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# THE MOTIVATIONAL VALUES OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS

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Abstract	
<p>The main goal of this research is to understand what kind of motivational values social entrepreneurs have (motivational types of values), how social entrepreneurs prioritize these values (value prioritization) and if these values had an impact on becoming a social entrepreneur and continuing to work as one (impact of the values). The research on social entrepreneurship has largely ignored for-profit social entrepreneurship and the purpose of this research is to contribute to this shortcoming by taking the for-profit entrepreneurs' perspective. A qualitative case study was chosen as a research method and the empirical data was gathered by interviewing for-profit social entrepreneurs using a theme interview.</p> <p>This research adapts Schwartz's (1992, 1994) theory on motivational types of values. This case study suggests that there is congruence in some of the motivational values among the for-profit entrepreneurs. The motivational values found seem to confirm the general conception of social entrepreneurship found in scholar literature. Reflecting on Schwartz's theory on motivational types of values, some conflicting values were found and the implication of these conflicting values were discussed. The empirical data revealed that personal values had influenced the social venture creation to some extent. Through values the personal experiences, the desire to make a change and the will to do something meaningful in one's life had all influenced the decision to establish a social enterprise.</p>	
Keywords	
Social Entrepreneurship, social enterprise, social entrepreneur, motivation, values, Schwartz's motivational type of values	
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# 1 INTRODUCTION

All around the world individuals, who are concerned about social issues, have come up with innovative solutions to tackle social problems that have been disregarded by other actors either commercial, governmental or non-governmental in nature. (Zahra et al. 2009). There is the well-known example of Bill Drayton's Ashoka, founded in 1980, which was designed to provide seed funding for future social entrepreneurs (Ashoka 2015). Another celebrated social entrepreneurship success is the Grameen Bank, established in 1976, with a mission to diminish poverty and empower women in Bangladesh (Grameen 2015). The global impact these entrepreneurs and entrepreneurs alike have in improving social conditions is immense especially in underdeveloped countries and emerging economies. (Zahra et al. 2008). These days the boundaries between the government, the nonprofits and business sectors are starting to blur from a search for innovative, cost-effective and sustainable ways to address social problems. Government agencies and non-profit organizations are adapting business strategies and methods in order to improve their performance. Also for-profit organizations are emerging or expanding their operations to sectors formerly dominated by the non-profits and government agencies. The blurring of these boundaries has generated a new breed for social entrepreneurs who create for-profit enterprises explicitly social mission in mind. (Dees & Anderson 2003).

The business model of social enterprise is receiving ever growing interest also in the European Union (EU) and in its member countries. Social enterprises are classified as part of the social economy in EU discussion. Both for-profit and not-for profit social enterprises are seen to be part of this with different types of business entities such as communes, limited companies, co-operatives, enterprises and foundations. The roots of social economy in Europe and in Finland are strong dating back to the 19<sup>th</sup> century in Finland alone and even earlier in Europe. In February 2009 the European Parliament ratified a resolution concerning the diversity of business entities stating that economic sustainability requires the interaction between social and economic goals. The European Parliament see social economy's potential to create sustainable employment. In numbers this means that already 10 percent of all the companies in Europe, two million and 6% of full employment, are created by the social economy. (Laiho, Grönberg, Hämäläinen, Stenman and Tykkyläinen 2011).

The current state of public finance and the development of population's age-structure is one reason why the ministry of employment and the economy of Finland have showed growing interest in the possibilities of what social entrepreneurship can provide in addressing this and other social issues. From an administrative perspective there is a growing need for competition and versatility in the service sector and a need for companies that operate using alternative business models such as social enterprises. The ministry of employment and the economy of Finland see that social entrepreneurship can expand the concept of

entrepreneurship and make entrepreneurship more appealing to more individuals. (Laiho et al. 2011).

## 1.1 Background

“Understanding the individual entrepreneur can help us better determine not only why someone becomes an entrepreneur, but also what type of entrepreneur they will become.” (Conger 2012, 87)

Individual characteristics of the entrepreneur has been an interest of the entrepreneurship scholars already for decades. The research has expanded well beyond from trying to find distinctive personal traits that will describe who an entrepreneurs is and who will most likely become one. The interest of scholars has shifted to exploring individual characteristics that affect entrepreneurial motivation, actions and outcomes. By understanding individual entrepreneurs better, we can not only learn why someone becomes an entrepreneur but also what kind of entrepreneur they will become. (Conger 2012). Thus, understanding the entrepreneurial mind better should also assist in a better understanding of the process that leads to new venture creation (Carsrud. et al. 2009, 18).

