

entrepreneurship, offered in 72 institutions, seventy-five percent were based in business schools. To ensure sustainability, the social entrepreneur needs requisite business skills (Tracey and Philips, 2007; Howorth, Smith and Parkinson, 2012; Worsham, 2012). Sustainability requires skills in ‘obtaining funding streams, ensuring profits for reinvestment, efficient management and stewardship of resources, idea generation, opportunity seeking and exploitation, understanding of business models and of routes to markets (Howorth, Smith and Parkinson, 2012, p372/373).

Social entrepreneurship is primarily focused on achieving social impact (Dees 2004). Achieving social impact is not a linear, predictable process. Because the subject matter of social entrepreneurship is concerned with altering social systems, there is potential for harm as well as good (Zietmsa and Tuck, 2012). Gregory Dees refers to ‘the art of creating social change’ which is concerned with ‘understanding how you really achieve social change in a meaningful and sustainable way without creating unintended consequences (Worsham, 2012, p446). For Dees, this art is not necessarily understood by university business schools He highlights the necessity for emotional intelligence (humility, respect, empathy) when working with stakeholders, particularly the beneficiaries of a social mission. Dees contrasts the goal of producing students who are analytical, assertive, problem solvers with the requirement that individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activity be able to relate in a meaningful way with a community affected by a social issue, for example. The importance of empathy in the education of social entrepreneurs is also emphasised by Bill Drayton of Ashoka. Empathetic skills are required by social entrepreneurs, with Drayton holding that ‘You can’t change the world if you can’t work really well with people’ (Forbes India, 2011)

Approaches taken to the education and training of social entrepreneurship reflect those adopted in mainstream entrepreneurship education. Entrepreneurship can be taught (Kuratko, 2005; Neck and Greene, 2011). Mainstream entrepreneurship education has evolved from teaching ‘about’ entrepreneurship, to teaching ‘for’ entrepreneurship, moving from passive forms of learning and teaching towards experiential and social forms (Kozlinska, 2011).

The subject matter in education for social entrepreneurship is the development of an ‘entrepreneurial perspective’ in the individual. The focus for imparting the required entrepreneurial perspective centres on the student’s capacities for communication, creativity, critical thinking, leadership and problem solving skills (Pache and Chowdry 2012). ‘This

perspective can be exhibited inside or outside an organisation, in profit or not-for-profit enterprises, and in business or non-business activities for the purpose of bringing forth creative ideas' (Kuratko, 2005, p578). The approach taken is to get students to think and act entrepreneurially (Neck and Greene 2011). For Cooney (2013) 'The philosophy of most courses is on engendering entrepreneurial behaviour (which can be used in many different contexts, including for social benefit) and asking students to undertake projects that demonstrate different entrepreneurial skill-sets'.

Neck and Greene (2011) explore, what they term, the three 'worlds' of teaching entrepreneurship; the entrepreneur world, the process world and the cognition world. Teaching and education in the entrepreneur world is focused on the individual entrepreneur, entrepreneurial traits, and the pursuit of 'do you have the right stuff approach' (Neck and Greene 2011 p58). The process world concerns itself with analysing what entrepreneurs do and focuses on such areas as teaching opportunity evaluation, feasibility analysis, business planning and financial forecasting. The cognition world is based on the practice of entrepreneurship, and how to act and think entrepreneurially. The education and training of social entrepreneurs, involve elements of trait, process and particularly cognitive worlds in approaches. The cognition world approach is focused on teaching entrepreneurship as a method, which the authors describe as 'going beyond understanding; it requires using, applying, and acting', (Neck and Greene 2011, p61). The field of education and training of social entrepreneurs, is characterized by the use of experiential learning to create, nurture and sustain social entrepreneurial identity and self-efficacy

Smith and Woodworth (2012), utilize a variation on social identity theory, as well as a self-efficacy approach to social entrepreneurship education. This approach 'focuses on helping students develop identities as social entrepreneurs and gain confidence in their ability to effect positive social change' (Smith and Woodward, 2012, p390). Social identity theory was originally proposed to explain inter-group behaviour, involving the categorisation of, identification with, and comparison amongst social groups. As applied to the education of the social entrepreneur, membership of the category of 'social entrepreneur' will influence the student's self-concept and behaviour because the student identifies with the norms and behaviour of the group. The approach taken is that the educators define the social category of 'social entrepreneur', and expose students to prototypical members of that category, and the characteristics of those members. Smith and Woodworth (2012) state 'Exposing students to such prototypes can help them understand how their unique strengths and individual abilities

can be utilised within the social entrepreneurial community' (p392). This trait based approach of construction identity is underpinned by active engagement in group projects that create social value.

We contend that the most effective mechanism for helping students build identity is through active engagement, and the best way for students to develop self-efficacy is through mastery experiences. Group projects target these two influential mechanisms directly, thus playing a key role in successful social entrepreneurship education (Smith and Woodworth 2012, p394).

The educational approach of identity construction and increasing self-efficacy through service and experiential learning is further added to by Howorth, Smith and Parkinson (2012). Using the work of Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger on situated learning; it is the student's participation in, and identification with a peer community of aspirational social entrepreneurs, that is the key element in their pedagogy. Their approach is to supplement management and business skills with the concept of peer learning and communities of practice. Communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly (Wenger-Trayner, 2015). The key components are shared interest, community of activity (discussion, debate, reflection) and practice (shared resources, problem solving approaches). The focus is on the social entrepreneur's identity as learners. Learning is achieved through membership, active engagement and participation in a community.

The Social Entrepreneurship Collaboratory (SE Lab) at Stanford, Harvard, Princeton and Fordham universities 'provides students with a protected environment to think through their ideas and apply them in concrete projects' (Bloom and Pirson, 2010, p1). The curriculum integrates theory and practice, in a collaborative environment, co-created by students. The SE lab lends support to the idea of social entrepreneur identity construction and the merits of social learning. Bloom and Pirson (2010, p 4) state:

By sharing their innovative ideas and approaches to social change, students gain more than the opportunity to develop their individual projects. In many cases they undergo a transformative experience that empowers them to continue their life as a socially entrepreneurial change agent.

Experiential learning is prevalent in the various approaches to the teaching of social entrepreneurship (Brock and Steiner 2009; Berman and Mellon 2012). Activities such as consulting or interning with a social enterprise, or undertaking specific projects in social value creation, or helping in the creation of a business plan or grant application for a social

enterprise, feature in the curricula of courses in social entrepreneurship (Brock and Steiner, 2009; Tracey and Philips, 2007; Kickul *et al.*, 2012). Experiential learning such as interning with a social enterprise:

expose students to the tacit elements of social entrepreneurship, and in particular the tensions inherent in social enterprise as an organisational form, which cannot be easily captured through more formal educational experiences such as lectures and case studies' (Tracey and Philips 2007, p269).

Service learning, which a part of the experiential learning continuum, is also a means to encourage civic mindedness and social responsibility in students (Brock and Steiner, 2009). In certain institutions faculty collaborate with local social enterprises to pick feasible and appropriate projects for students to work on (Brock, *Entrepreneurship for the Public Good*, 2014). In so doing, the likelihood of students having a positive experience increases, and thereby improves the student's self- efficacy of social entrepreneurial activity (Smith and Woodworth, 2012).

Outside of third level institutions the dominant characteristic of the education field is the presence of foundations such as Ashoka, Echoing Green, and The School for Social Entrepreneurs, which champion and disseminate the concept of social entrepreneurship. To that end, they attract, locate, and offer support, training and guidance to nascent social entrepreneurial ideas. The key difference between these foundations and third level institutions, is that individuals are selected by foundations, generally as the result of a competitive process. This selection process allows the foundations focus on those nascent social entrepreneurs who, in their view, have the greatest potential for social impact and scale.

Ashoka founded in 1980, is the best known of these foundations. Its founder Bill Drayton is credited with originating the terms 'social entrepreneurship' and 'social entrepreneur' (Light, 2006; Bacq & Janssen, 2011). Ashoka's selection process focuses on four criteria: creativity, entrepreneurial quality, the social impact of the person's idea, and ethical fiber (sic). Ashoka provides financial and professional support to the individual entrepreneur, whilst also connecting them with other social entrepreneurs working on similar problems (Bornstein 1998). In Ireland, Social Entrepreneurs Ireland seek to 'find the social entrepreneurs who have the most potential to have an impact, work with them intensively to develop their projects and ensure that their ideas are implemented as effectively and efficiently as possible'(Social Entrepreneurs Ireland 2014). They provide a range of supports

to selected social entrepreneurs including financial investment, technical training, peer networking, mentoring and links to other social entrepreneur networks.

A self-identification approach is particularly used in organisations like Ashoka and Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, where facilitating the student/client/user, to identify as a social entrepreneur is an integral part of the selection and education process.

Summary

The growing interest in social entrepreneurship has led to increased educational and training outputs. Different actors are at different stages of the social entrepreneurship spectrum and therefore have different training requirements. Approaches to teaching social entrepreneurship use the literature on role, process and particular organisational challenges to inductively develop training curricula. Initially dominated by business schools, the training of social entrepreneurs reflects trends in mainstream entrepreneurship education. The training and education of social entrepreneurs, utilises aspects of trait, process, and cognitive approaches (Neck and Greene 2011). Social and experiential learning in a self-efficacy process is a core element in education and training for social entrepreneurship. The main thrust of approaches to education and training is ‘to help students see themselves as social entrepreneurs and innovators (identity) and give them the confidence in their abilities to go out and make a difference (self-efficacy)’ (Smith and Woodworth, 2012, p402).

2.6 The social enterprise/entrepreneurial landscape in Ireland

In previous sections of the literature review we have considered the different contexts for social entrepreneurial activities; where they are located, policy contexts, and distinguishing criteria of social entrepreneurship. In this section the social entrepreneurial landscape in Ireland is examined, which largely revolves around social enterprise in the Irish social economy, and which is regarded as representative of the Social Enterprise EU School (O'Hara and O'Shaughnessy, 2004).

The social enterprise field in Ireland is underdeveloped and in a fledgling state, (O'Shaughnessy, 2013; SEETF, 2012). The most prevalent form of social enterprise in Ireland historically has been work integration programmes for marginalised groups, which provide subsidised labour to the community and voluntary sector to create social enterprises. Primarily, these entities were vehicles for Active Labour Market Policies (ALMP's). These policies, have commonly underpinned social enterprise in European jurisdictions (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008). Ireland was one of a number of European countries that used ALMP's to

tackle long term unemployment, encouraging re-integration of participants into the labour market, while also delivering on social cohesion and tackling both urban and rural disadvantage. These programmes were ‘the main form of state support to social enterprises in Ireland’ (O’Hara and Shaughnessy 2004:p5). Programmes such as Community Employment, Social Economy Programme and the present Community Service Programme (established 2006), work on the principle of providing subsidised employment to groups at risk of social exclusion, to work in social enterprises delivering community based services. In Ireland, national expenditure on these ALMP’s accounted for 1.7% of GDP in the mid 1990’s, ahead of the OECD average of just over 1% of GDP (O’Connell, 2002 cited in O’Hara and O’Shaughnessy, 2004, p4). The organisations created through these programmes were retrospectively called Work Integration Social enterprises (WISE’s), because they fitted the social and economic criteria for a social enterprise as laid down by the European research network EMES (Defourny and Nyssens, 2012). O’Hara & O’Shaughnessy (2004, p9) characterised these entities as ;

They are not for profit in nature, have evolved to serve disadvantaged communities, and combine the efforts and expertise of voluntary and paid workers. Irish WISEs deliver a range of goods and services and, in the process, create training and employment opportunities for the long term unemployed and other marginalised groups. WISE’s generate a traded income through the sale of goods and services and combine this income with significant statutory funding, and to lesser extent private and public donations, to sustain their activities.

Social enterprise in the social economy was further investigated by Eustace and Clarke (2009).The criteria for social enterprise in a social economy setting by the European research network EMES is again referenced in the descriptors of the subjects as:

- They are autonomous organisations, established by local citizens.
- They are driven by social objectives and a desire to benefit the local community.
- They engage in continuous productive activity – goods and/or services.
- They have participative structures and decision-making.
- They reinvest any profits back into their enterprise.
- They provide local employment.

(Clarke and Eustace, 2009, p3)

These organisations were found to have a strong social remit focused on community needs. They were dependent on mixed revenue streams but primarily dependent on public money in the form employment grants under the Community Employment scheme and the Community Services Programme. The authors also noted ‘There is also a firm sense of

enterprises being led by people with vision, energy and commitment to their community and/or a particular passion or cause' (Eustace and Clarke, 2009p17).

According to the research, the development of social enterprise in the social economy in Ireland, has encountered some difficulties. Eustace and Clark (2009) point out that the administration of the Social Economy Programme was primarily about employment grants to organisations, and that an opportunity to develop the sector as social enterprise was lost. They also note 'the skills base that was eligible for support was too low and there was insufficient start-up support and enterprise training (Eustace and Clark, 2009, p8/9).

Regarding the current Community Services Programme (CSP), Curtis, O'Shaughnessy and Ward (2011) examined 244 Irish community and voluntary organisation operating under the programme, 'which is the main policy support for social enterprise in Ireland' (p3) The study found a significant lack of understanding, amongst participant organisations, of what a social enterprise and the social economy was. Again, confusion with ALMP's was noted, as was a preference by over 40% of respondent organisation for non-commercial revenues. There are also constraints on CSP participant organisations, not to displace commercial mainstream activity. It was also found that generating a surplus and building reserves, which would be a stated aim in developing any enterprise, could impact negatively on other funding streams accessed by social economy enterprises (Curtis, O'Shaughnessy and Ward, 2011).

More recent research has moved the focus from social economy social enterprises to social entrepreneurial activity as a business Prizeman and Crossan (2011); primarily driven by social motives (DKM, 2011). A report on what was termed the Social Enterprise Community Business sector; using annual returns to the Companies Registration Office, and an iterative process, established that 1420 social enterprise /community businesses existed in Ireland in 2009 (DKM, 2011). The report depicts these organisations as:

- Organisations or businesses set up to tackle social, economic or environmental issues.
- Driven primarily by social and/or environmental motives, they engage in trading or commercial activities to pursue these objectives and produce social and community gain.
- Profits or surpluses generated by the enterprise are reinvested to further their social objectives.
- Ownership of the enterprise is within a community or amongst people with a shared interest.
- Social Enterprises are committed to social justice and social inclusion.

The report found that that 63 % of these organisations had no traded income in 2009, and that the other 37% of companies had traded income equivalent to 17% of their total income. The report found that the sector was largely reliant on public and philanthropic support.

This was re-iterated by Prizeman and Crossan (2011), which examined social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland. The study's focus was on entities that saw themselves as 'a business with the primary objective of creating social value' (p5). The study found that 'Respondents believed that the mission and values underpinning their enterprises were built on a desire to bring about social change or meet a social need' (p1). They also found a wide variation in income levels, which varied from financial dependence on grants to complete financial independence. The authors did find that amongst a cohort of respondents, which scored highly on an entrepreneurial scale of innovativeness, pro-activeness and attitude to risk, that respondents also had 'a business mission which they felt ran parallel to their social mission, suggesting a very strong motivation to achieve economic sustainability' (Prizeman and Crossan, 2011 p 33).

The landscape in Ireland also features philanthropic organisations which advocate and support social entrepreneurial activities. Representative of the Social Innovation School of social entrepreneurship, advocating for innovative approaches to solving social problems, this approach is associated in Ireland with Social Entrepreneurs Ireland and Ashoka. The focus is on the individual, and no particular organisational format is preferred. Social Entrepreneurs Ireland organisation describes a social entrepreneur as:

An individual compelled to act for public or social benefit (rather than to make money), has an innovative approach in addressing a well -defined problem and, has an ability to effectively develop and grow their new idea to maximise impact' (Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, 2014).

These organisations promote and champion social entrepreneurship in Ireland, and seek through competitive processes the 'entrepreneurs who have the most potential to drive significant social change in Ireland'. Those who meet their criteria are given both operational and financial support. Ashoka , the non- profit foundation which elicits, supports and champions social entrepreneurs, is also active in Ireland , while in 2014 the School for Social Entrepreneurs started operations in Ireland, providing training for selected candidates with innovative ideas for social enterprises

Generally the social entrepreneurial landscape in Ireland as per the European tradition is located in the social economy, and has a high dependency on public funding. The remit of organisations to create both social and economic value, and the anomaly of social enterprises not having a traded income is noted in previous research. Curtis, O'Shaughnessy, and Ward (2011) found that 33% of respondents to the study on social enterprises under the Community services programme, indicated that they required supports in generating a traded income.

Other actors in the Irish social economy have a similar need. In section 2.5.1., the different motivations that apply in training contexts for social entrepreneurship were noted. Recent publicity about the intention of two philanthropic organisations, Atlantic Philanthropies and The One Foundation to wind down their operations in Ireland, has highlighted the reliance of the Irish non-profit sector on philanthropic donations. A recent media report notes that,

Non-profit organisations facing a €50 million annual shortfall in funding due to the winding down of two major philanthropic organisations have urged other private donors and the Government to step into the void” and that “ both organisations make up 86 per cent of philanthropic foundation money going to non-profit groups (Crosbie, 2013)

It could be construed that Ireland’s non -profit sector, due to funding shortfalls and tightened government purse strings, may have to look at commercial activities to maintain their social mission(s), which may be construed as an entrepreneurial response to a changed operating environment (Weerawardena and Sullivan Mort, 2006; Ryan, 1999). Also, given the current high unemployment levels, the Irish government has a renewed interest in the area of social enterprise as a potential source of jobs (Forfas 2013).

2.6.1 Policy initiatives pending at National Level

Regarding policy directions and developments at a national level in Ireland, the current focus is on social enterprise as an aid to recovery and economic development, through job creation. The Irish government’s ‘Action Plan for Jobs (2012)’ (Department of Jobs, Enterprise and Innovation) included a promised report, on the potential of social enterprise to create jobs.

Following consultation with social enterprises, government departments and other stakeholders, the report was published by Forfas (National policy advisory board on enterprise) in 2013 (Forfas, 2013). In a pre -report submission to Forfas, the advocacy network Social Enterprise and Entrepreneurship task force (SEETF), pointed to the necessity

for a national strategy and support system if, social enterprise was to feature as a growing and vibrant part of the economy (SEETF 2012).

The published report tentatively states that with the appropriate enabling and promotional effort, ‘there appears to be scope for increasing jobs in the sector’ (Forfas, 2013 p2). It defines Social Enterprise as:

An enterprise that trades for a social/societal purpose, where at least part of its income is earned from its trading activity, is separate from government, and where the surplus is primarily reinvested in the social objective (Forfas 2013, p3)

In summary, the report’s recommendations include the adoption of a clarifying definition, the assignment of lead responsibility, and the creation of an intergovernmental department or inter-agency body to develop and champion the sector, as well as the evaluation and mapping of social enterprise. As such, the report states that there is an existing social enterprise base in Ireland and that social enterprise has existed under government programmes such as Social Economy Programme (SEP) and continues under the Community Services Programme (CSP). In essence the report states that if the sector can become more commercially oriented then job creation potential is foreseen (Forfas 2013). This is to be achieved by the utilisation of existing business support models such as those offered by Leader (European Regional Development funding), and Local Development partnership companies (European Social Funding).

There is a consensus in the international literature that social enterprise needs an enabling environment to become established (Doeringer 2010, GHK 2006; Mendel and Nogales 2008). The emphasis in the Forfas (2013) report that growth in the social enterprise sector can be achieved by using existing structures and resources is problematical, particularly where there is no culture existing of social enterprise. The experience of the United Kingdom, where social enterprise has been enabled and supported since the late 1990s, is illustrative. In that jurisdiction, the enablement of social enterprise also required the education of the public sector into a new culture. In 2002, HM Treasury published: *The Role of the Voluntary and Community Sector in Service Delivery* (2002); which promoted the idea of central and local government working with the community and voluntary sector, including social enterprises, to deliver public services. The government sought to promote understanding between social enterprises and public procurement officials, as to the potential of social enterprises in public service delivery. Despite a decade of institutional support, it was found that procurement

policies and dealing with public officials was an ongoing difficulty for many potential social enterprises (SEUK, 2013).

In relation to finance for what the Forfas (2013) report calls the existing social enterprise base in Ireland; access to Community Services Programme funding (approximately €45m per annum), has not been available to potentially new social enterprises for some years. The report further suggests that government contracts for public service delivery should be re-interpreted as traded income for the organisations involved. While this would create a new cohort of social enterprises, the commercialisation of relationships previously based on a redistributive function, would require both a cultural shift, and a significant requirement for training of the organisations involved (Dees 1998; Philips and Tracey, 2007).

Ultimately, the report recommends that Ireland prioritise social enterprise under EU structural funding 2014-2020, as part of the EU Social Business Initiative. This EU initiative recognising the potential benefits of social enterprise as a part of a vibrant social economy, presents an opportunity for development of the sector, but is predicated on a national strategy existing to exploit this (Klaer-Morselli, 2012).

Summary

The social entrepreneurial landscape in Ireland largely revolves around social enterprise in the social economy, involving a combination of work integration initiatives generating earned income. Previous research into this sector indicates the social and economic remit of these organisations. It also highlights a lack of capacity in the sector and in some cases a lack of understanding about the nature of social enterprise. This sector is relatively underdeveloped by European standards. Other features of the landscape in Ireland are the activities of prominent philanthropic organisations championing and supporting social entrepreneurs.

Policy initiatives to support the social entrepreneurial sector in Ireland have been limited. A follow up to a report on the potential of social enterprise to create jobs, is awaited (Forfas, 2013). There is a consensus in the literature that an enabling environment is a requirement for the development of social enterprise. The lack of policy is a barrier to accessing support for social enterprise/entrepreneurship from current initiatives such as the European Union's Social Business Initiative (SBI, 2011).

2.7 Overview of education and training in Ireland

One of the organising questions for this research was: What are the current training facilities, programmes and resources available for new and existing social entrepreneurs? In section 2.5 approaches found in the literature to educating and training for social entrepreneurship were examined in an international setting. The Irish educational landscape is populated by various initiatives and competitions encouraging social entrepreneurship. Reflecting what was found internationally, the growing number of educational and training courses in Ireland indicates increasing interest in both the concept and practice of social entrepreneurship.

There are a number of initiatives on the Irish educational landscape which focus on inculcating the positive values of social innovation and active citizenship amongst the general public including school children. The philanthropic organisation Ashoka, promotes an enabling environment for social innovation believing that ‘anyone can learn and apply the critical skills of empathy, team work, leadership and change making to be successful in the modern world.’ Through it’s ‘Changemaker Schools’ initiative, Ashoka aims to empower ‘young people by equipping them with core skills that are commonly found among Changemakers across the world - Empathy, Creativity, Leadership, Teamwork - and, enabling young people to unleash the full potential of themselves and others from an early age’ (Ashoka, 2014).

An Irish Non-Profit organisation, Young Social Innovators primarily focuses on second level students, promoting and educating for the practice of social innovation in Ireland. It has a mission to:

develop young people as practicing social innovators in Ireland so that they develop their innate sense of justice, responsibility and capacity – thereby enabling and encouraging them to participate in creating a fairer, more caring and equal society. (Young Social Innovators, 2014)

This is achieved by training teachers and educators to develop student approaches to solving social issues, hosting events and competitions showcasing these efforts. There is also an ongoing effort to introduce similar education initiatives into primary schools, through the development of a teaching module on social entrepreneurship prepared in a collaboration between Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, and the educational charity Educate Together. While

such initiatives are instrumental in establishing the value of social innovation and the capacity to engage with it, they are not within the remit of this research.

For the purposes of this review, specific courses in social entrepreneurship, enterprise and social innovation are considered, as well as the support and training of those with latent or nascent social value creation ideas (Appendices A,B and C). In Ireland, the field of educating and training social entrepreneurs is led by third level institutions and non- profit foundations, a characteristic which was also noted of the international field (Brock and Steiner, 2009; Bornstein, 1998) .These educational and training courses have different target groups, use different modes of delivery and pursue different learning outcomes.

This overview of the education and training of social entrepreneurs in Ireland finds different approaches for the encouragement, training and support of social entrepreneurial activities. These approaches are:

- Educational modules exploring both theoretical and practical examples of social entrepreneurship, embedded as part of a wider business/ entrepreneurial education at Trinity College Dublin,(TCD), Maynooth (NUIM), University College Dublin (UCD), Dundalk Institute of Technology (DKIT).
- Educational Courses aimed at the vocational qualifications for those already engaged in social economy/enterprise organisation at University College Cork (UCC) and Dublin City University (DCU)
- The support (financial/mentoring/technical/networking) structures employed by philanthropic foundations to assist selected individuals to develop innovative approaches to societal problems (Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, Ashoka Ireland, School for Social Entrepreneurs Ireland).

The literature review indicated that there was no uniform target audience for this training; that training requirements were linked to conceptualisation of both the social entrepreneur and social enterprise; and the prevalence of social and experiential learning in educational approaches.

This review indicates the field of education and training for social entrepreneurs in Ireland is populated by educational courses giving theoretical overviews, vocational training programmes for those engaged with particular organisational types, and selective support programmes for those identified as potential social entrepreneurs. Courses embedded in general entrepreneurship / business are outlined in appendix A; in appendix B an outline of vocational courses is given; while appendix C gives an overview of the role non-profit foundations play in the support of social entrepreneurs. The appendices indicate the structure,

target group, delivery method, and curriculum and desired learning outcomes of the respective courses, based on available information from online sources.

Discussion follows on the conceptions of social entrepreneurship associated with these courses; the profile of the different target groups for training and education; and what are the outcomes of this education and training.

2.7.1 The conceptions underpinning these courses

The modules embedded in business programmes (Appendix A) are concerned with a theoretical overview of an emerging field, particularly linked with issues of the sustainability and hybrid nature of organisational types (TCD). There is a stated link between business/entrepreneurial methods and social value creation (NUIM), while the possibility of new ways of doing business and the application of ‘entrepreneurial thinking to identify opportunities and solutions that will make an important positive impact on society’ is also referenced (UCD). Under this conceptualisation, social entrepreneurship is linked to approaches of mainstream business/entrepreneurship, the recognition of social value creation as a legitimate goal for business, and more responsible ways of doing business (Austin, Stevenson, and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Driver, 2012; Chell, 2007)

This approach may be contrasted with courses (Appendix B) such as the MBS in Co-operative and Social Enterprises (UCC), which distinguishes its approach:

by stressing (in addition to economic success) the social and cultural issues of building local, democratic participation in indigenous businesses, which have as their first priority the promotion of the well-being of the local community and its citizens.

The course entitled: Social Enterprises and Community Development Practice (UCC) is again concerned with *‘people centred social enterprise’*. As such these courses are representative of the European social economy tradition, informed by different values, and viewed as distinct from mainstream business activity (Defourny, 2001; Defourny and Nyssens, 2008; Klaer-Morselli, 2012). In turn, the collective (people centred / co-operative) ideals which inform these courses may be contrasted with the selection, championing and support of individual social entrepreneurs by non-profit organisations, established for that purpose. Ashoka Ireland, Social Entrepreneurs Ireland are representative of the social innovation school of social entrepreneurship, where the potential of an innovative idea, service or initiative to have a large scale positive social impact, is promoted (Dees 2001). The focus for these organisations

is on the idea (innovative, scalable) and the individual promoting it (creativity, entrepreneurial, ethical fibre), as opposed to a particular organisational format.

The organisational format of social enterprise and how it might be sustained is stressed by other courses. The MSC in Management (Innovation in Social Enterprise - DCU) course outline states that the course ‘will ensure graduates are ready to work in the social enterprise sector having gained the knowledge and skills to develop and implement best practice and sustainable enterprise strategies.’ Again, a focus for the Incubator programme run by The School for Social Entrepreneurs is that participants must be willing to consider how to generate a certain level of income from the realization of their idea. So an emphasis on earned income is there from the outset.

2.7.2 Target groups for education/ training, and entry requirements

The target group for modules embedded in business/entrepreneurial education, (TCD/UCD/NUIM) are undergraduate students. These courses provide an introduction to the theory and practice of social entrepreneurship. These are usually elective courses, where no requirements as to experience apply.

Vocational courses naturally, have a narrower focus, targeting those requiring specific skills. Such skills are usually associated with organisational requirements of best practice and individual competencies. These courses have online and flexible methods of delivery, which suit those seeking training but under time pressure, a factor recently highlighted in a review of training for the social enterprise sector in the United Kingdom (Social Impact Consulting, 2013). The target group for the MBS in Co-operative and Social Enterprises (UCC) is those working or volunteering, in co-operatives or social enterprises, particularly at management or leadership levels. While the formal entry requirements stipulate a level 7 qualification; this requirement is waived if experience in co-operatives or social enterprise is sufficient. Candidates for: Social Enterprises and Community Development Practice (UCC) should ‘be able to demonstrate involvement in the community development or social enterprise sector’. The target group for MSc in Management (Innovation and in Social Enterprise) at DCU, are those already involved in social enterprise, and who ‘typically wish to complement their experience and knowledge of social enterprise with an accredited training course at a Masters level’. Entry requirement (level 8 degree) can be waived, if relevant experience is sufficient (i.e. minimum of 5 years in an appropriate role). The vocational courses differ from overview type modules, in that experience is relevant to entry requirements.