Probably the most common dichotomy found in entrepreneurship literature is the notion of entrepreneurs creating a business with a social or environmental mission in mind versus the focus on economic gain. It is important to understand the motivation behind these entrepreneurs and how they differ in order to comprehend why they establish social enterprises instead of commercial ones. (Conger 2012). Personal values have been mentioned frequently by scholars as a major motivator for social entrepreneurs in their mission for social change (Zahra et al. 2009, Dees 1998, Santos 2012). Yet research on personal values in entrepreneurship literature is rare and often lacking in depth (Hemingway 2005). Most of these researches found in social entrepreneurship literature and in entrepreneurship literature merely acknowledge the existence of values as part of some theoretical argument. The specialty in social entrepreneurship, that most scholars acknowledge, is the presence of both social and economic values and the balancing act between these two (Santos 2012, Mair & Martí 2006). The presence of social values requires a broader view of the entrepreneurial motivation than is commonly offered in entrepreneurship literature. (Conger 2012). Traditionally the studies on entrepreneurial motivation has assumed economic profit seeking to be the driving motivational force (Mair & Martí 2006) or the psychological perspective on entrepreneurial motivation has focused on self-focused drivers such as the need for achievement, risk-taking propensity, locus on control and self-efficacy (McCelland 1961, Shane et. al 2003). Values theory could offer better understanding of the motivational values that drive especially social entrepreneurs but also entrepreneurs in general. Social entrepreneurship is an ideal context in which to examine the role of val-



ues as entrepreneurial motivators. Theories of economic rationality or egoistic motivational constructs cannot be easily applied to the research on the goals of social entrepreneurs. (Conger 2012). Research on entrepreneurial motivation, mind and behavior would gain from well-tested theories from different behavioral sciences (Mair & Marti' 2006; Carsrud & Brännback 2009).

### 1.1.1 Motivational aspect of values

The word values is used quite effortlessly in our everyday language referring to what people considered important to them in their personal lives. All individuals have a certain number of values that vary in importance. What is important to someone, might be altogether irrelevant to someone else.

Values and value systems functions are to guide everyday human actions and to give expressions to basic human needs. (Rokeach 1973). Values are defined as high-order systems of belief that are formed early in life, are shaped by individual's life-experience that cannot be denied or altered easily. (Hemingway 2005). They define what is right and desirable for ourselves and for others serving as a standard for judgment by which individuals can evaluate objects, situations and the actions of oneself and those of others (Conger 2012, Rokeach 1973).

Instrumental and terminal values are used to describe the motivational side of values. Instrumental values provide the motivation needed to reach a desired end goal whereas terminal values motivate by being the ultimate goals individuals strive to achieve that are the most important to them. (Rokeach 1973) Continuing Rokeach's (1973) research on values Schwartz's (1994, p.21) defines values "as desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity." Therefor the primary aspect of a value is the type of goal or motivational concern it expresses. The hierarchy of values acknowledges individual preference towards behaviors or outcomes over others resulting some values becoming dominant (Rokeach 1973; Schwarz 1992, 1994).

As mentioned earlier, values are deeply held and shaped by one's life experience. Because of this they are also seen as essential to the self-concept and identity of an individual. Value-expressive behavior is also referred as self-expressive behavior and is seen to possess a positive reinforcing influence to enhancement and maintaining of self-esteem. (Rokeach 1973). Therefor the need to express one's authentic self and values is considered to be a powerful and deep-seated motivational force (Conger 2012; Rokeach 1973).

## 1.2 Introducing the research problem and goals

The research on entrepreneurial motivation has shifted away from the traditional view of economic aspirations being the main incentive for new venture creation. Recently, there is an understanding that there could be other, more

relevant motives for entrepreneurs to start and operate a business. In the case of social entrepreneurs the social gains and values are seen as the primary motivation for the entrepreneur. (Carsrud & Brännback 2011). Yet the research on values in general and motivational values is extremely rare in social entrepreneurship literature. By conducting research on motivational values we can better understand social entrepreneurs and perhaps their decision to start a social venture instead of a commercial one. Social entrepreneur's value prioritization could also shed some light to whether there are dichotomies between social and commercial values or if the social values are prevalent as is presumed in social entrepreneurship literature.

The main goal of this research is to understand what kind of motivational values social entrepreneurs have (motivational types of values) and if these values explain becoming a social entrepreneur and continuing to work as one (value prioritization). The research on for-profit social entrepreneurship is still scarce as the focus of research is still largely in non-profit social entrepreneurship. To fill this research gap this research takes the perspective of for-profit social entrepreneur. Another motive to examine for-profit social entrepreneurs is the chance it gives to inspect value prioritization of commercial and social values. The research aims to answer the following research questions:

- What motivational values of social entrepreneurs can be identified?
  - How do for-profit social entrepreneurs prioritize motivational values?
  - How has social entrepreneur's personal values influence the kind of venture she/he has created?

There are other aspects that speak on behalf of for-profit social entrepreneurship research. It has postulated that it is easier for (new) ventures to get financial support when a company is operating as a for-profit company (Peredo & McLean 2006). The investors are seen to be more interested to invest in companies that have the potential to make their investment lucrative. Also banks are more likely to invest in ventures that are expected to have better possibilities to become financially profitable than in philanthropic ventures that are not in it to make money. (Ibid). Different funding options surely makes entrepreneurs life easier as often outside funding is needed to start, sustain or expand operations. The thought behind social entrepreneurship is said to be the desire to do good by using entrepreneurial tools. In the broadest sense social entrepreneurship is described to be a more sustainable channel than traditional charity work where the operations almost solely depend on donations and other philanthropic act (Mair & Marti' 2006). In order to be able to do good, the social venture must be sustainable. The better the venture is doing, the more beneficial it is also for the social mission. For-profit venture also have the potential to attract talented and professional employees that would not otherwise be interested in working for social sector because of the limited financial rewards (Dees & Anderson 2003). Drawn from these facts perhaps an assumption can be made that for-profit so-

cial ventures can be seen as more sustainable in the sense that 1) they may seem more appealing to investors 2) thus they have more funding options compared to traditional NFP organizations 3) they have the incentive of money to attract more professional management and employees 4) thus by professional managers and investors they have better networks 5) they have more stakeholders to answer to, so the need to make the business profitable is more pivotal.

### 1.3 Defining key concepts

#### 1.3.1 Social entrepreneurship

In general there are three different concepts which are discussed in social entrepreneurship research that should be differentiated: *social entrepreneurship*, *social entrepreneur* and *social enterprise*. The definition of social entrepreneurship typically refers to a process or behavior, the term social entrepreneur is used to refer to the founder of the social venture and the discussion of social venture refers to the tangible outcome of social entrepreneurship. (Mair and Martí 2006).

By adapting these definitions by Austin et al. (2006, 2), Mair et al. (2006, 37) and Zahra et al. (2009, 519) this thesis suggests that social entrepreneurship is not limited to certain sectors but instead can occur in the non-profit, commercial, or government sectors. It is a process of combining and using resources in an innovative manner in order to recognize and pursue opportunities to create social change and social value and acknowledge social needs. This can be accomplished by establishing new social ventures or by managing existing ones using innovative business methods.

#### 1.3.2 Social enterprise

In simply terms social enterprise is seen to be “an organization seeking business solution to social problems” (Thompson & Doherty 2006, 362) or a socially driven businesses (Di Domenico et al. 2010). Adopting from the more comprehensive definitions made by Di Domenico et al. (2010, 682), Chell (2007, 11) and Mair et al. (2006, 39) this thesis defines social enterprise as an entity established to create and pursue opportunities relentlessly without regards to limited resources available with a mission to create social value and pursue revenue generations through trading in order to achieve a social and/or environmental goal. Social enterprises are not limited to certain types of business entities and the choice of enterprise set-up is dictated by the social mission, the resources, the raising of capital and the capturing of economic value.