The activities of the philanthropic foundations are targeted towards those who are already practicing or nascent social entrepreneurs. Given the selection criteria involved, this target group has the most stringent entry requirements. The target group must fit a particular profile of social entrepreneurial activity, which the organisation promotes and champions. This profile generally involves a promising innovative idea for social value creation that is already established to some extent. Foundations select and support those nascent social entrepreneurs deemed to have potential for the greatest impact.

2.7.3 The outcomes of the educational/training courses

Given the relative newness of the embedded educational modules offering an overview of social entrepreneurship/enterprise, there is no information available, indicating whether educational outcomes are achieved. The educational overview delivered by these modules seeks to familiarise participants with an appropriate theoretical framework to understand social entrepreneurship. As such, metrics measuring entrepreneurial intentions or even start up projects are not available. The educational module is but a part of a larger educational award.

The outcomes of vocational courses offered, are, at least in one respect, easier to quantify. The number of people successfully completing a training programme is a valid outcome, which can be measured. These courses aim to equip participants with the necessary competencies to function in management and leadership roles of different organisational types on the social entrepreneurship spectrum. They award a qualification that indicates that certain levels of competency have been attained. They represent a professional standard within the sector, which may position the candidate for advancement.

The support activities of organisations such as Social Entrepreneurs Ireland and Ashoka cannot be termed either educational or vocational training. There is no formal curriculum. Focusing on the idea and the individual, the support given (financial/mentoring/technical) is bespoke, matching support with requirement, in order to bring the innovative idea to fruition. For the social entrepreneurs selected, ‘ the programme of support we provide is critical to up-skill and build capacity which makes him or her much more effective at his or her job’ (Seanad Public Consultation Committee Debate, 2013/p13) There is no formal qualification to be attained; the social entrepreneur does not need a qualification to function effectively. These organisations seek to measure the outcomes (presented as impact) of their support to individual social entrepreneurs. Concerning the

social entrepreneurs supported by Ashoka,' 83% of them will have changed a system at national level within ten years' and that ' More than 90% of them have their ideas independently replicated' (Seanad Public Consultation Committee Debate, 2013 p7). Again referring to the impact of the social entrepreneurs supported by Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, it was stated: 'Those 161 social entrepreneurs have had a direct impact on more than 200,000 lives in Ireland. They do not just change lives; they contribute to the real economy. There is a win on all fronts. They have created over 800 employment opportunities in full-time, part-time and contract work within their organisations'. (Seanad Public Consultation Committee Debate, 2013,p).

Summary

This section gave an overview of current training facilities for social entrepreneurial education in Ireland, which was one of the organising questions of this research. A number of initiatives and the growth in the number of courses available attest to interest in the concept and practice of social entrepreneurship. In Ireland, as in other jurisdictions, the education and training field is led by third level institutions and philanthropic organisations. The field is populated by courses giving theoretical overviews, vocational type courses for those already engaged in social economic activity, and selective support programmes by philanthropic organisations. As such they have different conceptions underpinning them, as well as different users and outcomes associated with them.

Chapter 3.0 Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the reasons a particular methodology was chosen for this research, and also to explain the development and refinement of the research process by decisions taken during its course, particularly in relation to data collection methods and sampling.

3.1 Research Objectives /Organising Questions

The research is titled ‘An investigation into the Training needs of Social Entrepreneurs in Ireland’. The research objectives are to identify, and gain access to individuals engaging in social entrepreneurial activity, and to explore their experience with a view to understanding what competencies and skills are required for this work. These findings are enhanced by a quantitative training needs assessment to establish training needs for a wider population of those engaged in social entrepreneurial activity. To that end the organizing questions are as follows:

- 1 What motivates and influences one to engage in social entrepreneurial activity?
- 2 What are the key problems and challenges faced by individuals and groups during their social entrepreneurial experiences?
- 3 What are the current training facilities, programmes and resources available for social entrepreneurs?
- 4 What are the key training and education needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland?

3.2 Methodological Approaches

Choice of research design should demonstrate a congruence between epistemology, theoretical perspective, research methodology and the methods that emerges from such considerations (Cresswell, 2003)

The theoretical perspective of positivism, associated with an objectivist epistemology, holds that ‘the social world exists externally to the researcher, and that its properties can be measured directly through observation (Gray 2013, p21). Positivism generally points to a deductive methodology used in experimental research i.e. quantitative research methodology, with an emphasis on predetermined categories of measurable data and statistical analysis.

The theoretical perspective of interpretivism is associated with a constructivist epistemology which ‘asserts that natural reality (and the laws of science) and social reality are different and therefore require different kinds of method’ (Gray, 2013, p 24).

Interpretivism proceeds by accepting the multiple realities inherent in human experience. Using an inductive process, this approach builds knowledge tentatively, by collecting, analysing and interpreting data. An interpretivist perspective generally leads to a qualitative research methodology which pursues an understanding of social phenomena in natural rather than experimental settings, through the meanings, experiences and views of the participants (Pope & Mays, 1995). Methods used such as interviews and open ended questions produce non-numeric data, reflective of individual experience and meaning. It is an emergent process in that meaning emerges from the analysis and interpretation of the data.

A third research methodology, mixed methods, advocates mixing both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, if warranted by the research problem. Influenced by what Creswell (2003) calls pragmatic knowledge claims, which focuses on problem solving, and real world applications. In pragmatism, the problem is the focus, and researchers use all approaches to understand the problem. Use of Mixed methods design may be indicated where one data source is insufficient, and in cases where a study needs to be enhanced by adding a second method (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011) As a combination of the other two methods, mixed methods use both pre-determined and emergent data, asking both open and close ended questions, handling both numeric and non-numeric data.

In this section the epistemological, theoretical and methodological variables in general research design were considered. Taking these considerations, and the research objectives, the research argues for a particular choice of design.

3.3 Choice of Research Design

Gaining an insight into both the mind-set of individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activities, and the problems and challenges they have faced, requires the collection and analysis of participant views and meanings. An objectivist approach with a positivist perspective cannot meet this objective. The appropriate underlying epistemology is one of constructivism, employing a theoretical perspective of interpretivism, where the goal is to capture the multiplicity of understanding and meanings that participants have. This leads the research design towards a qualitative research methodology.

Yet, this research also has a practical and pragmatic application, in that the investigation of training needs of social entrepreneurs is of practical significance to individuals, educational institutions, academics and policy makers. Research objectives, seek to identify and map training needs. As such, numerical, categorical, ordinal data, relating to

how respondents identity (category of activity), their age, gender, role, assessment of training needs and training preferences, contributes to that mapping exercise. Therefore answering the research problem requires both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis, which points towards a mixed methods methodology. The use of a mixed methods approach should be justified by the researcher (Creswell 2003; Gray, 2013; Guest, Namey, and Mitchell, 2012). This research justifies a mixed methods approach on the basis of:

- Qualitative and quantitative methods and data analysis are required
- Allows testing of findings from one method as to a more general applicability
- Quantitative method enhances primarily exploratory qualitative methodology
- Research has a practical application

Given the nature and timescale of this research, it proceeds to match the best suited of the major mixed methods design to the research problem and questions in hand. Suitability of design is approached by considering levels of interaction between the qualitative and quantitative components, their relative priority, the chronological order in which they occur, and to how and when the components will be mixed.

The research is primarily qualitative in that it seeks to understand the range of values, meanings and experiences of participants. Thematic analysis of qualitative data will inform a quantitative instrument to assess training needs for a larger population of actors on the social entrepreneurial landscape. Mixing of the elements also occurs at the data interpretation stage of the process. Accordingly, the most suitable design has a primarily qualitative approach, in which the qualitative element precedes the quantitative, and which facilitates mixing of the elements at the data collection, analysis and interpretative stages.

A scan of the major mixed methods designs (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011) indicates an exploratory sequential design as most suited to the research problem.

The exploratory design is most useful when the researcher wants to generalize, assess, or test qualitative exploratory results to see if they can be generalized to a sample and a population' (Creswell, Plano Clark 2011, p72)

The exploratory design proceeds by collecting and analysing qualitative data; using results from the qualitative phase to create a quantitative instrument to test or generalise initial

findings. The quantitative findings are then interpreted as to how they build on the qualitative results.

3.4 Research Design

Table 2 illustrates how the design answers the objectives of this research and in what sequence.

Table 2 Research Design Sequence

Research Objective	Method	Sequence	Methodology
Locating social entrepreneurs	1. Literature Review – distinguishing themes of social entrepreneurship and review of social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland.	1	Qualitative (secondary data)
	2. Use Quantitative instrument	4	Quantitative
Meanings, values and experiences of social entrepreneur sample	Conduct qualitative data collection. Themes both pre-determined and emergent from 10 semi structured interviews	2	Qualitative
	Conduct qualitative data thematic analysis to inform quantitative instrument	3	Qualitative
	Collect quantitative data using quantitative Instrument	4	Quantitative
	Analysis of quantitative data	5	Quantitative. Qualitative/Quantitative Mixed

3.4.1 Qualitative Method

Using a qualitative methodology the research conducted 10 semi-structured interviews with individuals, exploring their experience in social value creation activities,

which involved asking questions, listening to, responding to, and recording the interview. Semi-structured interviews have a number of advantages. They are useful in exploratory research of a topic; can generate rich data in eliciting the personal experience of participants, and the unstructured format allows the interviewer to explore areas of interest uncovered by the interview (Newton, 2010).

Limitations

The efficacy of the method is dependent on the communications skills and levels of preparation by the interviewer (Newton, 2010; Trochim, 2006). The interviews were conducted using an interview guide informed by the literature review, and research objectives (Appendix D). To improve the validity of the interview process, the approach taken by the research was to ask participants for their feedback on how the interview was conducted, and the listening skills of the researcher. Transcripts from a number of the interviews were also reviewed by academic supervisors to ascertain researcher's approach and the quality of data emerging from the methodology. The interview guide, was modified throughout the interview process to suit different contexts and refine particular points of interest to the research, but retained the original core guiding themes for exploration with participants throughout the process.

3.4.2 Qualitative Sampling

The aim of this research is to investigate the training needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland. Locating and identifying social entrepreneurial individuals and organisations is a key task which is problematical in that there is no homogenous coherent entity of the social entrepreneur, the concept of the social entrepreneurship is both contested and evolving (Mendel and Nogales 2008). The research used distinguishing themes from the literature review (Chapter 2) and consideration of social entrepreneurship/enterprise on the Irish landscape (Chapter 2.6) to generate a purposive sample of participants.

A purposive sample is 'where the units that are investigated are based on the judgement of the researcher' (Lund Research Ltd, 2012). The purposive sampling used in this research attempted to capture the spectrum of individuals engaged in social economy organisations, social enterprises, and a number of individuals recognised as social entrepreneurs by philanthropic organisations. Interviews were conducted with the following:

Participant (1) co-founded and manages an organisation described as a ‘workers co-operative’. The social entrepreneurial spectrum includes co-operatives in a number of jurisdictions adapted to deliver social and community needs (Galera and Borzaga, 2009).

Participants (2) and (6) are representative of social enterprise in the social economy in Ireland (O’Hara and O’Shaughnessy, 2004; Clarke and Eustace, 2009). Using social employment schemes participant’s organisations provide work integration and training opportunities for marginalized groups. These activities are the basis for social enterprise across many jurisdictions (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008).

Participant (3) was interviewed, to understand his experience of attempting to address a community need which had arisen due to a funding shortfall. Adopting a cross sectoral approach, the individual surveyed stakeholders, presented findings, generated support for the project, and also identified potential funding and preferred organisational format. Although the initiative was ultimately rendered unnecessary by other events, in the context of this research into training needs, the participant’s experience of nascent social entrepreneurial activity was relevant for inclusion.

Participant (4) runs an organisation that is helping communities to organize medical and community volunteers, to assist and work in partnership with established emergency services.

Participant (5) operates a social enterprise which has evolved from a social economy social enterprise into what Forfas (2013) terms a ‘more commercially oriented social enterprise’. This organisation competes with and tenders against private, for profit organisations, in delivery of social services.

Participant (7) runs an organisation offering low cost, early intervention, counselling services for those experiencing mental difficulties.

Participant (8) promotes of men's health and well- being, through the establishment of community based clubs where men can congregate, socialise and participate in various projects and activities.

Participant (9) co-founded and runs an organisation delivering early intervention 'wellness' programmes for young people in schools aiming to build self-confidence, self-belief and emotional awareness amongst young adults.

Participant (10) manages a for- profit affiliate of an international non- profit organisation, which specialises in work integration for intellectually challenged adults

The audio recordings of the ten (10) interviews were fully transcribed. These transcripts were reviewed a number of times, identifying themes in the data, and coding those themes. Thematic analysis and interpretation was then completed (Chapter 4)

3.4.3 Quantitative Method

The themes emerging from interviews and the literature review, informed the construction of the training needs questionnaire. A questionnaire (appendix D) was constructed to elicit information on respondents (Q1-5), on their organisations (Q6-11), on training needs (Q12-13), and preferences for delivery of that training (Q14-Q18).

Piloting

The survey was piloted to improve both the reliability and validity of the instrument. Respondents (n=6) provided feedback on the survey design, the intelligibility of the questions therein, and whether there were any obvious omissions. Feedback on content validity was generally positive, with no comments on omissions from list of skills and competencies used to inform training needs. Overall analysis of feedback resulted in re-formulating some of the questions for clarity, and the number of skills and competencies which respondents were asked to rate were reduced from twenty-two to thirteen for conciseness.

Limitations

The questionnaire sought to identify social entrepreneurial activity, and the training needs of individuals and organisations engaged in that activity. Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what is intended to measure. The research has to consider questions of validity as to what degree identification of activity and training needs might be achieved. Concerning identifying social entrepreneurial activity, respondents were asked to best describe their organisation from a list of organisational types associated with social enterprise and social entrepreneurship. The validity of this approach to identifying social entrepreneurial activity is improved by respondents indicating whether or not their organisation had certain characteristics associated with social entrepreneurial activity such as: primacy of social mission, engaging in economic activity, and re-investing any surplus in mission. In so doing the survey does not solely depend on the respondent's self-selection

process, as organisational indicators are also used to establish the social entrepreneurial credentials of respondents.

A further issue is the validity of the approach to the training needs assessment of respondents. Training needs assessment proceeds from a recognised set of competencies, arrived at by a combination of an expert with knowledge of the role, and with input from an employee (new or existing) in that role. These co-created competencies are used to gauge performance, and identify training needs (Nowack, 1991). Given the nature and timescale of this research, this was impractical. The approach taken was to adapt and modify a training needs assessment tool developed by Hennessy & Hicks(1997), which was developed to evaluate training requirements for healthcare professionals. In the Hennessy -Hicks model respondents are asked to rate both the importance of, and their competency in performing certain skills relevant to their jobs. The training needs identified are based on the ability of respondents to engage and accurately gauge both the importance and competency levels of activities relating to their work. Training needs are identified where there are the biggest gaps between the importance attributed to a task and the perceived competency completing that task.

Adapted for this research, the questionnaire asked respondents to rate both the importance of a series of skills and requirements, and how competently they performed those skills and met those requirements, in the performance of their job. These skills and competencies had emerged from the qualitative analysis. Essentially it is a subjective exercise, quantifying levels of importance versus competence from the respondent's perspective, resulting, for the purposes of this research, in a perceived need, or not, for training. This is a stated limitation of the quantitative instrument.

Method

The questionnaire was administered through an online survey tool. Potential respondents were contacted, given information on the research objective, requested to respond and provided with a link to the online questionnaire. Potential respondents were reminded to complete after 14 days. The questionnaire generated 117 replies from a potential sample of 1270, a response rate of 9.2% .The data from the questionnaire was transferred into an Excel file. The data was cleaned, generating 115 valid responses, a rate of 9.1%. The data

was then transferred into an SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for analysis. Subsequently, descriptive and inferential statistics were generated, which are reported in Chapter 5. The development of the quantitative sampling plan is outlined in the next section

3.4.4 Quantitative Sampling

Previous research into social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland has noted the lack of clearly identifiable sample populations in this field (Prizeman & Crossan, 2011; DKM, 2011). On the basis of databases accessed or generated by previous research, permission was sought to sample the databases of:

- Organisations operating under the current Community Services Programme, which was the sampling population used by Curtis and O'Shaughnessy (2011), in their study of social enterprises in the social economy.
- The 1420 Social Enterprise Community Businesses (SECB) mapped for the DKM (2011) study, by using annual returns to the Companies Registration Office (CRO) and an iterative process to generate the sample.
- Those individuals recognised and supported as awardees of Social Entrepreneurs Ireland; an approach used by Prizeman and Crossan (2011)

Permission to access these databases was not granted. The following approach to sampling was then initiated:

1. Organisations operating in a number of areas under the Community Services Programme were contacted directly using public information available on the Pobal website, and asked to complete the survey. Eighty – five (85) CSP organisations were contacted in Munster and 66 in the Dublin metropolitan area. This created a potential sample of 151.
2. A list of individuals and organisations that were supported by Social Entrepreneurs Ireland was created, and contacted directly. This generated a potential sample of 56
3. Permission was granted to access the database of Ulster Community Investment Trust Ltd (UCIT), which provides social finance, advice, business support and mentoring to community organisations and social enterprises in Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. A request to complete the survey, was forwarded to a database of 1045 organisations

4. Permission was granted to access a section of the database of The Carmichael Centre which provides support for the community and voluntary sector in Ireland; this provided a potential sample of 18, identified by the database administrator as social enterprises.

This approach yielded a sampling frame of 1270 (Table 3)

Table 3: Quantitative Sampling

Sample Source	Number
CSP organisations	151
Social Entrepreneurs Ire Awardees	56
Ulster Community Investment Trust	1045
The Carmichael Centre	18
Total	1270

Ethical issues

The research design gave consideration to ethical issues that may arise in data collection and subsequent analysis. The interviews involved accessing participants views on a broad range of issues relating to their social entrepreneurial experience, including personal motivations and difficulties encountered. The participants were assured of the confidential nature of the process, and that any subsequent analysis would make no attempt to identify them. Participants signed a consent form as part of the interview protocol.

Similarly respondents to the questionnaire were guaranteed anonymity. While subsequent analysis stratified respondents into organisational types, identification of individuals and their organisations does not occur.

Summary

The epistemological, theoretical and methodological variables in general research design were considered. The research design justifies mixed methods exploratory sequential design because it is best suited to the research objectives and questions. The sequence of the design is an initial qualitative exploration, which informs a quantitative training needs assessment of a larger population. Quantitative data will enhance initial qualitative findings, contributing to identification and mapping of training needs.

The qualitative method employed was semi structured interviews with a purposive sample of participants. Steps were taken to increase the efficacy of the method and the skill level of the researcher. The rationale informing the generation of the purposive sample was then outlined. The development and piloting of the quantitative instrument and related issues of validity were discussed. The generation of the quantitative sampling frame was then outlined. The research design's approach to ethical issues arising was also outlined.

Chapter 4.0 Qualitative Analysis

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings from the analysis of qualitative data taken from ten semi- structured interviews with subjects from across the spectrum of social entrepreneurial activity. The interviews attempt to capture the views, behaviours, attitudes and experiences of individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland. The protocol for the interviews was informed by the organising questions, the literature review undertaken, reflections and discussions with academic supervisors. The analysis examines:

- Themes of primacy of social mission to create social value, and the theme of innovation, which are used to identify social entrepreneurship.
- Themes related to individual starting points, motivations in undertaking their work, and how participants identify with the concept of the social entrepreneur.
- The problems and challenges faced by participants.
- Requirements and competencies for participants and their type of work.

Table 4 introduces the participant's roles, the organisational types they represent, as well as the primary activity engaged in.

Table 4: Participants and their Organisations

	Participants Role	Organisational Type	Primary Activity
1	General manager/Founding member of a social economy organisation	Workers Co-Operative	Retail
2	Chairman and founder of a community based organisation	Social economy social enterprise	Training/employment services
3	Originator	N/A	Meet community needs
4	Founder / CEO	NGO/Non profit	Community Emergency service
5	General Manager	Social Enterprise	Elder Care
6	CEO	Social economy social enterprise	Economic and social development
7	Founder / CEO	NGO/Non Profit	Mental health Service
8	Founder / CEO	NGO/Non Profit	Community needs service
9	Co - Founder	NGO/Non Profit	Services to youth
10	General Manager	For profit enterprise of international non profit	Services to intellectually disabled

*Note: Participants and their organisations are subsequently identified by number in the analysis, for example participant number one and his organisation are identified as (1). Quotes by participants from interviews are italicized.

4.1 Identifying Social Entrepreneurship

The research sought to establish to what extent the participants and their organisations are reflective of a social entrepreneurial approach. The literature review undertaken indicated that social entrepreneurship can be distinguished by the primacy of the social mission to create social value, by the innovative nature of the idea, service or product, and by the role of earned income in the initiative (Lepoutre *et al.*, 2013). The pre-set themes of primacy of social mission to create social value, and the theme of innovation, are used to investigate social entrepreneurial activity amongst participants. The theme of earned income/sustainability is also a distinguishing feature. The research found the theme of earned income is more appropriately analysed and presented as a challenge for participants in section 4.4.2. The analysis initially presents the common goal of social entrepreneurial activity, that of social value creation. Themes of primacy of mission to create social value, and innovation are then presented.

4.1.1 Social value creation

Social entrepreneurship proceeds from the perception that some social issue needs addressing; *'I would think about social entrepreneurship, it's finding a problem and fixing it* (8), or that some social need is unmet; *'the first thing the social entrepreneur has to do is see what is the unmet need.* (6) The idea of recognizing and addressing a social problem or need unmet is a feature of the literature, and is re-iterated across the interviews. The nature of the work engaged in by participants varies considerably, however for descriptive purposes it is possible to configure the range of activities as reacting to social needs unmet, and in so doing, creates social value.

Commercial organisations are primarily focused on financial value creation, whereas the primary focus for social entrepreneurial organisations is social value creation (Auerswald, 2009). Social value creation is the aim 'to contribute to the welfare or well-being in a given human community' (Peredo and McClean, 2006, p 59). Social entrepreneurial activity deals with 'basic human needs that remain unsatisfied by current economic or social institutions' (Seelos and Mair, 2005, p 244).

For descriptive purposes, the activities of participant’s organisations can be reduced to a general activity of social value creation in that, by creating an initiative or providing a service or product they seek to improve the well- being of some part, or all of society.

Table 5.0 summarises the social need unmet/social value creation activity of participant’s organisations.

Table 5: Social Value Creation by Participants

Organisation	Social Need Unmet /Social Value Creation
1	Creating employment through co-operative form.
2	Creation of educational, training and employment opportunities for the unemployed and ex-substance abusers.
3	Cross sector, transport initiative for community organisations.
4	Community based rapid response emergency medical teams to complement existing emergency services.
5	Providing Home care service for elderly.
6	Creating work integration social enterprises for marginalized groups.
7	Low cost therapeutic counselling, promoting an early intervention approach.
8	Creating/maintaining social and mental well-being in men, through community based organisations, encouraging shared activity, camaraderie and respect.
9	Running workshops promoting self-confidence and well -being in adolescents
10	Creating employment opportunities for clients on the autism spectrum

The means by which social value creation is achieved by these organisations largely rest in two approaches:

1. The use of trading activities to deliver social value creation. This occurs where an enterprise element is a vehicle for social value creation, as in the case of an enterprise which sells a social service to meet an unmet need (5,7 and 10), or employing clients from

marginalized groups to deliver that service (6 and 2). Organisations 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 and 10 are representative of this approach

2 Addressing and providing a solution to a perceived social problem (3, 4, 8, and 9). In these cases, the approach to social value creation does not have a direct traded element; however, funding and commercial opportunities are pursued to provide for the sustainability of the venture.

The data concurs with a distinction in the literature, between the concept of social enterprise and that of other social entrepreneurial initiatives that do not engage in trading. In a European context, social enterprise, located in the social economy, is conceptualised as an alternative economic system, guided by values of solidarity, mutuality, collective action and social cohesion (Defourny, 2001; OECD, 2013). It is valued as a supplementary economic system, in cases of market or state failure to provide for social needs (OECD, 2013; Mendel and Nogales, 2008). Different models of social enterprise exist, which are specific to socio – political contexts and jurisdictions (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008; Kerlin, 2006; Bacq and Janssen, 2011), but a key unifying factor is that a trading element is integrated into the social value creation activity.

In contrast, the non- trading approach is linked to the concept of innovative approaches to solving social problems (Dees, 2001). This approach is associated with the Social Innovation school promoted by educational institutions and philanthropic organisations worldwide, but particularly in the United States. This approach is more focused on the individual as an agent of social change, and does not have a preferred organisational format. This approach has contributed largely to both the concept of the social entrepreneurship, and the term ‘social entrepreneur’ (Bornstein, 1998; 2005). While social enterprise across various jurisdictions seek to address unmet needs emanating from system failures, the social innovation approach, at its apogee, seeks to change systems that create the deficits in the first place (Martin and Osberg 2007)

While these two approaches to social value creation are distinct, in practice there are crossovers, noted in the literature (Bacq & Janssen, 2011), which create the generic perception that they are synonymous. This is indicated in the research by two participants (7 and 10) recognised and supported by philanthropic organisations which promote a social innovation approach, using trading models of social enterprise to create social value

There are commonalities in these different approaches, which also tend to feed into the generic perception that social entrepreneurship and social enterprise are synonymous. Both tend to address similar social deficits such as lack of opportunity, inequities, and issues of social inclusion. The primary aim of social entrepreneurial activity is the creation of social value. In 4.2.2 the theme of primacy of that mission to create social value is considered

4.1.2 Primacy of social mission

The primacy of social mission to create social value is generally agreed as the *sine qua non* of social entrepreneurship (Dees 2001; Mair and Marti 2006; Certo and Miller 2008; Auerswald, 2009). The list of social value creation activities outlined in Section 4.2.1 is the primary focus of participants, whilst the necessity of financial imperatives to sustain that activity as expressed by participants is also noted. The emphasis on social mission is not only expressed in the mission statements of organisations, and in the way that organisations are structured as non -profits, having charitable status, and governed by voluntary boards of management, but also in:

- A stated ethos which prioritises social over financial value creation
- Relationship with users/clients/customers
- The type of markets organisations work in.
- How opportunity is perceived

The primacy of social mission is expressed in a number of ways by participants. For one participant *A certain ethos is required, it's not about money*' (4), while another states: *'if we could survive without money, I would sure'* (8). Echoing the idea that money is a means to a social end and that revenues are for the furtherance of social mission (Dees 2001), participant (2) declares *'it's stated in the company...,so everything that's done goes back straight into the place and the people ,to try and create ,as I've said, a better place for people to come to.'*, while another states: *'any profit that's made goes back into us getting more people (clients),(10).*

The day to day running and management of organisations also gives examples of social value being a guiding principle. For participant (9): *'What we're doing is creating an organisation that can function within mainstream society, but its philosophy and ethos would be different in the way we operate'* A participant indicates how she maintains a social ethos by giving extra assistance her clients might require beyond the services normally offered:

It's that sort of social thing, somebody will come to me, because I'm the manager, and say can you just do something, and I'll say yes I will. Because I always think at the back of my head, this is what we're about (5)

One participant's business model formulated to ensure financial sustainability, stipulates the levels of service his organisation should offer: free service to clients (5%), benefit rate (60%), the balance of 35% being a full-fee rate. However:

Sometimes we are not so strict. So if we already reach 5%, and let's say we have a situation with a client presenting, wanting to access our service but having no way to pay, of course we will offer a free service to this person' (7)

The idea of a heightened sense of accountability to stakeholders is associated with social entrepreneurship (Dees, 2001; Defourny and Nyssens, 2012). Respect and consideration of client target groups is stressed by participants (2, 5, 6, 8, 9 and 10):

- *All our people, they need to be trained into the sensitivity... The dignity of the person, it's that whole ethos of the company' (6)*
- *We are candidate focused. So that's the first thing, always (10).*

This accountability is also extended to staff of participant's organisations (2, 5, 7 and 10), citing adequate working conditions and training for staff: *'I can see the big difference, with the way that we treat our staff and the commercial business.'*(5).

Operationally, organisations engage in markets that reflect prioritisation of social and not financial value creation. Social entrepreneurial activity often operates in the absence of normal market conditions (Wolk, 2007; Seelos and Mair, 2005). One participant gives a description of a 'demand deficient' social enterprise model they operate:

- *The demand deficient model is where people...; where there is a demand for the goods, but there isn't money to back the demand' (6).*

This demand would presumably remain unmet in the open market. Operating that demand deficient model in the above example, a social enterprise creates further social value by offering sheltered employment to intellectually challenged adults (6).

Opportunity recognition may also be influenced by the prioritisation of social value creation over other considerations. Participants pursue opportunity to create social value. Referring to the demand for his organisation's services to intellectually challenged adults, participant (10) states: *'We want to grow faster, because there are more opportunities than we thought'*. Another participant's organisation embarks on a new project that creates training opportunities for clients, although it increases the financial pressures on the

organisation (2). Participant (6) describes how her organisation assesses client's needs to offer more services to those clients, while also growing her social enterprise

Irrespective of whether the approach to social value creation is one of social enterprise or social innovation, the primacy of social mission is paramount for the participants.

4.1.3 Innovation

The interviews produced a variety of responses to the question of what role innovation plays in the social value creation of their organisations, the concept being understood by the participants in different ways. The analysis indicates a level of uncertainty amongst participants; that participants are engaged in innovative social value creation; and that it was generally through a differentiation process that innovation was expressed.

Innovation is not necessarily a fully formed idea, or even understood at the outset for participants. The innovative nature of the service provided by one participant's organisation, was not obvious at the outset but emerged from *'just a process of creation, 'I was not aware that it was unique and innovative, which it is'* (7). Participants (2 and 5), had initial difficulty with the concept of innovation although with further probing, they began to identify innovative aspects of their work. The idea that that innovation is an ongoing business skill used to improve process and procedure, rather than a founding principle of the organisations activity was the understanding of some participants. Innovation is about the growth of the enterprise (5). Innovation is necessary but is time and resource dependent: *'You are not going to be hugely innovative if your nose is attached to the grindstone'* states (1). For another innovation is the use of new technologies, to increase the scope of the organisation's reach, and measure the impact of what it does (7).

The concepts of innovation and entrepreneurship are intrinsically linked (Drucker, 1985). The entrepreneur is the agent of an innovative approach, providing services or products in a new and better way. Innovation amongst participants is indicated by:

- New collaborations with other organisations, resulting in improved opportunities for clients (2)
- New services to address an unmet need (4,6 and 7)
- Planned innovative response to unmet social need.(5)
- New approaches to social problem solving, albeit adapted from other jurisdictions (8,9 and 10)

Participants identified the innovative aspects of their work primarily through a process of differentiating themselves from other organisations in their field (2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9 and 10). Also, innovation was inferred by participants from interest shown in the organisations activities by other organisations and agencies. Accordingly, (7 and 9) stress their unique approach to a social problem is a preventative rather than a curative model. For (10), his organisation's approach is attracting attention of other agencies and professionals in the field, while (8) maintains that the rapid growth of his organisation attests to an innovative idea, stating that while other initiatives in this field had preceded his organisation, nothing previously was as '*open - sourced*' as his initiative (8).

As part of the conceptual debate on social entrepreneurship, some commentators distinguish between levels of innovation, reserving the title social entrepreneur for those using a social innovation approach to achieving transformative social change (Martin and Osberg, 2007; Wolk, 2007). Social enterprises that represent new approaches and new combinations of resources to address social problems may also be socially innovative (DeFourny 2001, Leadbeater, 2007).

4.2 Identifying the social entrepreneur

The purpose of this section is to address one of the organising questions of this research, namely what has motivated and influenced the participants to engage in social value creation activities. The research also sought to establish if participants identified as social entrepreneurs.

4.2.1 Starting Points

The starting points for participants embarking on social value creation vary, according to different roles, backgrounds and contexts. The idea of a key event or experience being an antecedent for engagement in social value creation is very prevalent in the interviews; with six out of ten participants linking the stimulus to engage in this work as originating from:

- Personal difficulties experienced (8)
- Difficulties experienced by family or friends (4,10)
- Difficulties experienced by a community (7, 9 and 3)

Life experience is a key variable in the process of social entrepreneurship (Guclu, Dees and Anderson, 2002); that some event or experience acts as a trigger for the individual to address a social deficit.

There is another category of participant; namely those that were recruited from the private sector to work in social enterprises (5, 6 and 10). The question of whether the label of social entrepreneurship may be applied to what recruited management do, is theme occurring in the literature, where a distinction is made between managing an organisation and innovating social entrepreneurship (Hulgard, 2010). In contrast, the idea that a social entrepreneur is any person running a social enterprise in any sector is also found in the literature, and is representative of the U.S. non-profit viewpoint (Boschee and McClurg, 2003). Ultimately such discourse reverts to different conceptions and approaches to social value creation and the literature underpinning them. The question of interest to this research, concerns the ability of recruited managers to behave in a socially entrepreneurial way. Weerawardena and Mort (2006), in a study of the Australian non-profit sector, held that managing an non-profit organisation in an innovative, pro-active way, with a certain attitude to risk, qualifies as social entrepreneurship. They suggest that social entrepreneurial behaviour has a ‘pragmatic’ quality as opposed to the ‘sacred behaviour as is traditionally suggested in the social enterprise literature’ (Weerawardena and Mort, 2006, p32). Luke and Chu (2013) suggest that by adopting new approaches, based on learning from mistakes and imitation of what works, organisations can learn to act in a socially entrepreneurial way, which suggests a role for both managers and intrapreneurship in social entrepreneurial activity.

4.2.2 Motivations/Predispositions

Participants gave a variety of responses as to the reason for personal engagement in this field. Some expressed reservation or a qualification in explaining what motivated them: *‘I think it’s always very easy to create a narrative in the past of what led you here. Who knows, we kind of edit our story to suit.’* (8)

Stated personal motivations to engage in this field vary, in keeping with different backgrounds and experiences:

- Motivation from political and social activism (1)
- Wanting to make a change in people’s lives (2)
- Wanting to improve the quality of life of a youth group, that he had worked with (3)
- Motivated to act due to friend's experience of not getting timely medical treatment (4)
- Motivated by recognizing a need in others, he had once experienced himself (8)
- Following ‘my *heart’s call*’(9)

For professional managers recruited into the field, the data gives us an example of a manager recruited to work in social enterprise who was motivated to become involved by a personal life experience (10). In general, it is more appropriate to refer to the motivation for recruited managers, arising from the culture and mission statement of their organisations, and the requirement of those recruited to participate in, and enhance this culture. Examples of this are the development of social enterprise by recruited management as an intrinsic part of economic and social development of a community or geographical area (5 and 6)

The question as to why the participants might be predisposed to engage in this type of work is difficult to answer. For some, embarking on social value creation was an extension of their roles of helping and guiding others, such as community worker or religious ministry (2 and 3). The idea that certain roles pre-dispose an individual to this type of activity was expressed by (2, 3 and 6). Of interest, is that two participants (3 and 6), referenced Maslow's hierarchy of needs, in that if the 'lower' needs are met, then there is a greater pre-disposition towards engagement in creating social value. Participant (6) suggested this as the reason why religious orders are prone to social value creation activities, pointing out that *'wherever you had nuns, you had meals on wheels'* (6). Other suggestions as to why individuals felt they might be predisposed to this activity were:

- Community work and altruism a part of family ethos (3).
- *'I was always altruistic in my view, even in my business'* (9).
- *'A mission in life, it's not just a career path'* (6).

Yunus (2006) maintains that capitalism has interpreted the entrepreneur in a way that is too one dimensional, in holding that the entrepreneur is motivated solely by profit maximization, and fails to recognise that entrepreneurial types may also be motivated to act by largely social objectives. Motivating factors other than financial value creation, such as need for a sense of achievement are relevant for entrepreneurial initiative (Chell, 2007). This is borne out by participants in this research expressing personal satisfaction derived from their work, despite its taxing nature (2, 4, and 6). Shaw and Carter (2007) indicated that the nature of financial risk for those engaging in social entrepreneurial activity, is less than that for mainstream entrepreneurs, but that perceived risk to reputation can be a motivating factor in social entrepreneurial activity. In this research, maintaining one's reputation is also a motivating factor for participants (3 and 10).

Overall, the main driver for engagement by participants in their respective activities appears to be life experience, which prompts individuals to address a social issue.

4.2.3 Identification as a Social Entrepreneur

The interviews uncovered a wide range of understandings of the term social entrepreneur. Concerning identification as a social entrepreneur, although an individual might be engaged in innovative social value creation work, a resistance, or lack of a view pertaining, to identification with the concept was encountered amongst some participants. It is notable that some participants (1, 2 and 5) working in older organisations which pre-date the concept of social entrepreneurship have a difficulty or reluctance to identify their work as socially entrepreneurial

- *'I don't want to make this glossy, you know, it's just basic day to day work that we do'.(2)*
- *'I'd be slow to call myself a social entrepreneur, because you need to look at what's behind that' (1)*
- *I don't understand (the term) social entrepreneur (5)*

Others had more definite views on the concept and their identification to it. For participant (7) the social entrepreneur's role is to bring about the operational and financial sustainability of the social enterprise, which he described as his role in the organisation. For (8) the social entrepreneur is about seeing a social problem and fixing it, again a view which aligns with his own activity. Social entrepreneurship represents a new focus for entrepreneurial energies that were previously focused on money making opportunities, according to (9), while for (6) the social entrepreneur is synonymous with social enterprise, which is the social value approach she herself is involved in.

The individuals associated with the older type of social economy organisations (1,2,5) may be contrasted with, participants (4, 7, 8 and 9) who are supported by philanthropic organisations which promote the practice of social entrepreneurship, and more readily able to identify with the concept. Prizeman and Crossan (2011), investigating social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland, also noted the connection between support by such philanthropic organisations and self- identification as social entrepreneurs. The creation of a social entrepreneurial identity as an pedagogical approach was discussed in section 2.5.3.

4.3 Problems and Challenges

One of the organising questions of this research is to answer, what are the problems and challenges faced by individuals and groups during their social entrepreneurial experiences? These problems and challenges will inform the identification of training requirements for

social entrepreneurial activity, which is the objective of this research. A number of themes categorised as problems and challenges relating to the operating environment are faced by participants are now examined. These are:

- Tolerance for ambiguity and change,
- Theme of Earned Income/Sustainability,
- The necessity for team building,
- Operating cross sectorally,
- Issues of identity management.

4.3.1 Tolerance for ambiguity/change

The idea that a definite type of individual embarks on a clearly thought out, mission to create social value, and does so in a linear fashion is not borne out by the interviews. Rather it is an evolving process, individuals starting out tentatively, working in a part-time capacity (1, 2, 7 and 8), using pro-bono resources such as buildings, volunteers, goodwill, and acts of corporate social responsibility, to develop their mission (1, 2, 4, 7 and 10).

The experience of participants in the process of sustained social value creation illustrates that it is essentially a tentative process, with an unknown endpoint and, which evolves over a period of time (4, 7, 8, and 10)

- *'I didn't really know what was going to happen at the start, so it was a kind of process for me, a learning experience' (7)*
- *'I knew there was a clear need, I just didn't know how to appraise it, and how to position our organisation in the market' (7).*
- *'I didn't know at the time that I was going to set this up' (8)*

Participants indicate a tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity. A key challenge is a changing environment and the need to adapt to it:

- *'You've got to adapt to the changing times, or else you'll be swallowed up, you know?' (2).*
- *One thing is to adapt very very quickly. Circumstances appear (sic) very quickly and opportunities appear (4).*

Organisations are working towards sustainability but dependent on public sector funding, which is volatile and income can drop from year to year (2 and 6). Changing political environments impact on organisations financially (2, 4, 5, 9), but also operationally, as in the example of a new tendering procedure introduced to allow private companies and social

enterprises compete for service delivery contracts (5). Organisations in general, face financial challenges irrespective of funding or income sources (2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10)

Participants work in an uncertain environment where there are a number of challenges. In exploring that environment, a number of themes related to challenges faced by participants are now examined.

4.3.2 Earned income (Sustainability)

The theme of earned income/ sustainability is a distinguishing feature of social entrepreneurship .The social entrepreneurial approach may be distinguished by an emphasis on ensuring sustained delivery of mission to create social. This is achieved by social enterprises engaging in continuous trading activity (2,5,6,7,10), and by the social innovation approach to mission sustainability, which can also encompass traded income, but in practice raises finance through a number of means, not least by measuring and displaying the impact of its social value creation activities to potential funders (4,8,9).

Irrespective of the approach taken to social value creation, the necessity for financial sustainability is stressed by all participants:

- *'You can have the best intentions in the world, but we all know that it revolves around money as well'.(2)*
- *'The reality is, you need enough money coming in to run your organisation' (4)*
- *'social enterprise is the organisation with a specific social mission, or vision, however with a strong business model in place, enabling the organisation to actually sustain it to provide the mission' (7)*

The revenues which underpin the social value creation activities of participant's organisations are public funds (grants and contracts for delivery of services), earned income and philanthropic sources.

Organisations in practice pursue revenue from a combination of these sources. The means, by which this revenue is secured, vary considerably. Some run commercial type organisations, where buying/selling/profit margins/ wage bills, working capital, and competing in the open market is the norm (1 and 5). Participants (7 and 10) use trading social enterprise models that aspire to be sustainable from earned income. Others are trading as social enterprises using a social economy model, combining social employment schemes with market activities, which are governed by rules and regulations that limit activities (2 and 6).

The organisations which do not engage in trade (4, 8 and 9), are reflective of the social innovation approach, which seek to fundraise and are looking for commercial opportunities to ensure their mission is sustained. Funding may also be a succession issue for individuals. The necessity to sustain the organisation into the future beyond the participants current involvement (8 and 9) requires a funding strategy beyond the current position For these organisations, not engaged in trading, the pursuit of funding to underpin social value creation is an ongoing issue: *'If you look at the funding, that is a constant, because of the growth curve we are on. So that's a constant issue for us'* (10). This activity places considerable demands on individuals and organisations. Of note for this research is that fundraising skills are a stated training need (8, 9 and 10). One participant gives an estimate that 70 % of his time is spent fundraising (8). For these participants not engaged in trading, different strategies are in place:

- Possibility of earned income is limited, so focus on sources of public money (8)
- Focus on a combination on philanthropic sources, e.g., the Irish diaspora (10).
- Philanthropic sources are indefinite, so organisations are exploring potential commercial opportunities (4 , 7, 8 and 10)

The funding landscape may become impacted *'by social change, change of government, or change of opinion'* (9). Funding from philanthropic and public sources is both limited and conditional: *'I have 2 years to make myself sustainable. So at the end of the day the grants are there for a period of time'* (4). Organisations dependent on revenue that is not earned, cite problems associated with narrow funding bases; *'Whoever is funding calls the shots'* (8), so much so, that one participant's organisation avoids public funding for fear it might compromise autonomy (9). Public funding of social economy type social enterprises is not a constant, and is subject to political and fiscal change (2, 6)

Participant's supported by philanthropic organisation's (4, 7, 8 and 9), are assisted and advised on sustainability strategies, as part of that support .Where no obvious trading potential exists, business concepts such as brand building and associated economic spinoffs are explored for potential revenue generating opportunities(4 and 9) .

A sub-theme of earned income/sustainability emerged from some of the interviews which may be described as a lack of confidence in the 'Charity Model' (4, 9, and 10). While recent negative publicity concerning the charity sector was referenced by a number of participants as potentially damaging to the third sector as a whole (5, 6, and 10), social innovation type organisations reflected a preference for non-reliance on traditional charitable donations to achieve their ends:

- *'The charity model is dead, purely because it can't exist without putting its hand out. Saying, well we can't do this, if you don't give us x' (9).*
- *- 'you have to bring that commercialism into it, being realistic. You just cannot survive in this world depending on hand outs '(4).*

Such views indicate an acceptance of the move away from passive giving, towards targeted, conditional giving associated with new norms in philanthropy and public funding (Frumkin, 2003; Reis and Clohesy, 1999).

In the interviews there is a generally stated co-dependency between social value creation and the financial resources required to achieve and sustain it. This need to generate income and/or access funding is a stated requirement for all participants. The role of earned income is a key discourse in social entrepreneurship (Boschee and McClurg, 2003; Dees 2004). As applied to the social enterprise approaches across the jurisdictions, generating earned income is considered an important qualifying criteria (DeFourny, Nyssens 2012; DTI 2002). Indicators of social entrepreneurial activity use levels of earned income as a qualifying metric for the activity. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor of social entrepreneurship considers earned income of at least 5% to be an indicator of social entrepreneurship (Lepoutre, et al. 2013); while the qualifying criteria as a social enterprise in the UK is 50% earned income (Social Enterprise Mark, 2015). The social innovation approach does not stipulate earned income as a requirement; yet the social entrepreneur has 'a mission to create and sustain social value' (Dees, 2001, p4). Sustaining social value creation for the participants not involved in the enterprise approach, means in practice, pursuing funding and other potential commercial opportunities (4, 7, 8 and 9). The attendant need to show potential funders the impact of the social value creation activity is examined in section 4.4.3

4.3.3 Impact Measurement

Social impact measurement attempts to measure the outcomes and impact of social entrepreneurial activity. The idea of impact measurement is seen as key to the acceptance and growth of social entrepreneurship/enterprise (SBI, 2011, SICP, 2009). There is no one method to measure what is, practically, a myriad range of social value creation activities, and so consequently is difficult to measure (EESC, 2013). Measuring outcomes and impacts is necessary not only for potential funders (Achleitner, Bassen and Roder, 2009; Nicholls 2009), but also ties in to the current zeitgeist of: 'For a sustainable world a more holistic

perspective considering social, environmental and economic consequences must come to the fore' (EESC, 2013: 3.1)

The participants generally could see the value of this measurement, but impact is not measured by half of these participants (1, 2, 5, and 6). While financial and other outputs are quantified, impact is not. There is no requirement on social economy organisations to do so (2 and 6). The organisations not measuring the social impact of what they do are generally older organisations that pre-date the current social entrepreneurial phenomenon.

Four of those interviewed are not only aware of the need to measure, but are making efforts to do so (4, 7, 8 and 9). Adopting impact measurement strategies is part of the support offered by a philanthropic organisation to these participants. These participants believe that public and private funding will ultimately require impact measurement/quantification. (4, 8 and 9).

Participants' attitude to the measurement of impact is an indicator of a distinction between older type social enterprise approaches, and social innovation approaches which are supported by philanthropic organisations like Social Entrepreneurs Ireland. The acceptance of social impact measurement as a necessary tool in the evaluation of social value creation activities and the support to undertake such impact studies is a key distinction in the field. It is also reflective of new types of targeted philanthropy, which seek quantifiable outcomes from investment in ideas people and causes.

4.3.4 Team Building

'People management is always a learning process, a learning curve for the manager. So it takes time to build a strong team' (7).

The nature of the work creates personal difficulties for participants. Personal issues relating to an onerous workload (4 and 6), the effect this has on relationships (1 and 9), and feelings of loneliness (9 and 10) were expressed. For participant (10), recruited from the private sector, *'social enterprise is a lonelier game'* (10), and consequently is seeking access to a mentor to help with this difficulty. Participant (9) believes the support of his co-founder and the philanthropic organisation that supports him, have been key in facing the personal challenges of loneliness, which suggests the value of peer support and networks to assist with such personal difficulties. The issue of excessive workload feeds into the theme emerging

from the interviews; that of the necessity to lead and build a team to deliver the social mission.

The requirement to build and manage an effective team is of particular importance for participants (10, 9, 7, 6, 5 and 4). For participant (7) *‘What is very important to me is to see that my team takes ownership of the organisation’*. In practice team building takes a long time, and is a learning curve (10). The team acts as the public face of the organisation to both clients and potential customers (5 and 6). An operating team, with a shared ethos and motivation, assists in the communication of social mission and, is of major importance in addressing work/life balance for individual participants (4, 6, 7, and 10). To complement the entrepreneurial effort, staff need to be empowered (6), motivated (4); and their training requirements need to be identified (10, 7, 5 and 1), which according to a recent study of social enterprises in the United Kingdom, is a major drain on resources of time and money (Social Impact Consulting, 2013). Teams to be effective, need to be able to cope with the nature of the work, which involves adapting to changing situations (2), and also, teams need to develop through experience (2, 7, 9) Teams need to be balanced (1, 4, 7 and 9). Organisational requirements differ at different stages, recruiting selectively; bringing different skill sets into a team is an approach that is generally used (1, 2, 7 and 9).

An effective team is necessary for operating the organisation, while at another organisational layer; an effective board of management is required for both strategy and good governance. Attracting diversity and different skill sets to serve on boards is a requirement, and seen as an aid to individual entrepreneurs in matters of mentoring (5), strategy (6), sustainability (4 and 9), and advocacy (6).

4.3.5 Cross sectoral operation

Social entrepreneurs need to be adept at securing resources across the sectors (Seelos & Mair, 2005). Participants to the research access funding and resources across all of the sectors. One participant uses a combination of resources that include benefits from corporate social responsibility, social employment subsidies, earned income, and philanthropic grants (10). Another supplements earned revenue from provision of services with philanthropic grants (5).

Public funds in the form of grants, employment subsidies, or income for services provided are an important source of revenue for participants (2, 5, 6, 7 and 8). Public service

delivery by participant (5), is an important driver for the growth of social enterprise (Forfas, 2013, DTI, 2002). Social inclusion measures by government, through subsidized employment schemes, are the rationale for the social enterprise activity of participants (2 and 6).

Private (corporate) funding is the preferred option of participants (9 and 10), while private (philanthropic) funding is accessed by participants (4, 7, 8, 9 and 10). Private resources such as volunteers and acts of corporate social responsibility are also accessed by participants (1, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10). Income from the market place activities is a key indicator of social enterprise, and is pursued by participants (2, 5, 6, 7 and 10), while commercial opportunities are investigated in the social innovation approach to underpin future sustainability (4, 8 and 9). For some participants, dealing with the private sector is more straightforward (7 and 9). Trying to secure funding is easier if you can show the impact of what you are doing (9 and 10).

Cross sectoral engagement by participants may be problematic. Engaging with the public sector can be challenging (4, 5, and 6). Public funding is volatile, so that reality must be adapted to (2 and 6). Participants experienced in operating work integration enterprises, which use public funds, expressed lack of technical support (5), and lack of understanding about the social enterprise sector (6), by public bodies. Participants are also anxious that the services they provide either on behalf (6) of government, or by complementing existing public services (4), will not affect their identity as autonomous organisations.

Other participants stress the necessity to have a good working relationship with the public sector (2, 7, and 8). It takes time to build relationships with the public sector (7). Participant (2) recognises the difficulties the public sector faces, and strives for transparency in his dealings with it, whilst welcoming any audits or evaluations his organisation must undertake. This is also borne out by participant (8) who states: *'I wouldn't be a public sector basher'*, and believes that following procedures and repeated application processes for funding, is actually a benefit to his organisation. It must be pointed out that apart from philanthropic support, this participant envisages his organisations long term funding source as public (8).

4.3.6 Issues of Identity Management

In 4.3.3 it was noted that participants, generally involved in older social value creation organisations (1,2 and 5), displayed a resistance to identifying their work as socially

entrepreneurial, in contrast to those who had emerged from a competitive process, to secure recognition and support from philanthropic organisations that champion the concept of social entrepreneurship (4, 7, 8 and 9).

At another level, identity management of organisations engaged in social value creation is a significant issue for social entrepreneurs/enterprise. Social entrepreneurship involves both social and financial goals and results in organisational hybrids, pursuing both (Bacq and Janssen, 2011) Tension that can arise between commercial and social goals of organisations, when pursuing earned income to sustain social mission (Dees 1998, Tracey and Philips 2007). Is an organisation a social or a commercial entity? Confusion in that respect can lead to reputational damage loss of community and public support, which recent events in the charity sector in Ireland attest to. Management of social entrepreneurial identity is a key requirement for social entrepreneurial activity, and needs to be educated for (Tracey and Philips 2007). Examples from the interviews of issues related to identity include:

- A non-profit social enterprise needing to distinguish itself from work integration social enterprises, and the social economy in general (5)
- Identity as a tool to explain productivity gaps by organisations offering employment opportunities to intellectually challenged clients (6)
- Concerns that organisational autonomy might be compromised by an inability to distinguish the activities of your organisation from existing public services (4, 6 and 8)
- Distinguishing operation from a charity, educating clients on why they should pay for services (7)

4.4 Requirements and Competencies

Having considered the problems and challenges typically faced by participants, the theme of requirements and competencies necessary for social entrepreneurial activities which emerged from the interviews are presented.

4.4.1 Personal qualities and value of the experiential

A general view amongst participants is the necessity for commitment and passion when undertaking and maintaining this work (4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10):

- *'You need to have belief; you absolutely have to believe in what you're doing. If you hadn't belief and passion, you would have been blown out of it a long time ago'. (6)*

- *'it's the intention and the passion to do something about a problem, is a much bigger part of the success formula' (8)*
- *'I suppose the difference between entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship, there's a lot more passion involved because its close, it's touching people, the projects' .(4)*

Traits of passion, belief, courage (4 and 6), and energy (1 and 8), are referenced by participants, as necessary requirements in pursuit of their social mission

Experience is also a stated requirement for this type of work across the range of interviews. The value of experience applies equally for participants engaged in older type of organisations that pre-date the phenomenon of social entrepreneurship (1, 2, 5 and 6) as well as participants leading newer type of organisations getting bespoke support from philanthropic organisations (7, 8 and 10). Participants begin this work tentatively, having little formal training in this area (2) gaining confidence through the process over time (5, 7 and 10). The idea of learning from failure is important for one participant (8), while another values experience over any particular skillset (2). The value of experience, particularly in relation to making and learning from one's mistakes is stressed throughout the interviews (1, 2, 5, 7, 8, and 10):

- *'even the mistakes and where everything went wrong, it was necessary to become where I am right now' .(7)*
- *'We've made all the mistakes really, that's the advantage of being around for thirty years' (1)*

Ultimately, traits such as passion and commitment and attributes such as learning from one's mistakes are common to all entrepreneurs (Masseti, 2008), and accordingly do not inform as to what particular competencies and skills are required for social entrepreneurial activities. To that end, participants were asked what skills and competencies are necessary for the work they engage in.

4.4.2 Participant views on required skills

A range of required skills and competencies given by participants is presented in Table 6.0. The table lists the various responses given by participants, as well as identifying the participant, and the approach taken to social value creation.

Skill/Requirement	Participant	Approach
All round skills, a bit of everything Financial, personnel, good administrator, ability to deal with public sector	2	SE
Mixed skill set required	4	SI
Wide range of skills	8	SI
Business Skills	1	CO-OP
Training required is in growing the business	5	SE
Business skill requirement.	6	SE
Team Building	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10	SE/SI
Very good communication skills, be able to read people, a good sales person, be able to encourage enthusiasm	3	n/a
People Skills(Communication skills)	10	SE/SI
Getting people to share vision	8	SI
Get shared motivation with team	4	SI
Adapting to change	2, 4	SE,SI
Public Relations/ Relationship building	8	SI
Fundraising skills	8, 9 10	SI

Table 6 Required skills /Participant Views

For participants (2, 4, 6 and 8), their work requires a general skill set. Financial, personnel management, and administration skills are referenced as requirements by participant (2), stating that you need:

A bit of everything really, you know. You can have a team around you that have the different qualities, in those specific areas. But you must have a bit of everything yourself, because you are really dealing with so many different strands, and different public bodies' (2)

Given the pervasive theme of the necessity to generate income or funding, which was explored in 4.4.2 there was an expectation that appropriate skills to achieve this would feature amongst the responses. Business skills were stated as a required competency by (1, 5 and 6). Financial skills are important for (2): *'Definitely financial is so important, because you must have the structures in place'*. Participants (1 and 5) indicate a requirement for skills in business growth. State supported social enterprise (Community Services Programme) is criticized for not providing adequate support to encourage commercial growth in the sector (5, 6). The requirement for business skills to manage and grow the activity, emanates largely for the social enterprise approach (2, 5 and 6), where integrated economic activity is the approach taken to social value creation.

The emphasis on business skills to generate income is not stated by participants associated with a social innovation approach (4, 7, 8 and 9), although both (4 and 9) seek the involvement of the business community as advisors, particularly with regards to sustainability strategies. Fundraising skills are a necessary competency for participants (4, 8, 9 and 10). These participants undergo training in sustainability as part of bespoke support given by a philanthropic organisation. This training considers future funding and income generation opportunities for organisational sustainability. A foundation in business skills allied to specific social entrepreneurial skills such as identity management and operations in a cross sectoral environment, is recommended in a number of studies on the education of social entrepreneurs (Tracey and Philips, 2007; Pache and Chowdry, 2012) Social Entrepreneurship education is also embedded in business schools internationally (Brock and Steiner 2009). However a general requirement for business skills is not stated by participants.

Soft skills, defined as 'Personal attributes that enable someone to interact effectively and harmoniously with other people' (OED 2015), feature prominently in participant's requirements. Given the nature of socially entrepreneurial activity, with an emphasis on stakeholder involvement (Dees 2001), cross sectoral operations (Wolk 2007), and identity management (Philips and Tracey 2007), this is unsurprising. Building and leading a team effectively, and the creation of a supportive board of management, points to a requirement for a number of 'soft' skills such as leadership, motivation, relationship management, what (10) calls 'people skills'. Participants reference creating a shared vision (8) generating enthusiasm (3), and creating a shared motivation within a team (4). Leadership is about helping your team cope with a changing environment political, social and economic environment (2).

The cross sectoral nature of activities suggested a difficulty for some participants, in their dealings with the public sector. Soft skills (relationship management, negotiation skills), informed by knowledge of the workings and rationale of public sector management, are indicated. Pache and Chowdry (2012) hold that given the cross sectoral nature of social entrepreneurship; the different logics at work in the different sectors need to be understood, and that a supplemental skill for social entrepreneurs is required in this regard. It also points to the possibility of a training requirement for specific interactions with the public sector, such as applications for funding, and tendering to deliver public services. In the United Kingdom, procurement officials within local government and social enterprises required training in the tendering process for social enterprises. In the policy document ‘Social Enterprises: a Strategy for Success’ (2002) stated:

If social enterprises are to contribute effectively to the delivery of customer focused, cost-effective public services, then local authority procurement officers need to be fully aware of the characteristics and value that social enterprises can offer. The Government is committed to working with local authorities to address the current ‘knowledge gap’. (DTI 2002, p4)

The theme of impact measurement suggests a requirement for quantitative skills. However, given the evolving nature of the impact measurement policy landscape, the ability to offer a qualitative interpretation of those aspects of social value creation, not amenable to quantification, is also required (Nicholls 2009). Impact measurement is also linked to identity management. The ability to conceptualise the organisation/activity as led by a mission to create social value, using or seeking to use innovative approaches delivering that mission, while accepting the need for measurement of the value it creates, not only distinguishes the organisation/activity from other third sector organisations and activities; but in doing so is an aid to sustainability (Nicholls 2009; Ormiston and Seymour, 2011)

Summary

In this analysis themes identifying social entrepreneurship, the social entrepreneur, the challenges they face, as well as skill requirements were presented. Organisations and individuals were uniformly engaged in a mission to primarily create social value. This mission is underpinned by public monies, privately earned income from economic activity and fundraising, using a social enterprise or social innovation approach. Participants indicate that life experience is a key motivation for engagement in social entrepreneurial activities. Participants do not necessarily identify as, or understand the concept of, the social entrepreneur.

Participants work in an environment where they experience ambiguity and change. The need to engage in economic activity or secure funding which underpins the social value creation activity is a constant challenge for participants. Impact measurement is acknowledged more readily by organisations adopting a social innovation approach. Other challenges are the need to build an effective team and ability to operate across sectors, and managing the identity of participant's organisation

Requirements for such challenges include personal traits such as passion energy and, determination. Additionally, the value of experience is stressed in the interviews. Participant views on skill requirements focus on a general skill set, encompassing business skills/fundraising with soft skills equally prominent. Soft skill sets are a necessary requirement in dealing with the main problems and challenges examined.

Chapter 5.0 Analysis of Quantitative Training Needs Questionnaire

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the quantitative analysis of training needs assessment for a sample of 115 individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activity is presented. Using descriptive, and where appropriate inferential, statistics generated by SPSS, information on these individuals and their organisation is analysed. The method used to calculate training needs for individuals is explained. Overall training needs are generated and cross tabulated by role and organisational type. Training needs are presented, analysed, and interpreted. The contexts for delivery of training needs are examined.

5.2 Respondent Information

The gender split amongst respondents was 56% Female and 44% Male (Figure 1). Respondent age ranged from 27 -77 years of age, with a mean of 50 years of age (Figure 2).

Figure 1 Respondent Gender

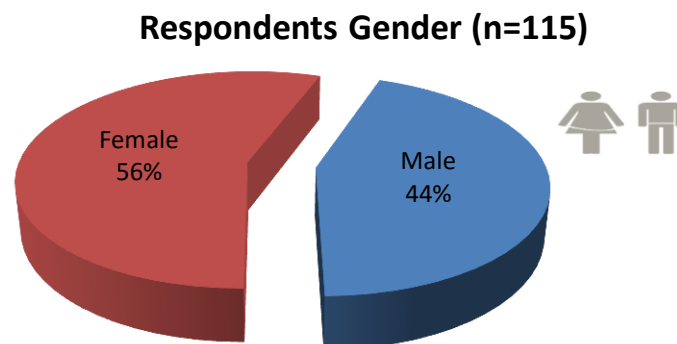
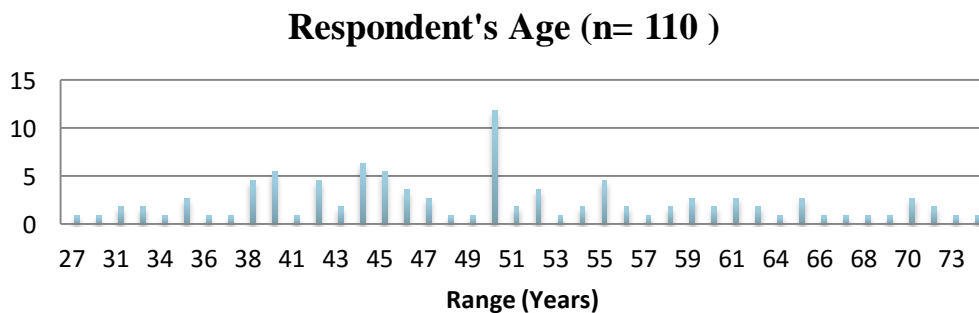


Figure 2 Respondent's Age

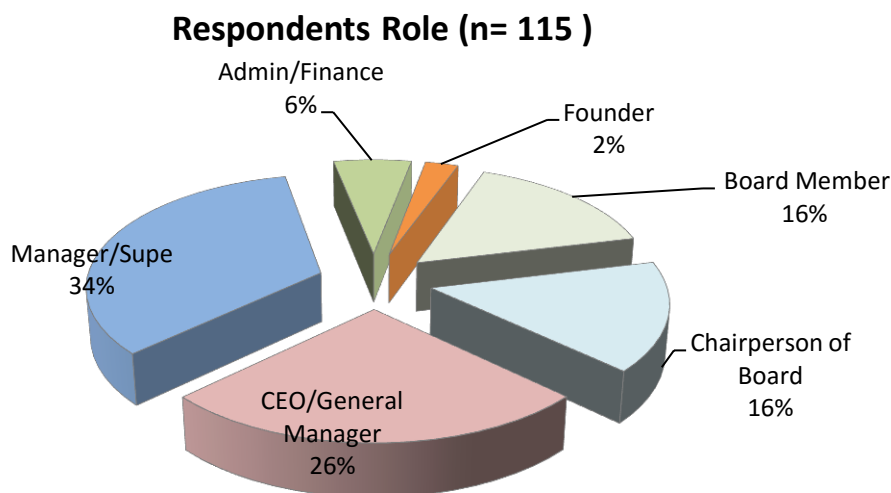


Respondent Roles

Respondents were asked to indicate what role they played in their organisations, how long they were performing in that role. The most prevalent role amongst respondents (Figure 3) was that of Manager Supervisor (34%), followed by CEO/General manager (26%), with board members and chairpersons of boards both at (16%). The analysis will focus on these roles. Two other role descriptors, that of Admin/Finance (6%) and Founder (2%) were reclassified from comments made in 'Other' and were not offered to respondents in the original survey.

Cross tabulating gender and role, 51% of male respondents were involved at board level (member or chair), while 39.2% were either CEO's (13.7 %) or manager/supervisor (25.5%). In contrast, 76.5% of female respondents operate at management levels of CEO (35.9%) or Manager /Supervisor (40.6%), while at board level female representation is significantly lower at (15.6%). A statistically significant relationship is indicated for gender between the roles of Chairperson and Manager ($p=0.006$), and that of Board Member and Manager ($p=0.006$)

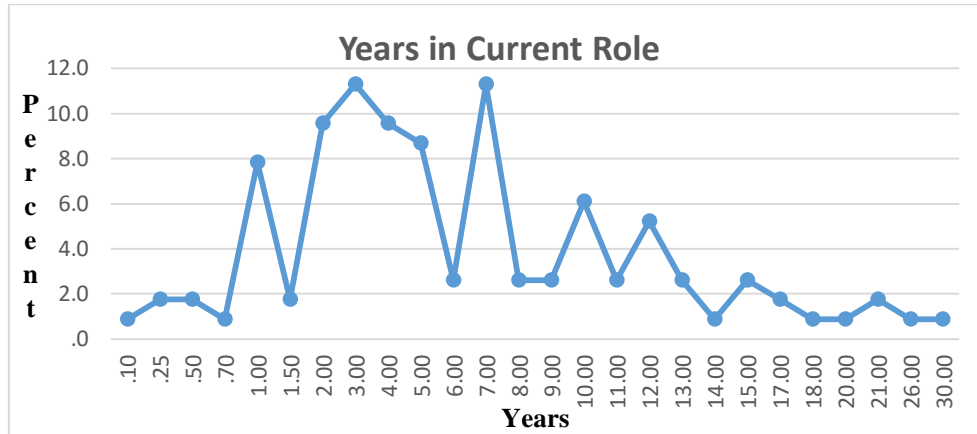
Figure 3 Respondent's Role



Length of service by respondents in stated current roles (Figure 4) was in the range of 0 – 30 years, with the average length of time spent in those roles at 6.7 years. Fifty-four

percent (54 %) of respondents were in their role for 5 years or less, while 25 % of respondents were in their roles between 5 and 10 years.

Figure 4 Years in current role



Respondent Summary

The respondent profile indicates maturity (mean of 50 years of age), more likely to be female than male, with involvement in an organisation for an average of 7 years. The majority of respondents (79%) are in their role for 10 years or less. Respondent primary roles were: Manager Supervisor (34%, n=39); CEO/General manager (26%, n=30), Board members (16%, n=18) and Chairpersons 16% (n=18).

5.3 Organisations associated with Respondents

Respondents were asked to ‘best describe ‘their organisation from a pre-set list of types. The types offered are reflective of social entrepreneurial practice, research and policy landscape in Ireland, which was outlined in section 2.6. Choices offered to respondents were:

1. *A social enterprise, trading for a social purpose, under the terms of the Community Services Programme (Pobal)- (SE Pobal)*

State supported social enterprise administered by Pobal typically represent -‘community and voluntary organisations currently classified as social enterprises and in receipt of statutory support designed to stimulate the social economy (Curtis, O’Shaughnessy and Ward, 2011/p2).

2. *A social enterprise , trading for a social purpose, re-investing any surplus in that purpose (SE)*

Social enterprises, as per the European social enterprise school, typically using work integration schemes producing goods and services (Clarke and Eustace, 2009; O’Hara and O’Shaughnessy, 2004)

3. *An organisation established to address a social issue, pursuing earned revenue (opportunities)to ensure sustainability (SI)*

Reflecting organisations established as social entrepreneurial ventures (Wolk, 2007; Social Entrepreneurs Ireland, 2015), not necessarily engaged in trading but pursuing income for mission sustainability.

4. *Co-operative trading for a social purpose.(Co-Op)*

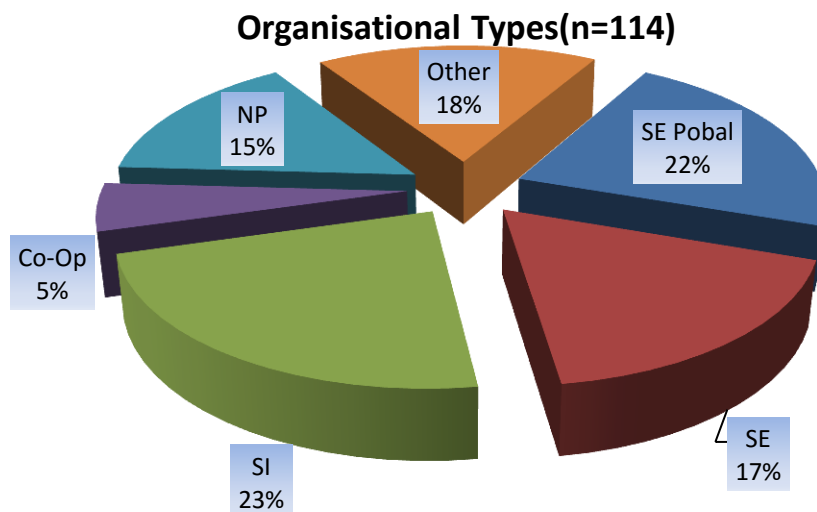
The Co-operative form is associated with the phenomenon and growth of social enterprise in many European jurisdictions (DeFourny and Nyssens, 2008)

5. *A non-profit organisation considering earned revenue strategies (NP)*

Non - profit organisations pursuing earned revenue are the main driver of social entrepreneurial activity in the United States. (Boschee and McClurg, 2003; Ryan, 1999)

6. *Other: Uncategorized organisational types.*

Figure 5 Respondent’s Organisational Types



The types chosen by respondents to best describe their organisations are presented in Figure 5. Respondents ‘best described’ their organisations as social innovation (SI) type 23%,

state supported social enterprise under the Community Services Programme (SE Pobal) type 22%, social enterprises (SE) type 17%, non-profit (NP) type at 15%, co-operative (Co-Op) type 5%, and other at 18%.

Table 7: Age of Organisations

Age of Org	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16- 20 years	20 years >.
% of Orgs	25.8	16.9	23.6	12.4	21.3

The age range of respondent’s organisation was between 0 – 80 years, with an average age of 15 years for an organisation. The concentration of organisations across the range is given in Table 7. At either end of the range, 25.8% of organisations are less than five years old, while 21.3% are greater than twenty years old. Overall 42.7% of organisations are 10 years old, or less.

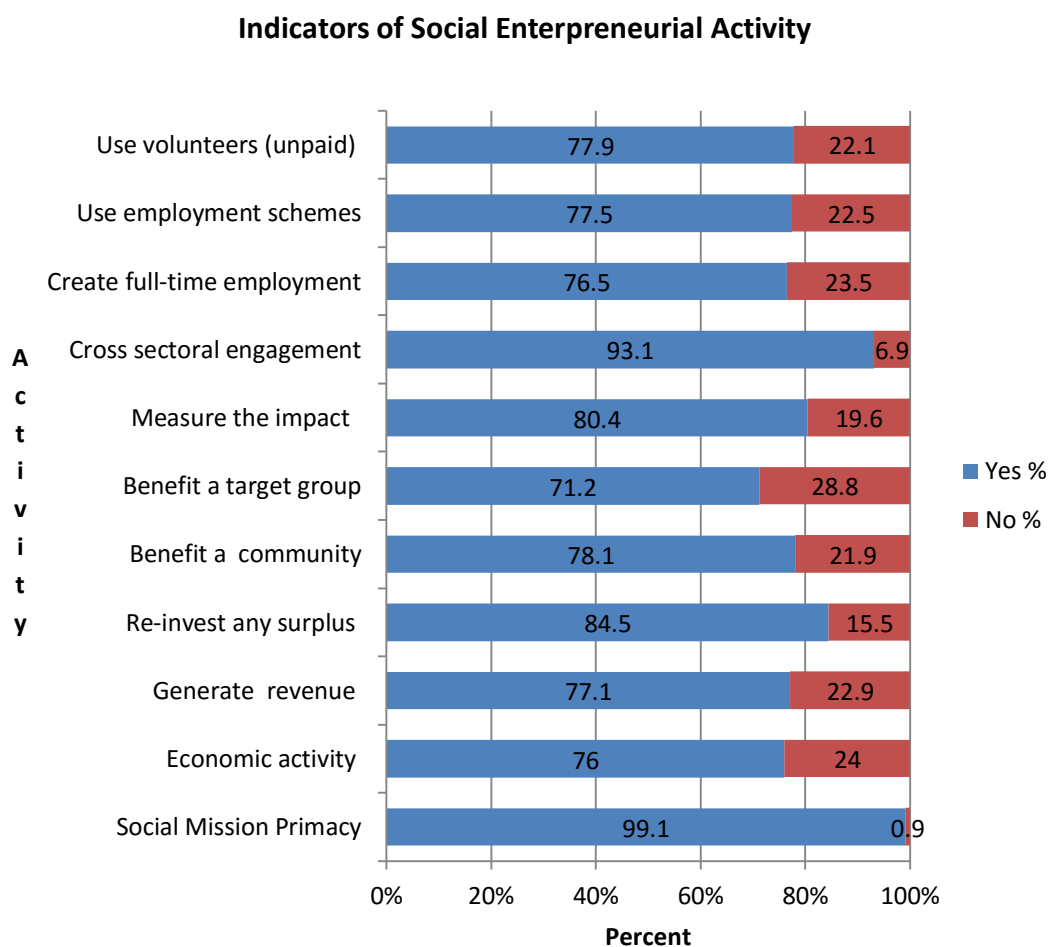
Indicators of Social Entrepreneurial Activity

Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not their organisations had certain characteristics associated with social entrepreneurial, non-profit, and social economic activity. These characteristics were derived from the literature. Key social and economic indicators such as primacy of social mission (Dees 2001), operating across sectors (Wolk 2007) generating income from economic activity (Defourny and Nyssens2012), and non - distribution of any surplus (DTI 2002, Forfas 2013). Indicators of the local and community based nature of much social enterprise (Shaw and Carter, 2007), the use of volunteers, which is prevalent in social entrepreneurial activity (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006) were included. Also included were the use of publicly subsidised employment scheme which are associated with social enterprise in Ireland (Clarke and Eustace, 2009; Curtis, O’Shaughnessy, and Ward, 2011), as well as the more recent indicator of measuring impact (Nicholls, 2009).

Information on innovation by respondent organisations was not elicited. The qualitative analysis indicated participant difficulty in relating to the theme of innovation. Given this, and the nature and timescale of this research, the position taken is that respondents organisations in using new approaches, and new combinations of resources to address social issues, are, prima facie, innovative.

The indicators for social entrepreneurial activity are presented in figure 6.

Figure 6 Indicators of Social Entrepreneurial Activity



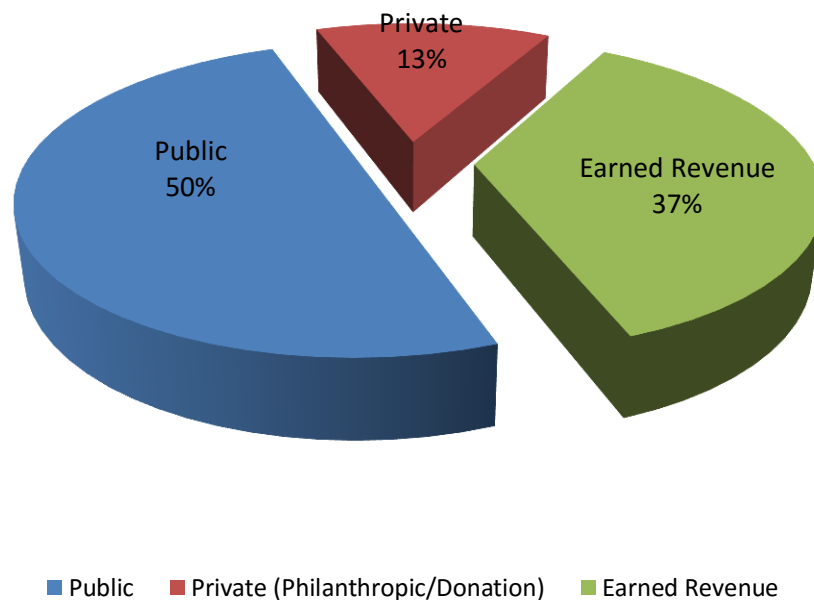
These indicators cross tabulated with organisational types ,chosen by respondents indicate that organisations identified as Social Enterprise (SE Pobal), Social Enterprise (SE), Social Innovation (SI), Co-Operatives (Co-Op) and Non-Profit (NP), have primarily a social mission (100%). Regarding economic indicators, overall respondent’s organisations engage in economic activity (76%), generate revenue from that activity (77.1%), create full time employment (76.5%) and re-invest any financial surplus generated (84.5%). These organisations engage across the sectors (93.1%), measure the impact (80.4%), and use both social employment schemes (77.5%) and volunteers (77.9%) in their activities. The majority of these organisations operate to benefit a particular geographic community (78.1%) or target group (71.2%).

An outlier generated in this analysis is that 12% (n=3) of SE Pobal types and 20 % (n=4) of SE types do not engage in economic activity to generate income, when this is a generally stated requirement in definitions of social enterprise (DTI, 2002; Forfas, 2013) In

4.1.1, the integrated economic and social value creation approach of social enterprise was distinguished. Absence of earned income was also noted in previous studies of social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland (Curtis, O'Shaughnessy and Ward, 2011; DKM, 2011; Prizeman & Crossan, 2011). A further outlier was that 40% (n=6) of organisations identified as non-profit (NP), indicated that they do not re-invest any generated surplus in social mission, when by definition this is what defines non-profit activity (Defourny, 2001) .

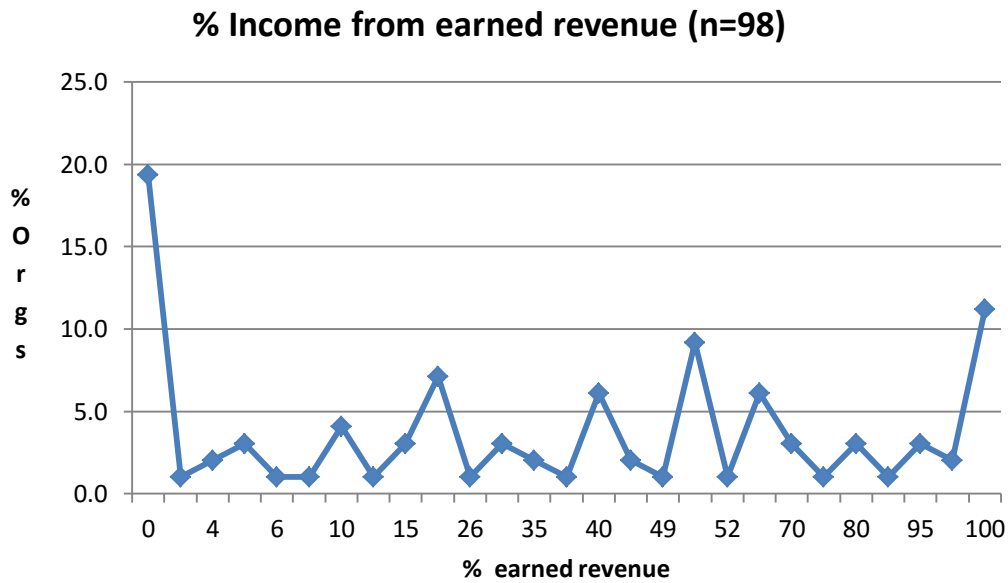
Figure 7 Sources of Primary Funding

Primary Funding Sources for Organizations



Overall, 67.8% of organisations access public funds, 63.5% generate earned income, and 33% access funding from private philanthropic sources (33%). The primary sources of funding for these organisations are public funding (50%), earned income (36.5%) and private/philanthropic sources (13.5%) (Figure 7)

Figure 8 Earned Income %



The range of Earned income levels is 0 -100%. At one end of the range 19.4% of organisations had no earned income, while at the other end 11.2% of organisations reported 100 % earned income. Fifty percent (50%) of organisations earned between 40 – 100 % of their income. The mean for earned income levels is 40.13%. (Figure 8)

Organisational Types summary

Respondent organisations (SE Pobal, SE, SI, Co-Op and NP) have a primarily social focus, and operate in a cross sectoral environment to benefit a particular community or target group. They generate income from economic activity, and generally re-invest any surplus in their social mission. There are variations between types in relation to levels of earned income from economic activity, and primary funding source.

5.4 Training Needs Assessment

The assessment of the training needs of a larger sample of socially entrepreneurial individuals is a key objective of this research. In question 12, respondents were asked to rate the importance of a range of activities in the performance of their work, while in question 13, respondents were then asked to rate their competence in performing those same activities. These activities were, identified by the literature review, and themes from the qualitative analysis of interviews with ten (10) individuals engaged in social value creation activities.

The requirement for particular skills sets is assessed by questions on:

- Measuring the impact of your organisation
- Fundraising/Earned Income strategies
- Business Management Skills (Financial/operational, administrative)

The requirement for soft skill skills is assessed by:

- Relationship building across all sectors
- Building an effective and committed team
- Giving leadership to the organisation
- Creating an active and supportive board
- Negotiating skills across all sectors
- Managing change
- Creativity and Problem solving skills

The theme of identity management informs questions on:

- Communicating social goal/mission /purpose effectively with stakeholders
- Distinguishing your organisation from others
- Public Speaking/PR

Table 8 Importance Scale reliability

The scale items used to measure importance in question twelve (Q12) were found to have a high level of internal consistency (a measure of reliability) indicated by a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.962

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.962	.961	13

Table 9: Competence Scale Reliability

The scale items used to measure competency in question thirteen (Q13) had a high level of internal consistency as indicated by a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.906

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.906	.909	13

Responses to questions 12 & 13 produced Likert scales of perceived importance and competency which are represented in Figures 9 & 10. Findings of high levels of importance (Likert 4: Important, and Likert 5: Very Important) were indicated by respondents across the range of activities: Communicating social mission 82%, Team Building 87%, Leadership to team/organisation 86% and Business skills 84%. Public Speaking/PR was deemed important by only 53% of respondents.

Associated varying levels of competency for these activities are displayed in figure 10. Of primary interest to this research are corresponding levels of lower competency (Likert 3: Uncertain of competence, Likert 2: Somewhat competent, Likert 1: Not competent) in activities deemed important by respondents. Lower levels of competency are indicated in: Impact Measurement 51%, Negotiating Skills 45%, Creating Active Board 44%, Managing Change 43% and Business skills (40%)

As per section 3.4.3 the research proceeds to quantify levels of importance versus levels of competence to calculate the perceived training needs of respondents. This approach is an adaptation and modification of the training needs analysis tool developed by Hennessy and Hicks (1997), which was outlined in section 3.4.3. The method used to calculate training needs for respondents is outlined in 5.4.1.

Figure 9 Respondents Importance Ratings of Activities

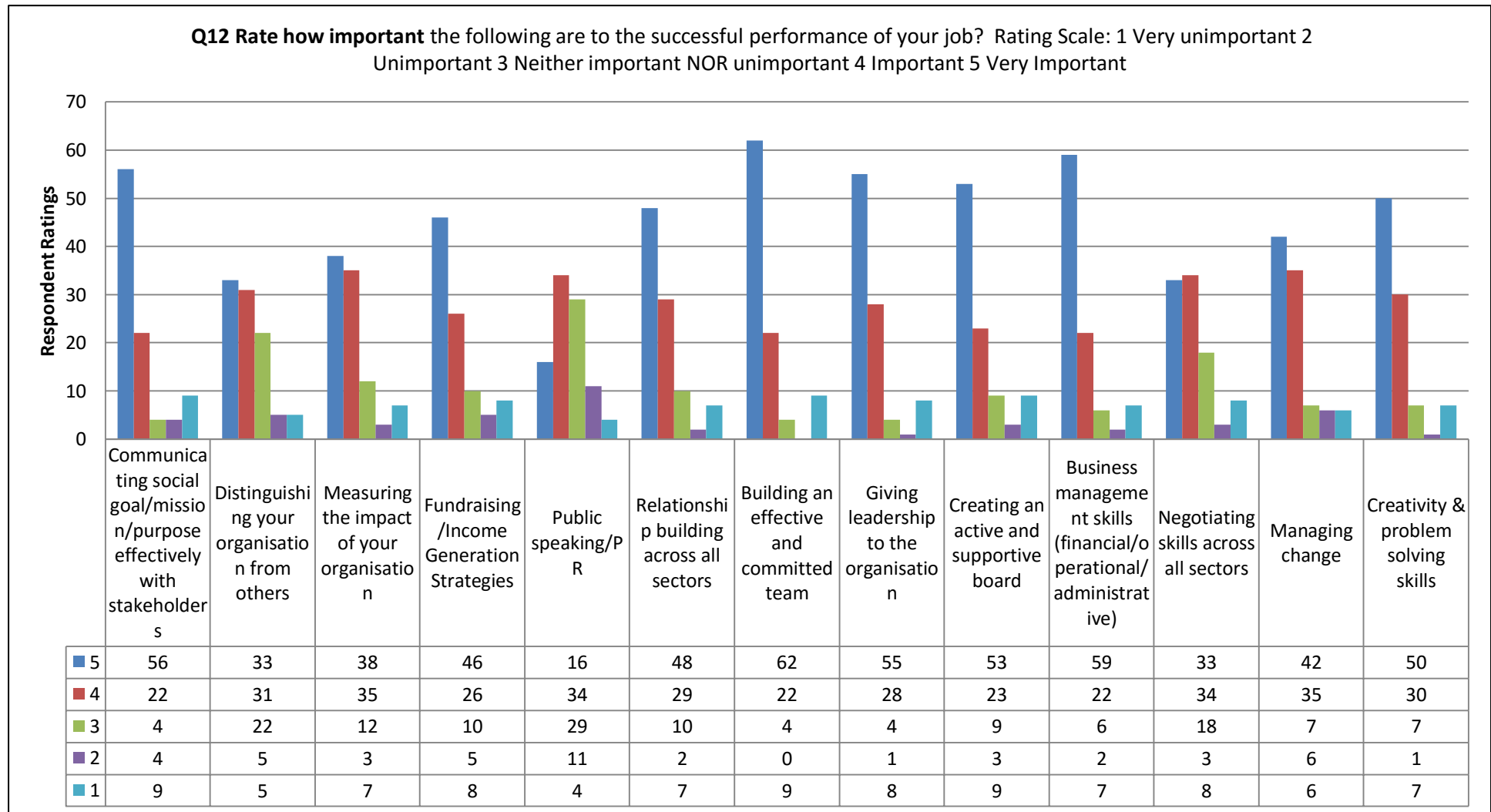
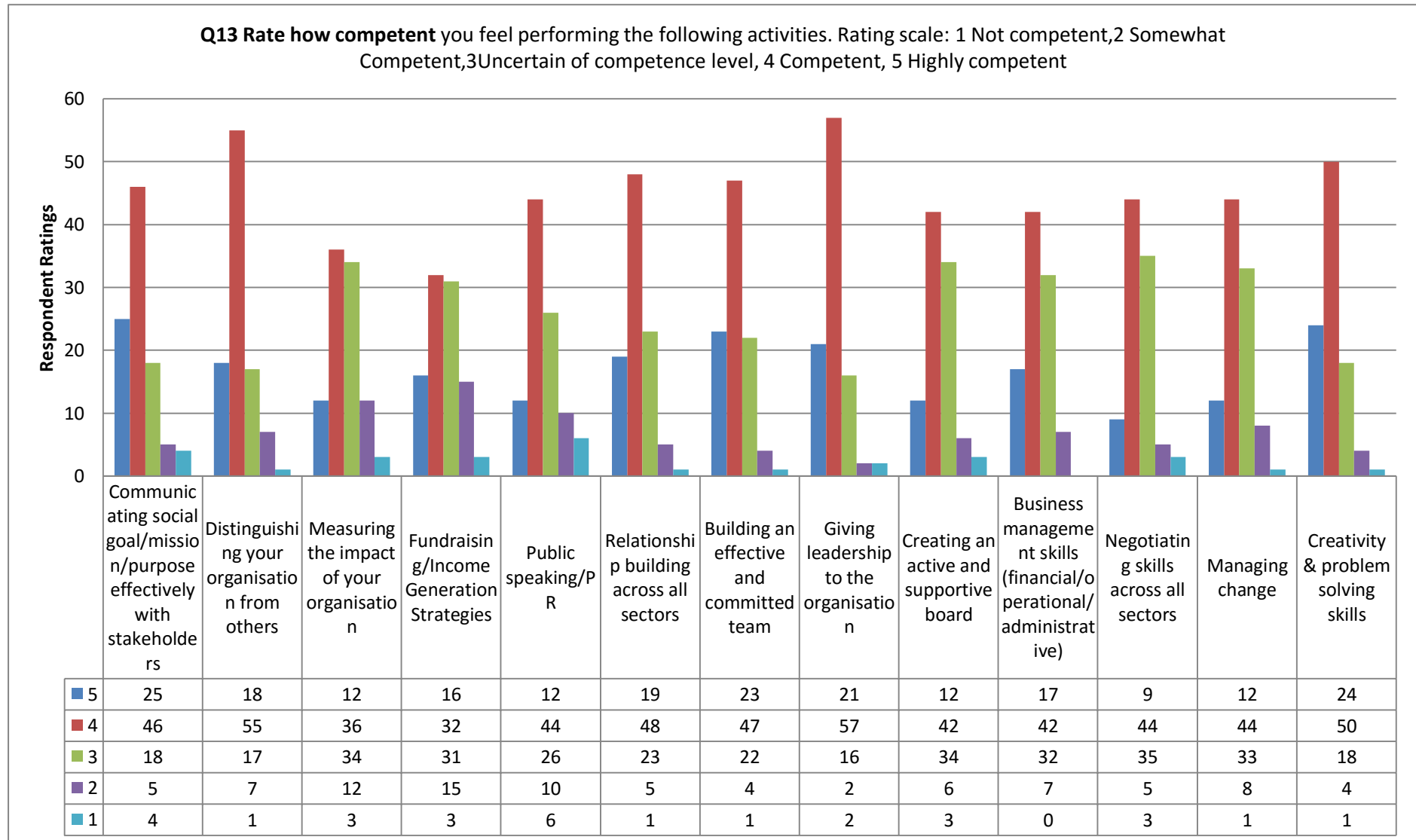


Figure 10 Respondent's perceived Competency levels



5.4.1 Method to Calculate Training Needs

By comparing levels of importance to levels of competence a training need is identified. The calculation needs to consider a number of permutations based on the importance of an activity, and the associated competency level. The method used was as follows: The Importance Likert scale was condensed into two new rankings, that of Unimportance and Importance:

- **Unimportance** (Combining Likert scale item # 1 Very unimportant, + item # 2-Unimportant, + item 3-Neither important nor unimportant), and assigned a value=1
- **Importance** (Combined Likert scale item # 4 – Important & item # 5-Very important),and assigned a value=2

The competency Likert scale was condensed into two new rankings: Not Competent and Competence

- **Not Competent** (Combining Likert scale item # 1 Not competent, + item 2-somewhat competent,+ item 3 Uncertain of competence level) and assigned a value=1
- **Competence** (Combined Likert item # 4-competent, + # 5-highly competent) and assigned a value=2

Table 10 Calculation of Perceived Training Need

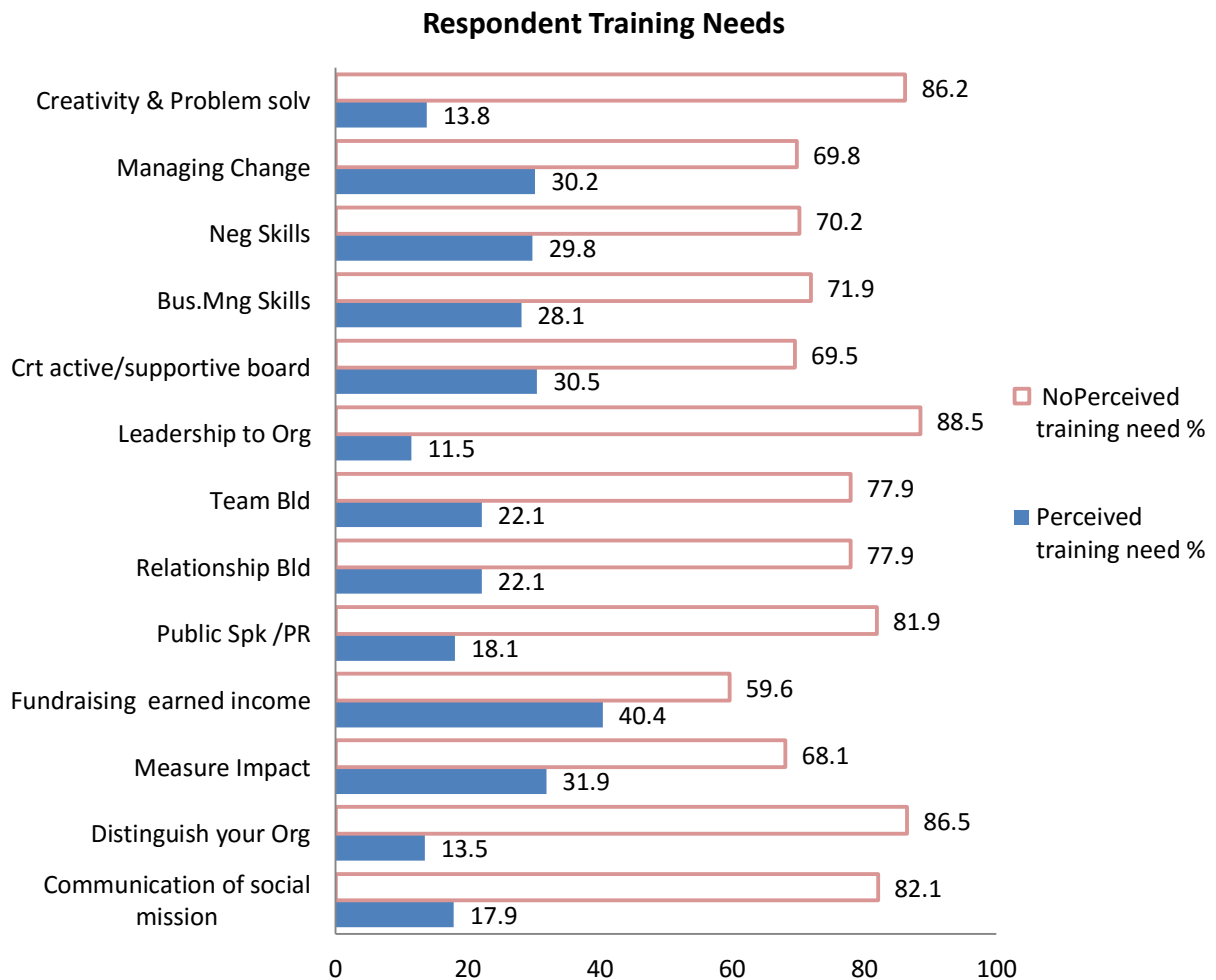
	Importance	Competence	Result	Training	Rationale
Calculation of perceived training need	2	1	1	Training Need	High Importance. Low Competence
	2	2	0	No training need	High Importance. High Competence
	1	2	-1	No training need	Low Importance. High Competence
	1	1	0	No training need	Low Importance. Low competence

By subtracting perceived competency from importance a training need is identified by a value = 1. A training need is perceived, where an activity is of high importance and low competency (Value =1). Where an activity is of high importance and high competency, no training need exists (Value= 0). Where an activity is of low importance and high competence, no training need exists (Value = -1). Where an activity is of both low importance and competence, no training need exists (Value = 0).

This is a perceived training need in that it is informed by respondent’s sense of competency performing stated activities. This calculation creates perceived training needs (PTN) for the overall sample which are represented in figure 11. These needs are based on a calculation of the importance of an activity versus the competency in performing that activity.

5.4.2 Overall Training needs of Respondents

Figure 11 Respondent Training Needs



Overall, perceived training needs are greatest in: Fundraising/Earned income (40.4%), measuring impact (31.9%). Training in business management skills was at 28.1%. Items measuring the softer skills: Creating an active and supportive board (30.5%), managing change (30.2%), and negotiating skills (29.8%), are also indicated. The items related to identity management indicated modest training needs in: Communication of social mission (17.9 %), Distinguishing your Organisation from others (13.5%) and Public Speaking/PR (18.1%).

5.4.3 Cross Tabulation of Role and Training Needs

Cross tabulating individual roles with the training needs calculation, allows comparisons in training needs between the different individual roles of respondents (Figure 12). Training is indicated as PTN % (Perceived Training need), no training need is indicated by NPTN % (No Perceived Training Need)

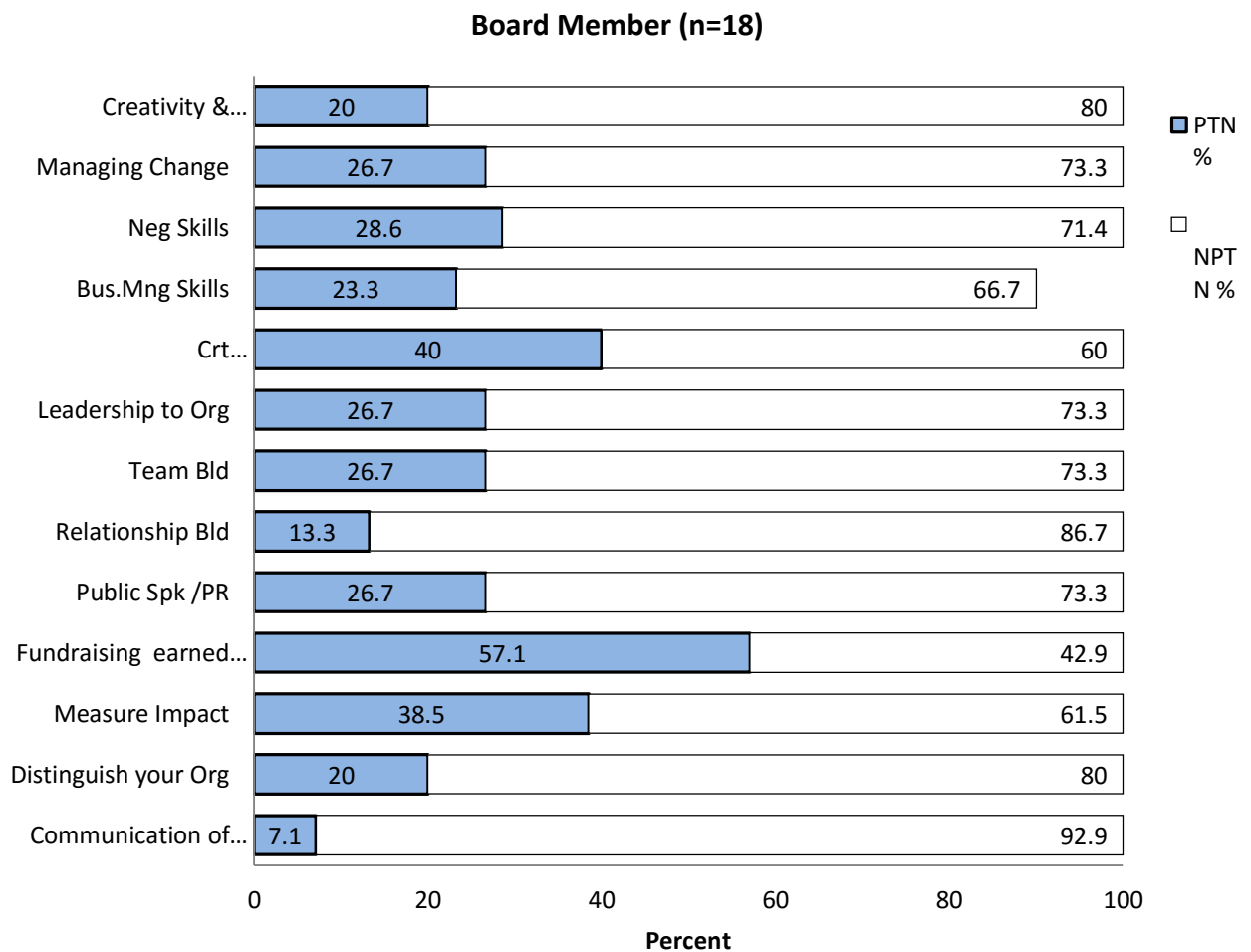
Figure 12 Role and Training needs cross tabulated

N	Role	Communication of social mission	Distinguish your Org	Measure Impact	Fundraising earned income	Public Spk /PR	Relationship Bld	Team Bld	Leadership to team	Crt active/supportive board	Bus.Mng Skills	Neg Skills	Managing Change	Creativity & Problem solv
18	Board													
	PTN %	7.1	20	38.5	57.1	26.7	13.3	26.7	26.7	40	23.3	28.6	26.7	20
	NPTN %	92.9	80	61.5	42.9	73.3	86.7	73.3	73.3	60	66.7	71.4	73.3	80
18	Chair													
	PTN %	20		26.7	53.3	14.3	33.3	40	13.3	20	46.7	53.3	46.7	20
	NPTN %	80	100	73.3	46.7	85.7	66.7	60	86.7	80	53.3	46.7	53.3	80
30	CEO/Gen													
	PTN %	18.5	18.5	40.7	44.4	14.8	19.2	22.2	11.1	26.9	22.2	23.1	18.5	11.1
	NPTN %	81.5	81.5	59.3	55.6	85.2	80.8	77.8	88.9	73.1	77.8	76.9	81.5	88.9
39	Mgr/Sup													
	PTN %	20	10	23.3	20.7	17.2	23.3	10.3	3.3	26.7	20	16.7	33.3	7.1
	NPTN %	80	90	76.7	79.3	82.8	76.7	89.7	96.7	73.3	80	83.3	66.7	92.9
7	Admi/Fin													
	PTN %	33.3	33.3	16.7	50	16.7	33.3	33.3	16.7	50	33.3	50	33.3	16.7
	NPTN %	66.7	66.7	83.3	50	83.3	66.7	66.7	83.3	50	66.7	50	66.7	83.3
3	Founder													
	PTN %			66.7	33.7	33.7				33.3	33.3	66.7	33.3	33.3
	NPTN %	100	100	33.3	66.3	66.3	100	100	100	66.7	66.7	33.3	66.7	66.7

Graphical representations of training needs for the individual roles are displayed in figures 13, 14, 15 and 16, listing the priority training needs. These needs are analysed in 5.5.

Training Board Member

Figure 13 Board Member: Training needs

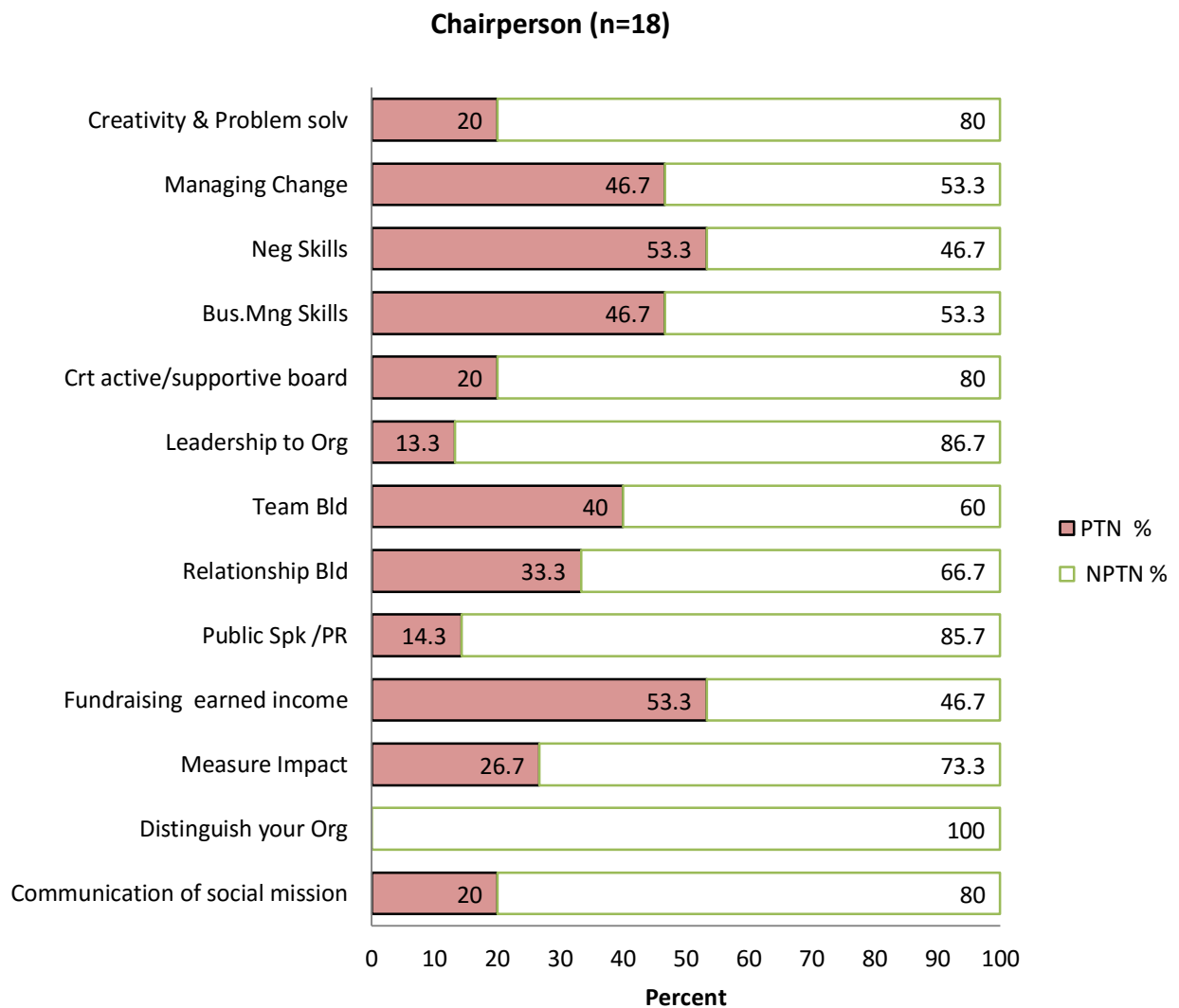


For the role Board member training requirements are indicated in

- Fundraising/Earned income (57.1%).
- Creating active/supportive board (40%).
- Measuring impact (38.5%).
- Negotiation skills (28.6%).
- Managing change/ public speaking/PR, team building, and leadership all (26.7%).

Training Chairperson

Figure 14 Chairperson: Training Needs

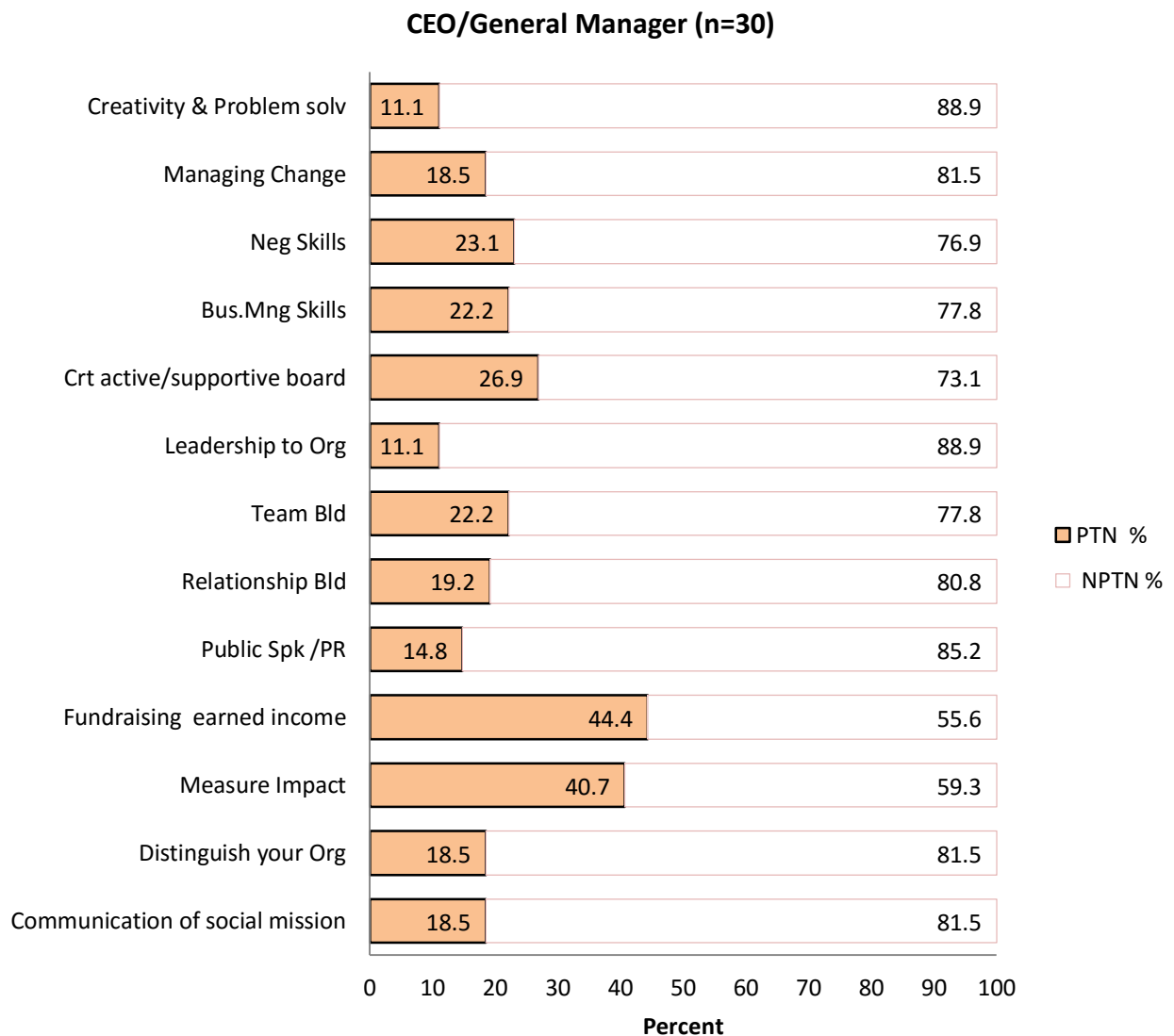


For the role of Chairperson, training requirements are indicated in

- Fundraising/earned income (53.3%).
- Negotiating skills (53.3%).
- Business management skills and managing change (both 46.7%).
- Team building (40%).

Training CEO/General Manager

Figure 15 CEO/General Manager: Training Needs

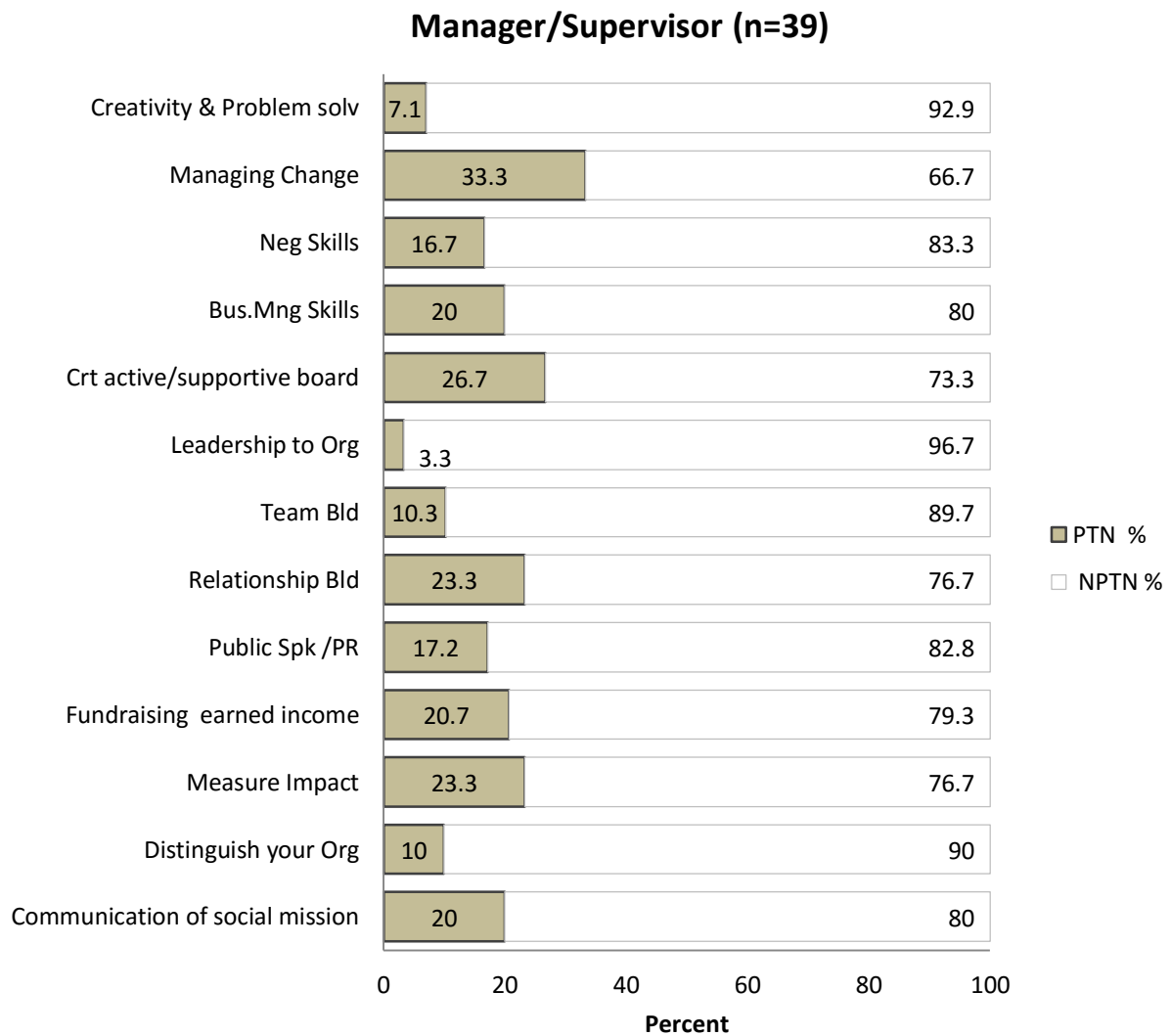


For the role CEO/General manager, training requirements are indicated in

- Fundraising/earned income (44.4%).
- Impact measurement (40.7%).
- Creating an active and supportive board (26.9%).
- Negotiation Skills (23.1%).
- Business Management Skills (22.2%).

Training: Manager /Supervisor

Figure 16 Manager/Supervisor: Training Needs



For the role of Manager/Supervisor training requirements are indicated in:

- Managing change (33.3%).
- Creating an active and supportive board (26.7%).
- Relationship building and Impact measurement both (23.3 %).
- Fundraising/Earned Income (20.7 %).

5.4.4 Cross Tabulation of Organisation and Training Needs

Cross tabulating organisational type identified by respondents with the training needs calculation across the range of activities, allows comparisons in training needs between different organisational types (Figure.17). Training is indicated as PTN % (Perceived Training need); no training need is indicated by NPTN % (No Perceived Training Need).

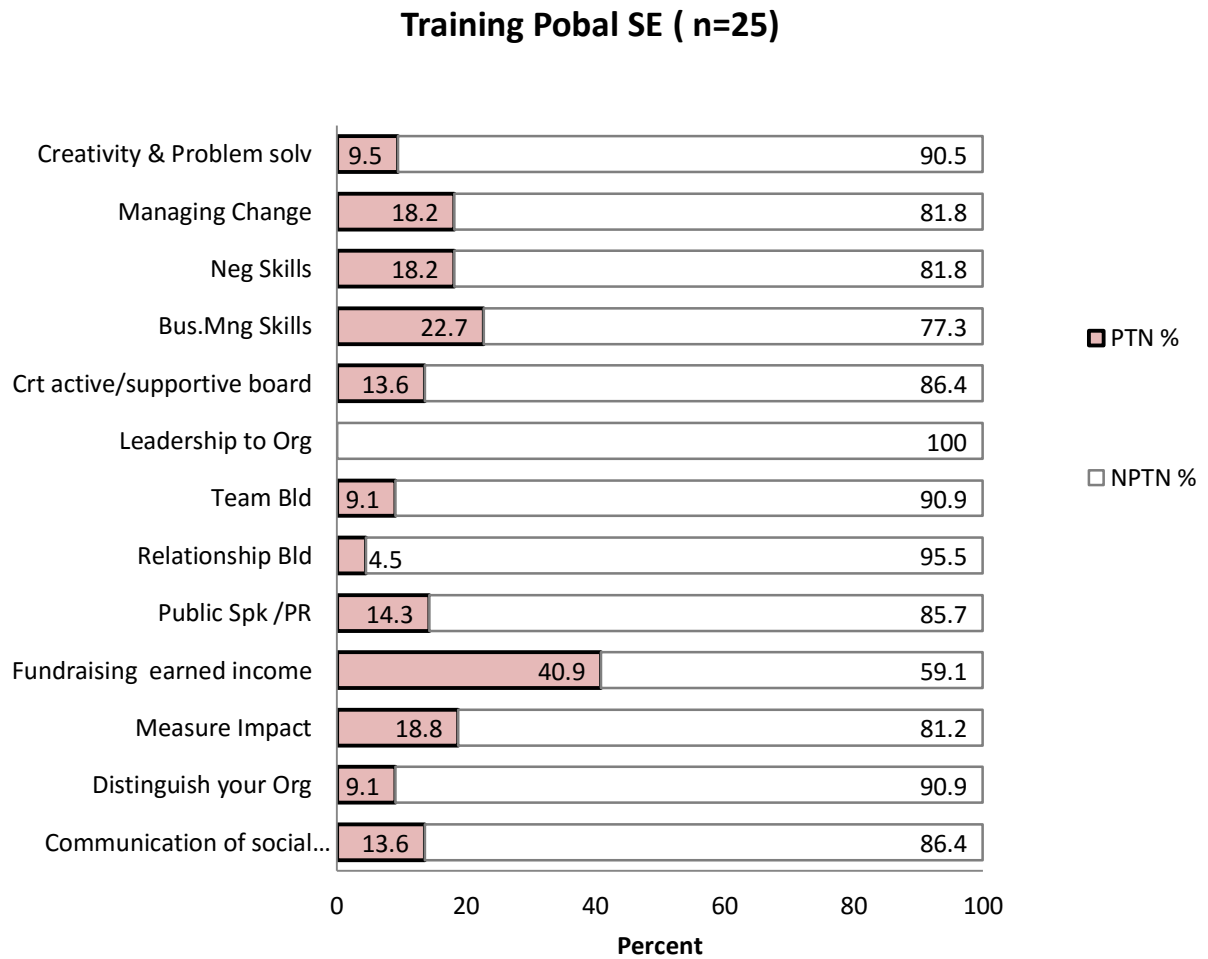
Figure.17 Cross Tab of Organisation and Training Needs

N	Org Type	Comm mission	Distinguish Your Org	Measure Impact	Funding/earned income	Public Spk /PR	Relationship Bid	Team Bid	Leadership to team	Create active board	Bus.Mng Skills	Ne g skills	Managing Change	Creativity & Problem solv
25	Pobal SE													
	PTN%	13.6	9.1	18.8	40.9	14.3	4.5	9.1		13.6	22.7	18.2	18.2	9.5
	NPT%	86.4	90.9	81.2	59.1	85.7	95.5	90.9	100	86.4	77.3	81.8	81.8	90.5
20	SE													
	PTN%	17.6	11.8	29.4	41.2		37.5	25	5.9	41.2	23.5	52.9	41.2	12.5
	NPT%	82.4	88.2	70.6	58.8	100	62.5	75	94.1	58.8	76.5	47.1	58.8	87.5
26	SI													
	PTN%	21.7	13	45.5	21.7	21.7	21.7	30.4	17.4	27.3	30.4	33.3	34.8	17.4
	NPT%	78.3	87	54.5	78.3	78.3	78.3	69.6	82.6	72.7	69.6	66.7	65.2	82.6
6	Co-Op													
	PTN%			50.0	50.0	16.7	33.3	33.3	33.3	16.7	16.7	33.3	50.0	33.3
	NPT%	100	100	50.0	50.0	83.3	66.7	66.7	66.7	83.3	83.3	66.7	50.0	66.7
17	NP													
	PTN%	18.8	12.5	31.2	46.7	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	31.2	18.7	6.3	18.7	6.2
	NPT%	81.2	87.5	68.8	53.3	87.5	87.5	87.5	87.5	68.8	81.3	93.7	81.3	93.8
20	Other													
	PTN%	27.3	33.3	27.3	63.6	50	41.7	33.3	16.7	58.2	58.2	58.2	33.3	16.7
	NPT%	72.7	66.7	72.7	36.4	50	58.3	66.7	83.3	41.7	41.7	41.7	66.7	83.3

Graphical representations of training needs for the major organisational types identified are displayed in figures 18, 19, 20, and 21.

Training Pobal SE

Figure 18 Social Enterprise SE (Pobal): Training needs

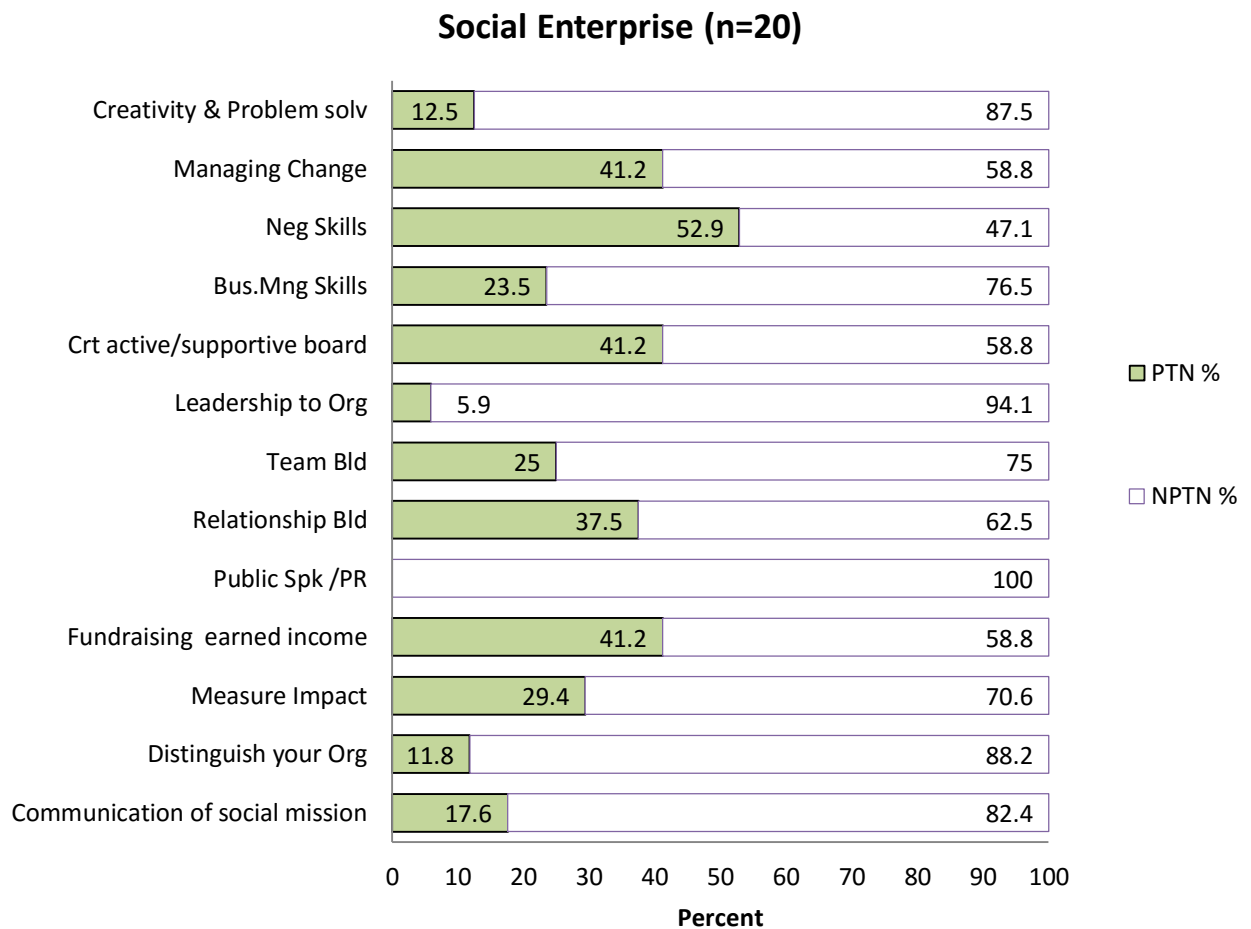


The sample strata identified as Pobal SE (A social enterprise, trading for a social purpose, under the terms of the Community Services Programme).

- Fundraising/earned income (40.9%).
- Business management skills (22.7%).
- Measuring impact (18.8%).
- Negotiating skills and managing change (both 18.2%) as perceived training needs.

Training Social Enterprise SE

Figure 19 Social Enterprise (SE): Training Need

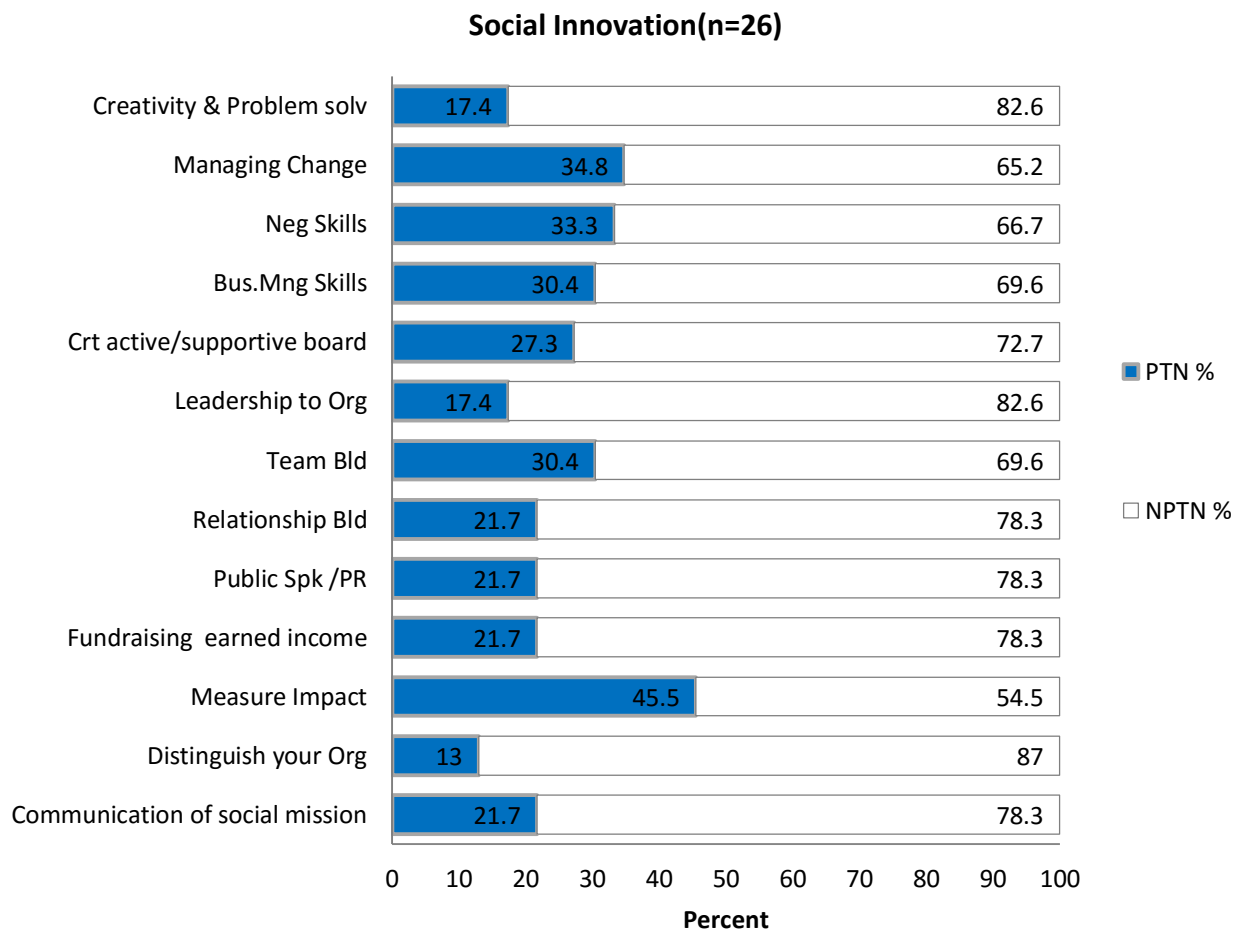


The sample strata identified as SE (A social enterprise, trading for a social purpose, re-investing any surplus in that purpose),

- Negotiating skills (52.9%).
- Fundraising/earned income, Creating an active and supportive board and Managing Change (all 41.2%).
- Relationship building (37.5%).
- Impact measurement (29.4%).

Training Social Innovation

Figure 20 Social Innovation Organisations: Training Needs

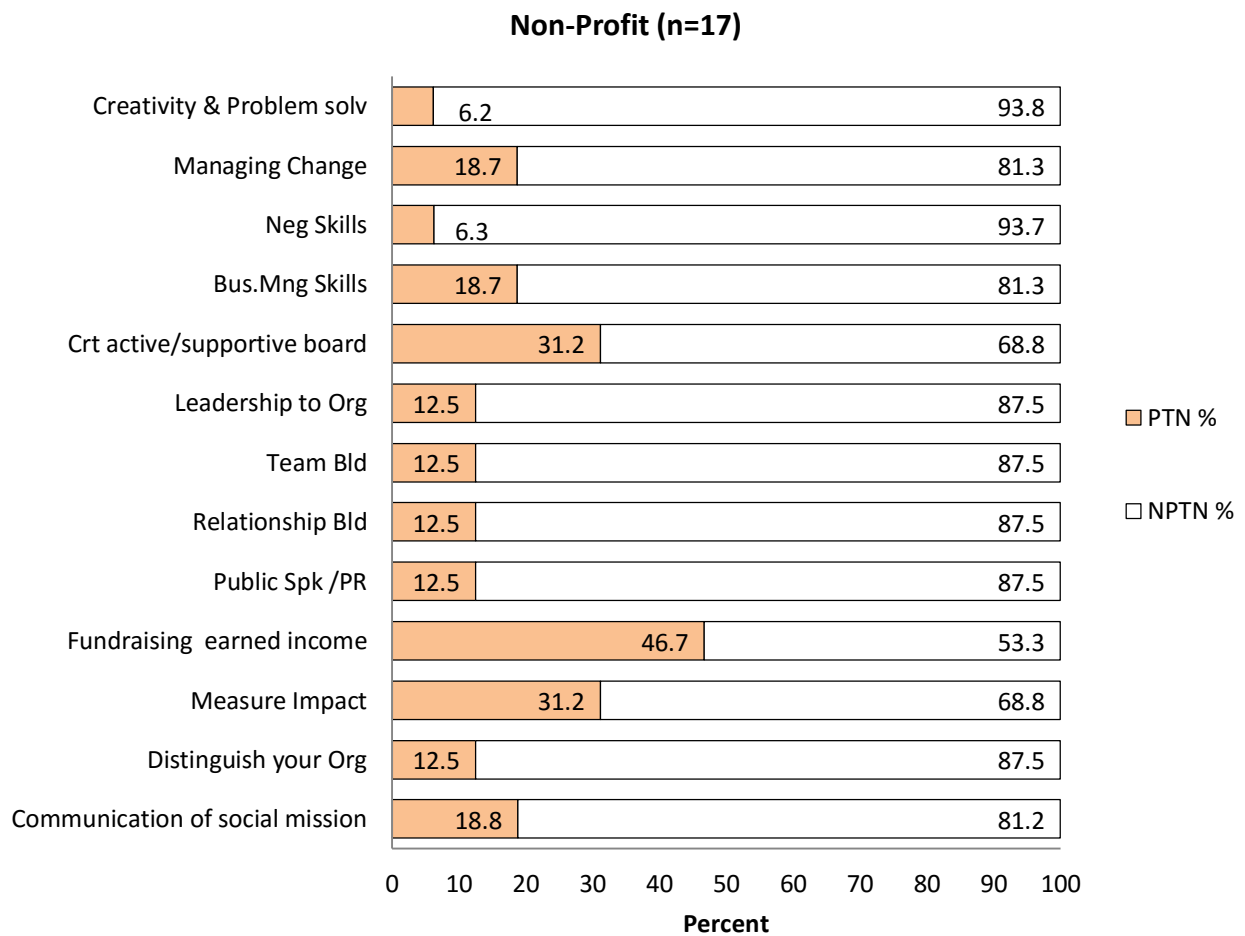


The sample strata identified as SI (An organisation established to address a social issue, pursuing earned revenue (opportunities) to ensure sustainability),

- Measurement of impact (45.5%).
- Managing change (34.8).
- Negotiating skills (33.3%).
- Business management skills and team building (both 30.4%).

Training Non-profit

Figure 21 Non-profit (NP): Training Needs



For the sample strata identified as Non-Profit (A non-profit organisation considering earned revenue strategies),

- Fundraising/earned income (46.7%).
- Creating an active and supportive board and (31.2%).
- Impact measurement (31.2%).

Based on the above findings of perceived training needs for individuals, and the types of organisations they represent, these needs are now analysed in section 5.5.

5.5 Analysis, Interpretation, and Mixing of elements

In this section an analysis of findings from the training needs assessment is presented, and their interpretation when mixed with the qualitative findings, is discussed.

Among the justifications for a mixed methods approach to research include the concept of ‘complementarity’ which ‘seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration, and clarification of results from one method with the results of another’. (Green et al. (1989), cited in Bryman, 2006, p 105). The training needs questionnaire set out to identify a sample of social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland and to assess the training needs of same. The research investigates to what extent the themes related to training, and skill requirements identified in the qualitative analysis are reflected in a larger sample of social entrepreneurial activity.

5.5.1 Fundraising/Earned Income

- In overall perceived train needs (Figure 11) the highest ranked training need for respondents was that of Fundraising/Earned Income at 40.4%.
- Training in fundraising/earned income was the highest ranked training need for the roles of board member (57.1%), Chairperson (46.7%), and CEO/General Manager (44.4%).
- Training in fundraising/earned income was the highest ranked training need for SE (Pobal) 40.9% and NP 46.7%. It is the second highest ranking item for social enterprise SE 41.2%, and for of social innovation SI organisations (21.7 %.)

In the qualitative analysis (Chapter 4) the necessity for income to underpin their social value creation activities, was a general requirement for participants. Generating income from economic activity is a key indicator for social enterprise (DTI, 2002, Forfas, 2013). In the qualitative analysis, a distinction was noted between social enterprises creating social value through an integrated economic activity, while the social innovation approach does not necessarily engage in economic activity.

Overall, respondents organisations engaged in economic activity (76%) and generated revenue from that activity (77.1%) As such, the research had an expectation that generating income from economic activity would be greater in both social enterprise types, and would be less in the category of social innovation and non-profit organisations which do not necessarily engage in trading to generate income. Generating income from activity for social

enterprises types were 92% for SE Pobal, 85 % for SE), and conversely 88.5% of social innovation organisations generated income from economic activity. Non-profit organisations generating income was at a comparatively lower level of 43.8%.

The relative positioning and importance of earned income for the different organisational types is illustrated by analysis of primary funding sources. For ‘*A social enterprise, trading for a social purpose, re-investing any surplus in that purpose (SE)*’, the earned income from economic activity is the primary source of revenue for 60% of those organisations. In contrast, a significantly lower level (29.2 %) of social enterprises under the Community Services Programme (**SE Pobal**) indicate earned income from trading as the primary source of funding. The primary funding source for SE (Pobal) organisations is public, at 66.7%. Curtis, O’Shaughnessy and Ward, (2011) have reported a lack of understanding of social enterprise, and a preference for non-earned revenue streams by some participants in the Pobal administered Community Services Programme, which offers a potential explanation of the disparity in income generation between social enterprise types.

Earned income, as a primary source of income is at comparatively lower levels in the other organisational types, which correspondingly have a higher dependency on public funding.

- Social Innovation (SI) - Earned income is a primary source of income for 38.5%; public funding is a primary source for 46.2%
- Co Operative (Co-Op)- Earned income is a primary source of funding for 33.3%; public funding is a primary source for 66.7%
- Non Profit (NP)- Earned income is a primary source of funding for 18.8%; public funding is a primary source for 62.5%

This high dependency on public funding in the social entrepreneurial sector was also noted in previous research (Clarke and Eustace, 2009; Curtis, O’Shaughnessy, and Ward, 2011).The need for support in income generation by SE (Pobal) was identified by Curtis, O’Shaughnessy, and Ward (2011), which found that 33% of respondents to their study indicated they required support in generating a traded income. Clarke and Eustace (2009,p61) in a study of social enterprise in the Irish social economy, refer to a ‘structural deficit’ of ‘Under developed management capacity in business management and enterprise development’. This, according to the authors, is due to the community based origins of much

social enterprise in Ireland and consequent lack of business and strategic management skills. In the qualitative analysis participant (5) cited a lack of support to 'grow the business' in social economy social enterprise. Both Clark and Eustace (2009) and Curtis, O'Shaughnessy and Ward (2011) noted the tendency, by participant organisations and public administrators, to perceive and administer social economy social enterprises as work integration schemes rather than enterprises. Accordingly, the focus is on training and work integration, rather than enterprise development. State supported social enterprise also operates under certain commercial and practical constraints, which curtail economic activities.

The data in this research points to a general training need in earned income/fundraising. It is the primary training need across the roles and organisational types. This concurs with the theme of necessity of income generation expressed by participants in the qualitative process, as well as previous research into social economy type social enterprises. The social entrepreneurial sector in Ireland is relatively underdeveloped (SEETF, 2012) having a high dependency on public funding .

5.5.2 Impact Measurement

The next highest ranking category of training needs for respondents is impact measurement (31.9%). Impact measurement is a growing requirement for social value creation activities (SICP, 2009; SBI, 2011). As an indicator of social entrepreneurial activity in this questionnaire (Figure 11), 80.4% of respondents stated they measured impact. Seventy-seven (77%) of respondents indicated that measurement of impact was important, while 51% of respondents expressed a lack of competency in impact measurement. No other information was sought on what methods or practices respondents used.

The research found that:

- Impact measurement was the second ranked training need for the role of CEO/General manager (40.7%), and for Board members the third highest ranking training need (38.5%).
- From an organisational perspective, it is the largest expressed training need by the Social innovation type at 45.5%. This finding highlights the importance of impact measurement to social innovation type organisations.
- For non –profit organisations (NP) it is the second highest category (31.2%).

- Social enterprises indicate that 29.4% of SE and 18.8% of SE (Pobal) have a training need in this area.

Given the competition for funding and resources across all sectors in recent times, impact measurement is to the fore in both practice and policy contexts of social entrepreneurship (Prizeman & Crossan, 2011). The theme of impact measurement explored in the qualitative analysis noted the distinction between older type organisations, measuring outputs but not impact, and those participants supported and encouraged to measure impact as part of support offered by a philanthropic organisation. Participants (4, 8 and 9) recognise the necessity to undertake impact studies to ensure access to funding: *'we need to know, but particularly our funders need to know, and particularly our state funders'* (4)

The study on social entrepreneurial enterprises in Ireland by Prizeman and Crossan (2011), offers some insights into impact measurement practices in Ireland. Findings in that study indicated that 73.7% of respondents measured 'the impact their organisation has in meeting its social aims and objectives aims and' (Prizeman and Crossan, 2011, p3). While the study found usage of recognised measurement systems such as Social Return on Investment (SROI), it also found that there was an over reliance on internal evaluations, and on the use of financial statements. Nicholls (2009) illustrates that a number of reporting practices, including use of financial statements can be used creatively by socially entrepreneurial organisations to present the impact of their activities. However impact measurement is a complex area. In the qualitative analysis, participant (8) states that the outputs of his organisation are relatively easy to quantify, but that; *'It's much more difficult to find out what is the impact it's had on a fella's life'* (8). He also refers to the difficulties encountered with multiple funders requiring different emphases in the type of impact reporting. The participant relates this requirement as onerous.

Ideally impact measurement should not be construed as an imposition, but as a tool that socially entrepreneurial organisations can use for communication and improvement (Nicholls, 2009; Ashoka, 2006). Similarly, Prizeman and Crossan (2011) suggest that measurement of impact should be a management strategy for those engaged in social entrepreneurial activity. This is borne out in the qualitative study by participant (4), who believes that proving the value of what you do is a key to sustainability in the sense that impact measurement is an elective practice that actually marks out socially entrepreneurial organisations.

Taking into account the relatively recent requirement for impact measurement, the research of Prizeman and Crossan (2011), and the inherent complexity of impact measurement, it is reasonable to state that training needs exist in this area. Training in impact measurement is a requirement to build the credibility of social entrepreneurship. Referring to the development of social economy enterprises, Clarke and Eustace (2009, p58) state:

The sector believes that it needs to generate a clear identity and to build a positive image for itself. It also needs to clearly articulate why it is an important sector and the benefits and impact it makes both to local communities and to the national economic and social fabric.

5.5.3 Team Building

The third highest ranked training need for respondents is in creating an active and supportive board (30.5%)

Table 11 Creation of active and supportive Board: Training Need

Board Creation	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	20%	26.7%	40%	26.9%

- Creating an active board was the second ranked training need for Board members (40%) and for Manager/Supervisor (26.7%). It is the third ranked need for CEO/General manager (26.9%)
- Creating an active and supportive board, is the second ranked training need for social innovation organisations (SI) - (27.3%), and the joint second ranked need for social enterprises (SE) - 41.2% and non –profits (NP) - (31.2 %)

In the questionnaire the activities related to team building were rated important by respondents: Creating an active a supportive board (78%) and Building an effective and committed team (87%). The corresponding competence levels were relatively high in Team building (72%) while competence at creating an active and supportive board was expressed by 56% of respondents.

The creation of a supportive board of management is a key requirement for participants of the qualitative research. Boards, normally involved in issues of governance and strategy, also support participants by mentoring (5), by advocacy (6), and assist in

revenue generating strategies (9). Organisations have different requirements at different stages of operations (1, 7, and 10), so it is important that board composition reflects this (5, 7, 9). Attracting board members with requisite skills is important task for participants. Participants (4 and 9) seek individuals with requisite business skills. Participant (9) believes the involvement of the business community advising on issues of sustainability, is a major benefit to his organisation

The importance of team building was a major theme of the qualitative interviews. *'They're the people that make it happen, you know?'* stated participant (2). Participants need effective teams to cope with pressures of work, to ensure ethos, focus on social mission, sustainability and succession (4, 6, 7, and 10).

Table 12 Team Building: Training Need

Team Building	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	40%	10.3%	26.7%	22.2%

Overall training needs in building an effective and committed team were 22.1%, indicated for the role of chairperson 40% and from an organisational perspective training is indicated for social innovation (SI) organisations at 30.4 % and social enterprises SE at 25%.

5.5.4 Soft Skills for respondents

In the qualitative analysis, the cross sectoral nature of social entrepreneurial activity, the focus on primacy of social mission, the mixed funding streams used, the necessity to build and lead a team, and the involvement and consideration of stakeholders, pointed to a number of soft skill requirements.

Managing Change

The activity of managing change was rated as important by 80% of respondents. Training in change management was the fourth highest ranked need for respondents (30.1%).

Table 13 Managing Change: Training Need

Managing Change	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	46.7%	33.3%	26.7%	18.5%

- Managing change is the highest ranked training need for Manager/Supervisor (33.3%) and the third highest need for the role of Chairperson (46.7%).
- Managing change was the joint second highest ranked training need for social innovation organisations (SI) - 34.8%, and joint second rank in social enterprise (SE) - 41.2%.

The qualitative analysis indicated how the changing environment, particularly in relation to funding, was a challenge for participants. Participants in the interviews experienced change, particularly in funding and programme priorities by governments (2, 5, and 6). This is encapsulated by the view: *'The adaptability to change, definitely that's a key because, in the line of work that we're involved in, I keep going back to the uncertainty of change (2)*. Social entrepreneurs need adaptive skills in response to changing circumstances (Alvord, Brown and Letts, 2004).

Cross sectoral negotiating and relationship building

Activities related to cross sectoral engagement and , and the need to manage multiple types of relationship, were included in the questionnaire, and indicated overall training needs for Negotiating across all sectors' at 29.8% - the fifth ranked overall training need. 'Relationship building across all sectors' was indicated for 22.1% of respondents.

The questionnaire indicated that 93.1% of organisations engage with other sectors in its work. Respondent's organisations interact with the public sector in a number of ways. Public money is the primary source of funding for 50% of organisations. Another relevant interface is that 77.5% use publicly funded community employment schemes in their work. In the case of SE (Pobal) organisations, they are funded, regulated and supervised by state bodies. The qualitative analysis also highlighted the cross sectoral nature of social entrepreneurial activity, and participant's experience, both positive and negative, in dealing with the public sector. Cross sectoral negotiating and relationship building are an integral part of social entrepreneurial activity. The literature also indicates that, cross sectoral engagement, managing multiple types of relationships is key task for social entrepreneurs. (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Tracey and Philips, 2007; Pache and Chowdry, 2012)

Table 14 Negotiating Skills: Training Need

Negotiating Skills	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	53.3%	16.7%	28.6%	23.1%

- Negotiating skill across all sectors is important for 70% of respondents
- Negotiating skills is the highest ranked training need for the role of Chairperson at 53.3%.
- Negotiating skills is highest ranked training need for social enterprise SE at 52.9%.

Table 15 Relationship Building: Training Need

Relationship Bld.	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	33.3%	23.3%	13.3%	19.2%

Relationship building across all sectors is important for 80% of respondents. Respondents have a high dependency on external funding and resources; 77.9% of organisations use volunteer resources. Relationship building is indicated for the role of Chairperson at 33.3%, Manager/Supervisor 23.3%.

Social entrepreneurial activity requires skills in relationship building. The qualitative analysis indicated the importance of relationship building in social entrepreneurial activity (4, 8, and 10). Very good communication skills are required (3 and 10). The social entrepreneur has ‘to establish legitimacy with multiple constituencies’ (Prabhu, 1999, p8). Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern (2006, p 13) point out ‘political and relationship management skills are of utmost importance to social entrepreneurs because such a large portion of the resources they rely upon for success are outside their direct control ,from board members to donors, partners, and volunteers’.

The research finds that negotiating skills and relationship building are important for respondents, with a greater perceived training need in negotiating skills.

Identity Management

The questionnaire included activities which the research associated with managing identity: ‘Communicating social mission effectively’; ‘Distinguishing your organisation from others; and Public Speaking/PR’.

Table 16 Communicating Social Mission: Training Need

Social Mission	Chairperson	Manager/Supervisor	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	20.0%	20%	7.1%	18.5%

Given the primacy of social mission to create social value in social entrepreneurial activity, the ability to communicate an organisations social mission effectively (Table 16) with stakeholders (clients/service users, employees, funders), is linked to identity. Communicating mission effectively is important to 82% of organisations, and 72 % feel competent in that activity. Communicating social mission has an overall training need of 17.9%. Organisationally social innovation SI type indicated a training need of 21.7%, while individual roles indicated training need for Chairperson of 20%, Manager at 20%, and CEO at 18.5%

Table 17 Distinguishing your Organisation

Distinguish Org	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	0%	20%	20%	18.5%

The qualitative analysis indicated that distinguishing your organisation from others (Table 17) was a requirement for participants in a number of ways:

- In communicating what was innovative about participant’s approach (8,10);
- Differentiating one’s organisation from a charity (4, 7 and 9);
- Differentiating one’s organisation from public services (4 and 6), and from social economy organisations (5).

Respondents stated importance of this activity was 67%, while stated competence was 74%. Training needs were therefore marginal, indicating an overall need of 13.5%. The role of chairperson indicated no training need in this activity. Training needs were identified for Manager/Supervisor- 20%, Board member -20%, CEO/Gen Manager -18.5%.

Table 18 Public Speaking/PR: Training Need

Pub Spk/PR	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	14.3%	17.2%	26.7%	14.8%

The activity of Public Speaking /PR (Table 18) was included as an activity linked to identity management. The ability to project a positive image of your organisation and use publicity to that end was noted as desirable by a number of participants in the qualitative study (4 and 8). Overall importance levels for this activity were at 53% and corresponding competency was 58%. Accordingly, training needs were correspondingly low. While organisationally, type SI indicated a training need of 21.7% in this activity, type SE expressed a training need of 0%. Board members training need in this activity was at 26.7%.

Table 19 Leadership to the Organisation: Training need

Leadership	Chairperson	Manager/Sup	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Training Need	13.3%	3.3%	26.7%	11.1%

The activity of ‘Giving leadership to the organisation’ (Table 19) is the lowest ranked overall training need identified at 11.5%. The importance of providing leadership to the organisation/ team was expressed by participants in qualitative analysis (7, and 10). Respondents to the questionnaire rated the importance of this activity at 86%, while corresponding competency was indicated for 80% of respondents. Organisational training requirements in this activity are (SI) at 17.4%, (NP) at 12.5%. Social enterprise (SE) was at 5.9%, while there were no (0%) training requirements for SE Pobal.

An overall summary of individual training needs is presented in Table 20.

Table 20 Training Needs Summary

Training Need	Chairperson	Manager/Supervisor	Board Member	CEO/Gen Mngr
Earned Income/Fund	53.3%	20.7%	57.1%	44.4 %
Business Skills	46.7%	20%	23.3%	22.2%
Impact Measurement	26.7%	23.3%	38.5%	40.7%
Board Creation	20.0%	26.7%	40.0%	26.9%
Team Building	40.0%	10.3%	26.7%	22.2%
Managing Change	46.7%	33.3%	26.7%	18.5%
Negotiating Skills	53.3%	16.7%	28.6%	23.1%
Relationship Building	33.3%	23.3%	13.3%	19.2%
Communicate Social Mission	20.0%	20%	7.1%	18.5%
Distinguish Org	0%	20%	20%	18.5%
Public Speak/PR	14.3%	17.2%	26.7%	14.8%
Leadership	13.3%	3.3%	26.7%	11.1%
Creativity & Problem Solve	20%	7.1%	20%	11.1%

5.5.5 Contexts for Training Delivery

The training needs for a larger population of respondents engaged in social entrepreneurial activity, based on competencies derived from the literature and analysis of qualitative data were identified in the foregoing section. Respondent training needs in earned income/fundraising reflect the importance of this activity explored in the qualitative data. Business skills are needed by some respondents, but they are not prioritised. Respondent training in impact measurement, was less stated in the qualitative analysis, but is indicated as a priority need for respondents. Respondents need to create an active and supportive board, also concurs with the qualitative analysis. Training needs identified in a range of soft skills – managing change, negotiating skills, relationship building – also concurs with the importance

of a soft skill-set which emerged from the qualitative analysis. The contexts for delivery of those training needs at an individual, organisational and macro level are now considered.

The research objective is to investigate and identify the training needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland. The qualitative methodology used a purposive sample to investigate the motivations and experiences of social entrepreneurial activity. The quantitative methodology used a random sampling technique, albeit one that was targeted at a sample population of interest. To what extent is that sample socially entrepreneurial?

Respondents operate at different levels in organisations with primarily social missions, engaging in, and generating income from economic activity, re-investing any resulting surplus in social mission. Presumably, these individual roles have different executive, governance and management functions within their organisations. Dees (2001) cautions that just as all businesses are not entrepreneurial, not all 'social sector leaders' are entrepreneurial. From this, it is reasonable to infer that some respondents will not be socially entrepreneurial.

The research was interested in correlations between role and training needs, and whether some roles had different requirements, which would inform training. For example, the research found that in relation to the training need in Earned Income/Fundraising there is a statistically significant association between the roles of Chairperson and Manager/Supervisor ($p=0.032$), and that of Board Member and Manager/supervisor ($p=0.022$). However, given the data to hand, the research did not find statistical significance between role and perceived training needs in key needs such as Impact Measurement, Managing Change, Team Building and Business Skills.

Of further interest was that 48% of respondents ($n=56$) were involved in the founding of their organisation, to ascertain if their training needs showed any particular trend. Of the primary roles identified 44.4% of board members ($n=8$), 66.7% of chairpersons ($n=12$), 56.7% of CEO's ($n=17$) and 33.3% of managers/supervisor ($n=13$) were involved in the founding of their organisation. The research found no significant association between involvement in founding an organisation and the major training needs identified of Earned Income/Fundraising, Impact Measurement, Creating an active and supportive board, and Managing Change.

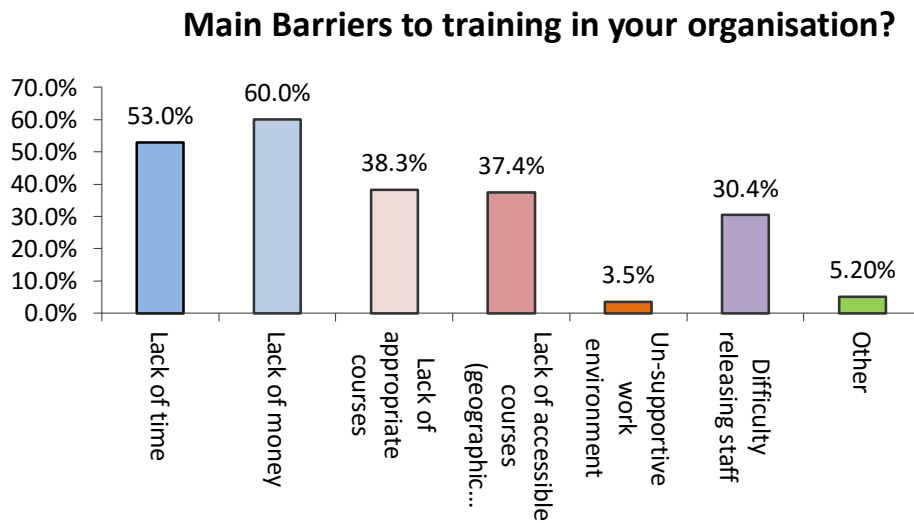
Identification of training needs is dependent on the requirements of the role. A more comprehensive account of training needs for the individual engaging in social entrepreneurial activity requires better knowledge of the role played. Some respondents undoubtedly require supports in standard organisational requirements such as administration, governance, and human resource management. Other requirements such as generating opportunities and resource acquisition will require different supports. The research found that training needs identified in the qualitative analysis are relevant to a wider population of individuals engaged at different levels of social entrepreneurial activity.

Comments offered in relation to training provision give an insight into particular training requirements for respondents:

- *New challenges face us and new skills are needed in responding to new emphasis in our organisation. We want to explore how to be an agent of change with regard to promoting energy efficiency and renewable energy use* (Respondent 54, CEO, SI)
- *Entrepreneurship training is critical, but not just business skills, we also need to teach purpose / impact and look for the why, what and how - this is what creates change* (Respondent 108, Admin, SE).
- *Typical of our organisation and other innovation-driven entities: they either cannot identify their own training needs or they cannot source the training they might need.* (Respondent 65, CEO, SI)

The research sought to identify the difficulties encountered by respondents in accessing training requirements. Respondents were asked to list the main barriers to training in their organisation, their preferred method of delivery for that training, and whether this training should be accredited.

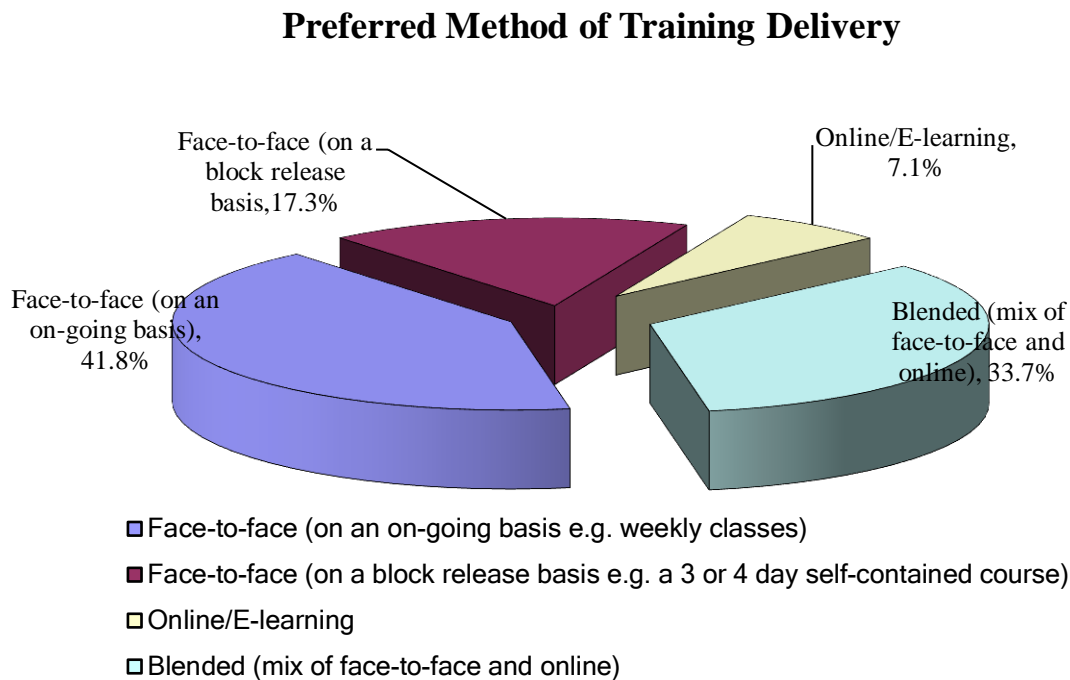
Figure 22 Main barriers to training for respondent's organisations



The main barriers to training (Figure 22) are lack of money (60%) and lack of time (53%). A report into social enterprise training in the United Kingdom found that lack of time was a greater impediment to training than lack of money (Social Impact Consulting, 2013). Respondents also indicated that, lack of appropriate courses (38.3%), lack of accessible courses (37.4%) and difficulty releasing staff (30%), are barriers to training. A combination of lack of time and difficulty releasing staff indicates time is the biggest barrier to training.

Respondents preferred method of training delivery (Figure 23) is face to face classes held on an ongoing basis (41.8%), as opposed to short duration (3/4 day) courses which was preferred by 17.3% of respondents. This is interesting given the time constraints. Face to face classes create the potential for social learning, and the development of peer groups, which is an educational approach explored in 2.5.3. The second highest preference is for a blended delivery (face to face and online) at 33.7%. Sixty-nine point eight percent (69.8%) of respondents want this training to be accredited.

Figure 23 Preferred method of training delivery



Further contextual factors influencing the training needs of respondents are at meso/macro level of analysis. Organisational types identified by respondents in order of magnitude are: Social Innovation - 22.8%, Social enterprise SE Pobal – 21.9%, Social Enterprise SE- 17.5%, Co-Op – 5.3%, NP-14.9%. Social enterprise, as a combination of both SE Pobal and SE, represent the largest grouping of respondents at 39.4% (n=45). As such, the fragmented and underdeveloped nature of this sector was a finding of the literature review (O'Shaughnessy, 2013; Curtis, O'Shaughnessy, Ward, 2011; Clarke and Eustace, 2009) The sector as a whole lacks an enabling environment, which would assist in the identification and support of the sector (SEETF, 2012). Respondents offered qualitative comments in relation to the macro environment, which are informative:

- *Whole sector is very fragmented and poorly organised* (Respondent 3, Board member, social innovation organisation)
- *My impression is there is very little recognition of social enterprise as a separate sector to the commercial sector so training needs for not-for-profits that are not charities are not provided by public bodies* (Respondent 113, Founder, social innovation organisation)

- *It is important that we build awareness of social enterprise and that we should be aiming to educate everyone involved in social enterprise (Respondent 90, Manager, social enterprise SE).*

This lack of a macro driver for the sector influences what support is available for social entrepreneurial activity, in contrast to other jurisdictions (GHK, 2006).

Summary

Data on respondent's role, organisational types and their characteristics were generated. Expressed levels of importance and competence were used to calculate a training needs assessment for respondents. Analysis of those needs concurred with qualitative findings on the importance of earned income/fundraising activity. A training requirement in impact measurement was also identified. Soft skills training needs in areas such as managing change and negotiating skills were prominent. Other training themes linked to identity management indicated low training requirements. Delivery contexts for training needs which recognise the different roles respondents play, organisational requirements and the policy environment, were discussed.

Chapter 6.0 Discussion, Conclusions, Recommendations

Introduction

The research set out to investigate the training needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland. It sought to identify socially entrepreneurial activity in Ireland, to access individuals engaging in this activity, and to explore their experience with a view to understanding what competencies and skills are required for this work. To that end the organizing questions were:

- 1 What motivates and influences one to engage in social entrepreneurial activity?
- 2 What are the key problems and challenges faced by individuals and groups during their social entrepreneurial experiences?
- 3 What are the current training facilities, programmes and resources available for social entrepreneurs?
- 4 What are the key training and education needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland?

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss how the research approached these objectives, how it answered the organising questions, and to summarise the findings that were generated. The implications of these findings in practitioner, educator and policy making contexts are then discussed. The chapter concludes with recommendations for recognition of the field, and future research.

6.1 Research Approach and Findings

Background

A thorough literature review indicated that the concept of social entrepreneurship is a dynamic construct, capable of different interpretations by practitioners, organisations, academics and policy makers. It is informed by a range of activities:

- Social economy organisations adapted to deliver social services where there is state or market failure;
- Third sector organisations enabled to deliver both social and economic value creation, as an expression of a new ideal;

- Non Profit organisations behaving in a commercial like fashion to ensure sustainability;
- Individuals addressing social issues/problems in an entrepreneurial way.

These activities reflect what Defourny (2001, p2) calls ‘a new entrepreneurial spirit focused on social aims’. The nature of these activities creates a blurring of sectors, which were previously regarded as distinctive. For Bill Drayton, founder of Ashoka, the drifting apart of the social and business sectors, developing different languages, legal structures, and even ‘mutually negative stereotypes of one another’, was ‘an historical accident, a giant navigational error’, for which social entrepreneurship is an antidote (Drayton, 2006, p51). This coming together of the business and social sectors creates an evolving landscape, as evidenced by calls for more creative capitalism and convergent theories of social and mainstream entrepreneurship (Driver, 2012; Chell, 2007). This creates a difficulty for the research in that, the field of social entrepreneurship is both contested and expanding, and thereby requires refinement.

Concept

To guide the research process, distinguishing criteria from the literature on primacy of social mission, the role of income to sustain that mission, and the innovative aspect of social entrepreneurial activity were considered to establish a baseline for inquiry. Emerging from that process, the social entrepreneur has unequivocally a primary focus on social value creation; sustains that social value by income generation, and takes an innovative approach to social value creation (Dees,2001).

The primacy of social mission (creating social value) distinguishes the social entrepreneur from the mainstream entrepreneur, and distinguishes social entrepreneurship from other forms of social value creation. The role of income in social entrepreneurship is about sustainability, not personal enrichment or profit taking. Income is a means to social ends. The role of income is not discourse free. An overt emphasis on income generation is also found in the literature, and is a fault line within the field. The role of earned income distinguishes social entrepreneurial activity from other social value creation activities that are wholly dependent on grant aid or donations.

Innovation is a key distinguishing entrepreneurial ingredient. Again, there is a discourse in the literature, where the term social entrepreneurship is reserved for innovative approaches resulting in fundamental change. Martin and Osberg (2007) differentiate social

entrepreneurship from ‘social service provision’, which is the type of activity engaged in by social enterprises across the jurisdictions. The innovative aspect of much social enterprise is the new types of organisation emerging to address social needs that are unmet, by new combinations of actors and resources. Others hold that social entrepreneurship is focused on the underlying dynamics that create the demand for the services in the first place (Light, 2009).

To accommodate such discourses the research introduced the idea of ‘degree’ into the distinguishing process which allows for more realistic assessment of entrepreneurial activity (Masseti, 2008; Zahra, 2009). This allows for a range of social value creation which can be more or less innovative, being admitted as socially entrepreneurial. As Dees (2001, p 4) states: ‘Those who are more innovative in their work and who create more significant social improvements will naturally be seen as more entrepreneurial’.

Further to these clarifications the research investigated the field of social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland which largely revolves around social economy enterprises, and the encouragement and support of social entrepreneurial activity by philanthropic foundations. Both approaches create social value, seek to sustain that value, and display varying levels of innovativeness.

Qualitative Findings

The qualitative research engaged with a purposive sample from these cohorts of social entrepreneurial activity. It found that individuals and their organisations had primarily social goals but there was also a strongly stated co-dependency between social value creation and income generation. This applied not only to the social enterprise engaging in economic activity, but also in organisations not generating income from economic activity. Innovation was a concept that individuals had difficulty conceptualising. In answering the organising question of what motivates these individuals to engage in this activity, the research found that a key event or experience was an antecedent for engagement in social value creation.

Distinctions emerged between individuals representing older social economy enterprises and individuals supported by the philanthropic organisations, in the areas of identification with social entrepreneurship and impact measurement. Participants from the social economy cohort had a difficulty or reluctance to identify with the concept of social entrepreneurship. Those individuals supported by philanthropic organisations as social

entrepreneurs more readily identified with the concept. Similarly, older social economy organisations measured the outputs of what they did, but not the impact; in contrast to the social innovation type organisations, which were aware of, and engaged, with this requirement. The influence of the new philanthropic imperative of impact measurement was acknowledged by these individuals.

Despite these distinctions, there was a convergence on skills and competencies required for participant's engagement in this field. These were generated from thematic analysis of the problems and challenges, and requirements associated with social entrepreneurial activity. This contributed to answering the second organising question of the research: What are the key problems and challenges faced by individuals and groups during their social entrepreneurial experiences? Generating income was a major requirement for participants. The general need to effectively team build was also noted. The need for soft skills and competencies in managing change, cross sectoral engagement, negotiating skills and relationship building were also indicated.

These findings were then used to inform the quantitative training needs assessment which was sampled to a larger population of individuals and organisations. Again, the issue of identifying a suitable sample population arose. The quantitative sample was generated by accessing a large database of a social finance organisation, and using publicly available information on social economy organisations, and individuals supported as social entrepreneurs by philanthropic organisations. The validity of the instrument was improved by getting respondents to identify whether their activity had certain characteristics associated with social entrepreneurial behaviour such as primacy of social mission, and re-investing any surplus generated in social mission. However the lack of a homogenous sample is a limitation of the quantitative element of the research. A further limitation for consideration is the methodology used to quantify training needs for respondents. The research recognises that a comprehensive training needs analysis requires knowledge of the role being trained for. The research using the quantitative analysis enquired as to how the themes on training requirements, identified in the qualitative analysis, were reflected or otherwise in the quantitative findings.

Quantitative Findings

The quantitative findings confirmed the necessity for earned income/ fundraising to underpin social mission is prevalent in both analyses, indicating a training need. Analysis of

the theme of impact measurement in the qualitative analysis pointed to half of organisations not measuring impact, and the distinction between social economy and social innovation type organisations, in the use of impact measurement. The quantitative analysis indicated a training need in impact measurement, not confined to social innovation organisations. It also found that the majority of respondents claimed to measure impact. Given the relative novelty of this requirement, the complexity of the subject matter, and the findings of Prizeman and Crossan, (2011), on the limited nature of impact measurement in the sector, the research is of the view that this training need is understated for respondents.

Generally the requirement for business skills was not stressed in the qualitative analysis. Equally, while the quantitative analysis indicates an overall training requirement for business skills, this need is not a priority for respondents. The necessity for team building skills emerged from the qualitative analysis, with participants stressing the importance of an effective team to their activities. In the quantitative analysis training needs in team building were modest due to high levels of stated competence.

The qualitative analysis developed the theme of a requirement for soft skills derived from the cross sectoral, resource gathering and multi-constituency nature of social entrepreneurship. The quantitative analysis concurs, indicating training needs for respondents in these soft skills, particularly in management of change, and cross sectoral negotiating skills.

Of less relevance to respondents were the activities the research had construed as informing identity management. Themes developed from the qualitative analysis had low training requirements. The research recognises that relevance for respondents may be a factor. Instrument validity may also be questioned, in that the activity descriptors were not sufficiently developed enough to elicit training needs in identity management.

The research method and findings have been discussed, showing how research objectives and organising questions have been addressed. The implications of those findings in practitioner, educator and policy making contexts are now discussed.

6.2 Implications for training in social entrepreneurship

Practitioners

At the level of the individual engaged in social entrepreneurial activity, training needs are dependent on the role an individual plays in the process. Using the framework proposed by Thompson (2002), the social entrepreneur recognises an opportunity for social value creation (Envisions), forms the resolve to act on that opportunity (Engages), gathers the necessary resources (Enables), and provides leadership and guidance to the project (Enacts). The findings in this research were in relation to those already engaged in social entrepreneurial activity. There is also another category to consider; those who might be described as latent or nascent social entrepreneurs, and the attendant training requirement of learning how to create social value entrepreneurially.

The research indicates that the individuals and groups already engaged in social entrepreneurial activity may be supported by training in income generation and impact measurement, and a suite of soft skills. There are also general organisational needs or 'steady state' requirements of team building, good governance, regulatory, financial, administrative skills, which may be trained for.

At the level of the latent or nascent social entrepreneur, training requirements are more difficult to assess. Given the subject matter of creating social value, the multiple stakeholders involved, the amount of resources not directly controlled, social entrepreneurship is a particularly demanding type of activity (Tracey and Philips, 2007; Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006). Furthermore, social entrepreneurial initiative also requires the recognition of an opportunity and the resolve to act on it. How this requirement may be trained for is more difficult to ascertain.

Mainstream entrepreneurial education approaches have shifted from teaching 'about' entrepreneurship, to teaching 'for' entrepreneurship, the approach taken is to develop the 'entrepreneurial perspective' of the individual. Students are encouraged to think and act entrepreneurially, which results in increasing entrepreneurial self-efficacy. The training and education of social entrepreneurs, as outlined in section 2.5.3., takes a similar approach. Through social and experiential learning students are encouraged to identify as social entrepreneurs, while increasing socially entrepreneurial self-efficacy. However, imparting the social entrepreneurial requirements of opportunity recognition and the resolve to do something

about it, is much more difficult to appraise. While the qualitative research indicated the role of personal life experience in the generation of social entrepreneurial activity, it did not find any compelling factors as to why individuals recognise social entrepreneurial opportunity and act on it.

Educators

In practice this distinction between those who already have a social value creation proposition, and those interested in acquiring one, is recognised by the educational and training approaches in the field. Philanthropic organisations select those with an idea for social value creation, which is already formed, and where individuals have demonstrated an intention to realise that idea. What these organisations do is to help individuals refine the idea, and offer bespoke support to develop it. Other approaches to the education for social entrepreneurship, use social and experiential learning to develop an identity and a self – efficacy as a social entrepreneur, but do not claim an outcome of producing social entrepreneurs.

This is illustrated by the outcomes that are used to express the efficacy of educational and training approaches. For Ashoka ,the system of selecting social entrepreneurs with ideas that are scalable, leads to the claim that ‘Five years after selection, 88% have their innovation copied by independent institutions, and between 50% and 60% have changed national policy’ (Drayton 2006, p52). In contrast, Gregory Dees points out that the more practical and preferred learning outcome for curricular type social entrepreneurship education is about ‘equipping our students with the tools to be effective in any entrepreneurial social problem solving activity they might engage in’ (Worsham 2012, p450). There is a sense, as in mainstream entrepreneurial studies, that education alone does not produce the social entrepreneur (Thompson 2002)

This has implications for education and training delivery. A review of educational resources and supports for social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland (Organising question 3) indicated that, excluding support by philanthropic organisations, educational overviews and vocational type courses were the main outputs. There are no courses offering curriculum based training in social entrepreneurship, which use social and experiential learning to create a social entrepreneurial identity and self-efficacy. Given the findings above, such courses need realistic expectations of what educational outcomes are possible. The research findings indicate how social entrepreneurial activity may be supported by educators on a practical

level. The training context for educators requires a conception of what the social entrepreneur does, what aspect of the process is being educated for, the demand for that type of education/training, and what are the desired outcomes.

Policy

At a macro level a particular difficulty for those engaging in social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland is the underdevelopment and lack of recognition of the sector in Ireland. In other jurisdictions an enabling policy has resulted in social enterprise being encouraged and supported. The example of the development of social enterprise in the United Kingdom is illustrative, where a number of policy initiatives under New Labour gave recognition to and enabled the sector (DTI, 2002, 2006). The sector was also provided with opportunity by these initiatives which envisaged social service delivery by social enterprise. The opportunity, training and support necessary to enable social enterprises to tender for, and deliver these services were integrated within the policy initiatives. A similar approach is being adopted by the Social Business Initiative, SBI (2011), recommending a review of public procurement policies to stimulate and provide opportunity for the social entrepreneurial sector.

The majority of respondents to the quantitative study operate social economy type enterprises (SE and SE Pobal). Difficulties in the operating environment for these organisations include lack of training, restricted commercial activity, and a perception that they are more social welfare than enterprise oriented. There is a lack of identity of, and a stated need to build capacity in the sector (Clarke and Eustace, 2009; Curtis, O'Shaughnessy and Ward, 2011). Other difficulties include restrictions on new entrants into the sector, and a large decrease in government social inclusion budgets which is a core source of funding for social enterprise in Ireland.

This lack of an enabling policy implies a lack of recognition and worth of the sector. Against a backdrop of an encouraging European initiative promoting social enterprise (SBI 2011); and the relative underdevelopment of social enterprise in Ireland, would suggest an opportunity for the recognition of the sector and its attendant training needs. Training needs in this event would not only be for social entrepreneurial activity, but also for procurement officials and agencies tasked with supporting the activity. Such training would contribute to the identity and legitimisation of the social entrepreneurial sector. Further to a national report on the potential of the sector to create jobs, the research is not aware of any further developments in that regard (Forfas, 2013). The question as to why the sector is

underdeveloped and lacking an enabling policy is of interest for future research. DeFourny and Nyssens (2008) suggest that the relative underdevelopment of social economy enterprises in a number of European states, including Ireland, is linked to the historical corporatist welfare regimes of these states.

6.3 Conclusions and Recommendations

The investigation into the training needs of social entrepreneurs in Ireland, found individuals engaged in innovative sustained social value creation, who did not relate to the concept of the social entrepreneur. A key finding was that individuals, supported by philanthropic organisations, more readily identified with the concept, as well as the requirement to ultimately prove the value of what they did, by measuring, or attempting to measure the impact of their work.

These differences point to the construction of a social entrepreneurial identity by philanthropic organisations and what might be termed an ‘entrepreneur centric’ (Neck, Brush, and Allen, 2009) literature. The base narrative in this literature of inspiring individuals attempting to improve the lot of their fellow man, with no motive for personal enrichment is, *prima facie*, appealing. The creation of a social entrepreneurial identity is a key component of educational approaches to social entrepreneurship, and requires further research on the outcomes achieved by this approach.

There are other cohorts of social entrepreneurial activity on the Irish landscape that are less visible. Social economy enterprises operate in a sector that is comparatively underdeveloped, by European standards, lacking an identity and an enabling policy environment to establish its worth. It is this sector, characterised as economic activity for social objectives, which informs the concept social entrepreneurship, and the growth of social enterprise on the European landscape. The recognition of this sector in Ireland by a policy initiative, would value and create an identity for this sector, and is a recommendation of this research.

The research found that, there was a convergence in terms of what was required to engage in social entrepreneurial activity. Sustaining social value creation through income generation is key task, as is the necessity to measure impact in an environment that is challenging social entrepreneurial activity to prove it’s worth. Soft skills are essential for operating in a complex environment, while organisational competencies of team building, good governance, and administration are also required. At another level, creation of a social

entrepreneurial mind-set exploiting opportunity to primarily create social value is much harder to achieve.

Delivery of these training needs is dependent on individual and organisational requirements; what outcomes are sought by practitioners and educators; and by the policy landscape that social entrepreneurial activity operates in.

The field of social entrepreneurial activity in Ireland will continue to be of interest, not least as to how the sector might develop further to European and national policy stimulation. In conclusion, the research recommends certain refinements for and identifies future research:

- As a primarily exploratory study, this research argued from a generic perception of social entrepreneurship. Further research into the training needs of social entrepreneurs would benefit from clearer conception of what role an individual plays in the social entrepreneurial process, and what are the required outcomes in educational and training terms.
- The introduction of degrees in both social value creation and innovation allows for more meaningful comparison of social entrepreneurial activity.
- Adoption of an agreed terminology by practitioners, researchers, educators and policy makers, to aid identification of the social entrepreneurial sector.
- The sector is underdeveloped, which results in a difficulty identifying sample populations for research. Further investigation and mapping of the sector is required. This is supported by SBI (2011). It is hoped that this research has contributed to that end.

Future Research

- The key requirement in social entrepreneurial activity for impact measurement to understand, identify and value the sector is identified as a future research need.
- The creation of a social entrepreneurial identity as an educational approach is identified as a future research need

Closing Statement

In the course of this study, the researcher encountered individuals engaged in social entrepreneurial activities. The work engaged in by these individuals is inherently valuable to society. This work is difficult, and to some extent underdeveloped and undervalued in Ireland. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the recognition of the field, and help to clarify in what ways this important activity may be supported.

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Appendix A: Educational courses embedded in general entrepreneurship /business.

In this section modules in social entrepreneurship which are offered as components of broader educational objectives, are considered. As such, these modules largely offer an overview of social entrepreneurship, which is in keeping with what Brock and Steiner (2009) found. Delivery of these modules is by lectures/tutorials/assignment/practical exercises. These modular courses are, in some cases, the result of particular initiatives either to advance social entrepreneurship itself or to embed entrepreneurial approaches and outcomes in third level education.

The Centre for Non-profit Management, based in the School of Business, at Trinity College Dublin (TCD), has launched the Initiative on Social Entrepreneurship – for research, education and dialogue on social entrepreneurship in Ireland. Its educational aims include:

- *To create teaching programmes on social entrepreneurship that can be offered to all disciplines*
- *To create domestic and international executive education programmes on social entrepreneurship.*

An example of modules on social entrepreneurship being offered as part of a wider entrepreneurial education is illustrated by Accelerating Campus Entrepreneurship (ACE) Initiative, which is a joint collaboration of Institute of Technology Blanchardstown, Cork Institute of Technology, Institute of Technology Sligo, National University of Ireland Galway, and Dublin City University and is being led by Dundalk Institute of Technology. The ACE initiative is primarily concerned with producing a more entrepreneurial type graduate.

The courses listed below in table 1, are reviewed in the remainder of this section, in terms of course content, delivery and desired outcomes. Entry requirements for these courses are based on general undergraduate admissions, the exception being the MSC in International Management.

Table 21 Educational Courses

Institution	Course Title	Type	Level	School	Award
TCD	Social Entrepreneurship and Social Innovation: Organisation and Management	Elective module	Undergraduate	Business	Bachelor of Business Studies
TCD	Social Entrepreneurship	Elective module	Postgraduate	Business	MSC International Management.
NUI	Social	Elective	Undergraduate	Business	Bachelor of Business

Maynooth	Entrepreneurship	module			Studies
UCD	Business and Social Enterprise	Elective module	Undergraduate	Business	Bachelor of Commerce
DKIT	Social Entrepreneurship	Mandatory Module	Undergraduate	Humanities	BA in Sport, Exercise with Enterprise
DKIT	Social Entrepreneurship for Social Care	Mandatory Module	Undergraduate	Humanities	BA in Social Care

1.1.1_At TCD, an undergraduate business module: Social Entrepreneurship and Social Innovation: Organisation and Management is offered, which addresses ‘the emergence and development of social entrepreneurship, social innovation, the development of hybrid organisational forms and sustainability’. It is taught course delivered by lecture and assignment. The course is an overview, in essence. Learning outcomes sought are the student being able to¹ :

- *Grasp and engage with the key theories / frameworks / debates in the field of non-profit management and social entrepreneurship*
- *Apply the key theories and frameworks to practice situations and scenarios*
- *Discuss the hybrid models of organisation that are emerging as boundaries between private, public and non-profit sectors blur*
- *Critically evaluate relevant theory associated with social enterprises and social entrepreneurs in an Irish and international context*
- *Evaluate how the current theory is applied in the relevant practical context of the social entrepreneur*
- *Identify issues within and prepare responses to the integrative and dynamic nature of the social entrepreneur’s operations*

Also at TCD, at Post Graduate level there is an elective module called Social Entrepreneurship, offered in Masters in International Management award. Again this is a taught module. *The aim of the module is to develop a critical awareness of major issues, opportunities and problems associated with the development of social entrepreneurial ventures in an international context. The course examines the theoretical underpinnings of social entrepreneurship and social venture development and analyse patterns of social entrepreneurial activity internationally.*

1.1.2 At NUI Maynooth, the Business department offers a module in social entrepreneurship to undergraduates. According to the online prospectus ‘*The use of entrepreneurship and*

¹ <http://www.tcd.ie/business/undergraduate/module-outlines/bu4620.php>

business models to achieve social value appears to be an increasingly important phenomenon in Ireland and Europe'. The study of social entrepreneurship *'is increasingly relevant in the current economic environment with reduced public-sector expenditure and increasing social demands*'. The module focuses on theory, the implementation of social entrepreneurship in practice, as well as a practical assignment. The practical assignment involves peer groups working to *'identify a social demand, develop a practical project with implementable actions over a 3 week period and then report back on the social and economic impact of their project.'*

The lists of learning outcomes for the module are that on completion students should be able to:

- *Critically evaluate the different meanings of social entrepreneurship and social enterprise, in a domestic and international context.*
- *Understand the underlying social, political and philosophical underpinnings of those involved in social entrepreneurship.*
- *Develop an understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of social entrepreneurship and social enterprise.*
- *Understand the practical issues and difficulties with implementing social entrepreneurial practices within a social-mission organisation.*
- *Through the practical assignment, students will be able to put into practice the concepts and class-based learning and learn through active participation.*

1.1.3 At UCD (Quinn School of Business), an undergraduate module entitled Business and Social Enterprise is delivered. The prospectus states: *'As the business environment goes through a particularly turbulent phase in its history, there is an opportunity to think freshly about the ways we do business and about our own capacity to shape and change that environment.'* The module is concerned with the application of *'entrepreneurial thinking to identify opportunities and solutions that will make an important positive impact on society', and to collaboratively identify and create a new social enterprise.'* The module uses course readings, discussions, and workshop exercises, to help the student identify opportunities to create social value. The student undertakes *'the initial development, research and validation steps required to turn an opportunity into a scalable business, 'and ultimately pitches this plan to a panel of experts. The module gives the student the opportunity 'to integrate and apply key management, marketing, finance, and research skills developed in other modules', while also providing 'a key opportunity to experience and apply new business thinking'*. On completion students should be able to:

- *Articulate and assess a range of enterprise models;*
- *Conduct independent research, and identify and secure enterprise development inputs;*
- *Write a feasible, convincing and realistic plan;*
- *Further deepen team working, creativity, project management and problem solving skills;*
- *Demonstrate advanced, professional communication and presentation skills.*

1.1.4 At Dundalk Institute of Technology (DKIT) as part of its Bachelor of Arts (Honours) in Sport, Exercise with Enterprise, a mandatory module on social entrepreneurship is offered. The module content explores ideology behind social enterprise and policies affecting it. Delivered by lecture, it seeks to 'define and comprehend social innovation, social entrepreneurship and philanthrocapitalism'. It also aims to impart an understanding of what barriers exist to social enterprise as well as current supports available as well as current EU policies

The learning outcomes for students are the ability to:

- *Critically assess the status of social enterprise in Ireland and abroad*
- *Analyse different social enterprises and how they function*
- *Explain the characteristics and attributes of the social entrepreneur*
- *Evaluate the latest mechanisms and agencies that support social enterprises*

Another module entitled: Social Entrepreneurship for Social Care_ is a mandatory component of the Bachelor of Arts in Social Care at DKIT. Course delivery is by lecture and tutorial. Indicative content of the module concerns:

- *Understanding Entrepreneurship; Social Entrepreneurship.*
- *Recognising Social Entrepreneurship Opportunities.*
- *Developing a Strategic Plan for a Social Entrepreneurial Venture.*
- *Funding and Measurement of the Social Entrepreneurial Venture.*
- *The Future of Social Entrepreneurship*

Stated learning outcomes for the module are:

- *Define and distinguish Social Entrepreneurship within the context of Entrepreneurship.*
- *Identify and critically examine Social Entrepreneurship as a process and explore its role in the economy.*
- *Identify and recognise Social Entrepreneurial opportunities, Social Entrepreneurial Ventures and Social Entrepreneurial impact measurement.*
- *Develop a strategic plan for a Social Entrepreneurship Venture. Funding Social Entrepreneurship ventures.*
- *Appreciate the future of Social Entrepreneurship plus its place as a technology for social change.*

Appendix B: Training/Vocational Courses

The courses listed In Table 2, are offered by educational institutions catering for training/formal qualification for those already involved in social economy/enterprise and community development organisations. The structure and delivery of the courses reflect the practical considerations of working and training for participants. These courses have more specific entry requirements, have a practical /vocational orientation in desired outcomes, and relate to particular conceptions of social entrepreneurial activity.

Table 22 Vocational Courses

Institution	Course Title	Type	level	School	Supporting concept	Award
UCC	MBS in Co-operative and Social Enterprises	2 Year online	Postgraduate/mature student	Centre for co-operative studies	Social entrepreneurship in the Social Economy	MBS in Co-operative and Social Enterprises
UCC	Social Enterprises and Community Development Practice	2 year part-time	Adult Education	Continuing Adult Education	Social Enterprise as Community Development	Certificate (1yr), Diploma (2yr)
DCU	MSC Management (Innovation in Social Enterprise)	2 year online and block release	Postgraduate/mature student	DCU Ryan Academy	Social Enterprise as social entrepreneurship	MSC Mng (Innovation in Social Enterprise)

1.2.1. The Centre for Co-Operative studies UCC, offers an MBS in Co-operative and Social Enterprises.² The course is delivered asynchronously online, over a two year period. The target group is those working or volunteering, in co-operatives or social enterprises, particularly at management or leadership levels. It also targets those working in a role supporting co-ops and social enterprises, such as development agencies. Five core modules include; Social and Co-operative Entrepreneurship; Governance and Education and Marketing for Co-operatives and Social Enterprises. There are three additional optional modules and a dissertation to complete. The stated learning outcomes are that students who successfully complete the course will be able to:

² <http://www.ucc.ie/en/ckl10/>

- *think critically about social and economic problems and have the confidence to propose organisational solutions*
- *articulate the role of co-operatives and social enterprises in the creation of an alternative economic system to a wide range of audiences, including the public, private and third sectors, as well as to society in general*
- *participate meaningfully and effectively at leadership level in the decision-making, management and entrepreneurial processes of co-operatives and social enterprises*
- *apply the specific marketing, governance and management skills necessary in co-operatives and social enterprises*
- *appraise critically the multiplicity of activities, strategies, skills and approaches in the co-operative and social enterprise field*
- *choose optimal courses of action for specific situations in co-operative and social enterprises*
- *discuss and debate professional opinion on the functioning and roles of co-operatives and social enterprises*

1.2.2 Also at UCC delivered as part of its adult education programme, Social Enterprises and Community Development Practice, is a part-time course delivered over 2 years. Entry requirements are a FETAC level 5 qualification, and ‘*be able to demonstrate involvement in the community development or social enterprise sector*’. The course introduces participants to ‘*the theoretical and practical elements of community development and social enterprise*’, and where ‘*emphasis is placed on developing ways to successfully integrate a range of business skills suited to a people-centred social enterprise*’. Coursework involves, ‘*the critique of models, theories and policies relating to the development and successful management of social enterprise/community development projects.*’ The outputs sought are ‘*development of analytical skills, management strategies and enterprise approaches ‘to enable participants to cultivate entrepreneurship in local communities and establish a ‘can do’ approach to local development.*’

1.2.3 Dublin City University (DCU) through its Ryan Academy³ offers an MSc Management (Innovation and in Social Enterprise)⁴ which , is offered on a part time basis over two years and is delivered by a combination of online and block release modules. The target group is those already engaged in social enterprise and to equip them with a skill set to implement best practice in social enterprises. Modules include innovation and creativity, social enterprise development, and a suite of business modules such as strategy, marketing, accounting; HR resourcing etc.

The desired learning outcomes are:

- *An understanding of the business disciplines that underpin social enterprise in an international context*

³ DCU Ryan Academy is a non-profit, joint venture between Dublin City University and the Ryan Family (Ryanair) that aims to be the leading supporter of entrepreneurs and innovation in Ireland.

⁴ <http://www.ryanacademy.ie/news/msc-management-innovation-social-enterprise-0>

- *The ability to develop an interdisciplinary approach to social business*
- *The skills to innovative in an rapidly changing environment*
- *The capacity to manage and to introduce change, arising from the dynamic nature of social enterprises.*

Appendix C: Support structures provided by non-profit organisations

In Ireland, the field of education and training sees non-profit foundations /organisations, such as Ashoka and Social Entrepreneurs Ireland (SEI), active in the search for, and support of social entrepreneurs. Ashoka, has created a worldwide network of 3000 social entrepreneurs across 72 countries, and has supported 12 social entrepreneurs in Ireland⁵, while SEI, between 2006 and 2013, has supported 161 social entrepreneurs⁶. These foundations not only offer financial support to social entrepreneurs, but also training, mentoring, and networking opportunities. As such, this support structure is not a formal education or training course. Through a rigorous selection process, which emphasizes, innovation, creativity, and potential to scale solutions to problems, those selected have already indicated their social entrepreneurial credentials. In essence, these foundations assist those selected to identify as social entrepreneurs and contribute to the self- efficacy of the nascent social entrepreneur.

1.3.1 Through its awards programmed Social Entrepreneurs Ireland (SEI) seeks 'to support social entrepreneurs who have an innovative solution to a societal challenge, who have a project/organisation that is up and running with evidence of activities undertaken and who aim to significantly scale and grow the impact of what they are doing.' SEI's Impact Programme *'looks to support social entrepreneurs with established and effective projects that have the potential to scale significantly, creating widespread and long term social impact.'* The intake is 2/3 successful applicants per annum. The Impact Programme runs for 2-3 years (depending on the exact needs of each Awardee). SEI's Elevator Programme *'offers support to social entrepreneurs in the earliest stages of their projects' and aims to help social entrepreneurs who have yet to determine the full sustainability and effectiveness of their solution'*. The intake for the Elevator Programme is 4/6 successful applicants per annum, and the support programme lasts for 1 year

To be eligible for support by SEI candidates must be:

- *aged 18 years or over*
- *The social entrepreneur leading the project - the main driver and decision maker.*
- *The primary focus of the project should be on benefiting people in Ireland.*
- *Applicant should be addressing a problem in a new or better way.*
- *Project should have moved beyond the initial idea stage, with activities up and running that relate directly to the problem being addressed.*
- *Applicant should have the ambition to scale and grow the organisation beyond its current level.*

This is a competitive process, where the applicant must differentiate their project/idea, as innovative and scalable. Awardees get both financial and non-financial support. The non – financial support focuses on six key areas of focus that need to be addressed in order to maximise long term impact:

⁵ <http://oireachtasdebates.oireachtas.ie/Debates%20Authoring/DebatesWebPack.nsf/committeetakes/PCJ2013022100001?opendocument> p7 accessed 15/04/14

⁶ Ibid p13

1. *Planning: the necessity for business planning.*
2. *Operations: (financial, HR, IT etc.)*
3. *Sustainability: importance of financial sustainability*
4. *Leadership: team management, board and governance issues*
5. *Communications*
6. *Resilience: this module helps the social entrepreneur to focus on maintaining a healthy work/life balance so that they can continue to progress both their project and themselves ‘*

1.3.2 Ashoka Ireland (<http://ireland.ashoka.org/>) selects social entrepreneurs (Ashoka Fellows) to support, on the basis of 5 selection criteria:

- *New idea*
- *Creativity*
- *Entrepreneurial quality*
- *Social Impact of the Idea*
- *Ethical fibre*

‘We search the world for leading social entrepreneurs and at the launch stage, provide these entrepreneurs—Ashoka Fellows—with support in their major challenges, from fundraising to hiring, PR to international expansion. If necessary, we can provide the Fellow with a financial stipend for an average of three years to allow them to focus full time on building their institutions and spreading their ideas. We also provide our Fellows with a global support network of their peers and partnerships with pro-bono business services and business leaders.’

1.3.3 While both Ashoka and SEI conceptualise the social entrepreneur as the social innovator, with a scalable impact solution, the non-profit organisation known as The School for Social Entrepreneurs Ireland (<http://www.the-sse.org/schools/30/ireland>) sees the social entrepreneur as active and engaged at community level. A recent newcomer to the field of education and training for social entrepreneurs in Ireland, its stated mission *‘is to address inequalities and social exclusion by supporting social entrepreneurs from all backgrounds to transform their talent into real social outcomes, in the form of sustainable solutions to poverty and disadvantage in communities’*.

It does this through the use of action-learning based programmes of personal and organisational development. A pilot *‘Incubator Programme’* begins in April 2014 (04/14), which offers combination of personal and professional support for 25 entrepreneurial individuals with an idea for a start-up social or environmental venture’ It aims to create a learning environment, where a network of fellow social entrepreneurs engage in action and reflection. The duration of the course is made up of 7 two day study sessions and 5 action learning sets. Candidates should:

- *Have an idea for a project or business with a social or environmental benefit*
- *Demonstrate passion, drive and commitment to the idea/project*

- *Have ownership of the idea/project and autonomy for decision making*

The target for this programme is *'people with an entrepreneurial mind-set, who are committed to their mission, and who understand the community they are aiming to serve.'* There is a further requirement in that participants *'need to be open to exploring how to raise at least 25% of the project's future income from business activities'*.

Appendix D: Interview Protocol and Guide

Interview Protocol Form

Research Subject: An Investigation into the Training Needs of Social Entrepreneurs in Ireland.

Date:

Time:

Location:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Permission form signed:

Notes to interviewer: Thanks/confidentiality/length of interview/Purpose of Research/ Subsequent methodology

Background Notes

Preamble

Q1 How would you describe the work you do?

- What terms do you use to describe the impact of what you do?
e.g. create jobs, promote social inclusion, create social value..... ?
- Can I ask what ideas inform that work & what's the most important idea?
- What is your understanding of the term social entrepreneur?

Preamble to Q2 Can you take me back to when you first started this work – what was your motivation in beginning this work?

- Was that motivation clear at the outset/or did it evolve over time?
- Has the motivation remained the same (constant)?
- Presumably you communicate that motivation – how? (Leadership, team building, Mission statement)
- Do others have/ share that motivation in your organisation?

Preamble to Q3. My reading in this area suggests that social entrepreneurs place more importance in social goals rather than financial goals.

Q3 Does this reflect your approach?

- Presumably you have financial goals (sustainability? Profit?), as well as social goals?
- How important are financial goals in your work? & Why?
- Opportunity – social as well as financial perspective?

- How do you maintain the importance of the social above the financial? Does that have particular difficulties?

Q4 I'm interested in how you work, and in what environment?

- Innovation, (the creation of new ways/approaches/ combinations), is a much used term in many fields, including that of social entrepreneurship. Is your work, or aspects of it, innovative?
- Are there other opportunities (both social/financial) you are pursuing?
- Does your work bring you into contact with other sectors (public and private sector -structure as applicable) e.g. do you generate income from the public & private sectors
- Does that aspect of your work have particular difficulties?
- In general, is there a supportive environment for the work you do?
- How do you measure the impact of what you do? Do you think it is necessary to do so?
- I presume you know that the Irish Government is currently working on a social enterprise initiative? What would you like to see emerge from this initiative?

Preamble to Q5: I'm interested here in learning more about your experiences, and particularly.

Q5 what difficulties and challenges have you or your organisation faced working in this area?

- Personal
- Organisational
- Experience v formal learning

Preamble to Q6: What do you have to be & what know-how do you need for this work?

Q6 given your experience so far, what do you think are the necessary personal requirements and competencies when undertaking this work?

- Personal
- And from an organisational viewpoint? (requirements/competencies)
- How would you educate a social entrepreneur?
- The values that inform the social element. Can these be taught /acquired?

Q7 What training needs did you (or do you), or members of your organisation have to do this work?

- What supports exist for you (your organisation) to do your work?
- What supports have you accessed to carry out the work?
- Do you train staff/volunteers? Is it an issue?
- Biggest obstacle to training – time/money/

Closing: Thanks/ Re-assurance re confidentiality/ Permissions

Appendix E: Training Needs Questionnaire

Training Needs for Social Entrepreneurship/Enterprise

Respondent Information

1. What is your gender?

Female

Male

2. What is your age?

3. What is your current primary role in the organisation (Select ONE)?

Board Member

Chairperson of Board

CEO/General Manager

Manager/Supervisor

Other (please specify)

4. How long are you performing in this current role? (years or part thereof)

5. Were you involved in the founding of this organisation?

Yes

No

Training Needs for Social Entrepreneurship/Enterprise

Respondent's Organisation

6. How old is your organisation? (Years or part thereof)

7. Please answer YES or NO to the following statements:.

Does your organisation.....?

	Yes	No
Have a primarily social goal/mission/purpose	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Engage in economic activity producing goods and/or services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Generate earned revenue from that activity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Re-invest any surplus generated in its social mission/goal/purpose	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Operate to benefit a particular geographic community	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Operate to benefit a particular target group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Measure the impact of its work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Measure the impact of its work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Engage with other (Private/Public) sectors in its work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Create full-time employment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use Community Employment Schemes (CE;CSP;RSS;TUS) to create work integration & training opportunities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use volunteers (unpaid) to help run the organisation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. Which BEST describes your organisation? (Select ONE only)

- A social enterprise, trading for a social purpose, under the terms of the Community Services Programme (Pobal)
- A social enterprise, trading for a social purpose, re-investing any surplus in that purpose
- An organisation established to address a social issue, pursuing earned revenue (opportunities) to ensure sustainability
- Co-operative trading for a social purpose
- A non-profit organisation considering earned revenue strategies

Other (please specify)

9. Please indicate the funding sources of your organisation? (Select as many as appropriate)

- Public
- Private (Philanthropic/Donation)
- Earned revenue from economic activities

Other (please specify)

10. What is your organisation's primary funding stream (one answer only)?

- Public
- Private (Philanthropic/Donation)
- Earned Revenue

11. What percentage of your organisation's funding is derived from earned revenue? (0-100%)

Training Needs for Social Entrepreneurship/Enterprise

Training Needs

In Q12 you are asked to rate how important a range of activities are to your job. While in Q13 you are asked to self-rate how competent you feel that you are in performing these activities.

12. Rate how important the following are to the successful performance of your job?

Rating Scale:

1 Very unimportant

2 Unimportant

3 Neither important NOR unimportant

4 Important

5 Very Important

	1	2	3	4	5
Communicating social goal/mission/purpose effectively with stakeholders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Distinguishing your organisation from others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Measuring the impact of your organisation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fundraising/Income Generation Strategies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Public speaking/PR	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Relationship building across all sectors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Building an effective and committed team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Giving leadership to the organisation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Creating an active and supportive board	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Business management skills (financial/operational/administrative)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Negotiating skills across all sectors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Managing change	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Creativity & problem solving skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

13. Rate how competent you feel performing the following activities.

Rating Scale:

1 Not Competent

2 Somewhat Competent

3 Uncertain of Competence level

4 Competent

5 Highly Competent

	1	2	3	4	5
Communicating social goal/mission/purpose effectively with stakeholders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Distinguishing your organisation from others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Measuring the impact of your organisation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fundraising/Income Generation Strategies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Public speaking/PR	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Relationship building across all sectors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Building an effective and committed team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Giving leadership to the organisation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Creating an active and supportive board	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Business management skills (financial/operational/administrative)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Negotiating skills across all sectors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Managing change	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Creativity & problem solving skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Training Needs for Social Entrepreneurship/Enterprise

Training Preferences

14. Please list the top (3 Max) barriers to training in your organisation?

- Lack of time
- Lack of money
- Lack of appropriate courses
- Lack of accessible courses (geographic proximity)
- Un-supportive work environment
- Difficulty releasing staff

Other (please specify)

Training Needs for Social Entrepreneurship/Enterprise

15. Delivery format of Training

Which of the following is your preferred delivery method of the training?

- Face-to-face (on an on-going basis e.g. weekly classes)
- Face-to-face (on a block release basis e.g. a 3 or 4 day self-contained course)
- Online/E-learning
- Blended (mix of face-to-face and online)

16. Should this training be accredited?

- Yes
- No
- Not important/not sure

17. If you answered yes to the previous question would you like to have the facility to build up credits from short courses into a larger award e.g. a Degree?

- Yes
- No
- Not important/not sure

18. Any comments that you would like to add?