### 1.3.3 Social entrepreneur

By constricted definition social entrepreneur is someone who establishes a social venture in order to solve a social or economic problem using a business way. Most scholars agree that social entrepreneurs are distinguished from what is considered a common economic entrepreneur in that their commitment to solving societal and/or environmental problems is primal, but not exclusive, to creating economic profit. (Mair and Martí 2006).

This thesis adopts the definitions of social entrepreneurship given by Dees (1998), Shahir & Lerner (2006) and Peredo et al. (2006) and defines social entrepreneurs as change agents who 1) adopt a mission to create and sustain social value exclusively or in some prominent way 2) recognize and pursue new opportunities in a relentless way to serve the mission in question and to create social value 3) employ continuous innovation, adaptation and learning 4) is not limited by the resources currently available 5) has a strong sense of accountability to the mission and the stakeholders and, 6) tolerate risks.

### 1.3.4 Motivation

Motivation can be understood differently depending on the contexts it is examined. Whereas, for psychophysicologists motivation is a biochemical state or a neurological activation for psychologists it is a dynamic aspect of behavior which leads individuals into contact with the world. According to psychologist This research applies Joseph Nuttin's (1984) view that motivation is an active process which leads individuals to direct behavior towards certain situation and object. Research on motivation has traditionally looked for answers to questions of what gets a person activated, why an individual prefers certain things over others and why people respond differently to the same stimuli. (Perwin 2003, Nuttin 1984).

### 1.3.5 Values

This thesis uses Schwartz's (1994, p.21) more comprehensive definition of values "as desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity." According to Schwartz (1994) there are four implicit aspects of defining values as goals. First, they must be of interest to some social groups. Second, they can motivate action by giving it direction and emotional intensity. Third, they serve as standards for individuals' to judge and justify their actions. Fourth, they are acquired through the socialization to dominant group values and through individual learning experiences. The emphasis is on the primary aspect of value being a type of goal or motivational concern that it expresses.

### 1.3.6 Schwartz's motivational types of values

Schwartz (1992, 1994) suggests that there are ten universally recognized types of values that are distinguished by their motivational goals. The theory also postulates a structure of relations among these values types, which rests on the conflicts and compatibilities between these values when they are pursued. There are psychological, practical and social consequences in the interaction between compatible and incompatible values types and therefore individuals prioritize values and arrange them hierarchically. The emphasis is on the values that are most important to individuals and the values that are not compatible with dominant values are de-emphasized. (Schwartz 1992; Prince-Gibson et al. 1998).

## 1.4 Research structure and framework

This research is divided into seven chapters. The theoretical frame of reference introduces the literature on social entrepreneurship, motivation and values. The central theories of this research were chosen in order to best describe the motivational values of social entrepreneurs. The most important part of the theoretical frame of reference is the theory of Schwartz's (1992, 1994) motivational types of values. However, in addition to this an overview is taken to inspect prior research on entrepreneurial motivation.

The introduction chapter introduces the background of the research subject, describes the goal of the research, the research questions and the theoretical frame of reference. It also describes the keywords and opens up their meaning. The theory passage introduces the common motivational theories and theories on values. Chapter four presents the research methodology in which the chosen method, data collection, data analysis, reliability and validity of the research is discussed. Chapter five introduces the empirical findings. First the connection between the values of the enterprise and the entrepreneurs is discussed, then the found motivational values are presented and finally value prioritization and the meaning of the values in new venture creation are established. Chapter six discusses the conclusions derived from the empirical data and from prior theory. Finally future research suggestions are made. Chapter seven concludes the thesis with final concluding thoughts.

## 2 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Social entrepreneurship has received the growing interest of scholarly attention. This can be explained by the impact social entrepreneurship (SE) has in addressing social and environmental problems and bettering communities and societies. Social entrepreneurs apply innovative business models to address social problems and complex social needs. (Zahra et al. 2009; Miller, Grimes, McMullen & Vogus 2012). Even though there is an ever growing scholarly interest in social entrepreneurship, a clear definition of its domain is still missing (Zahra et al. 2009, Peredo and McLean, 2006) and the research is still largely phenomenon-driven (Mair et al. 2006). There are multiple definitions of social entrepreneurship based on various levels (individual, organization and society) and of perspective (from psychological to political) (Lehner 2013). Zahra et al. (2009) made a comprehensive summary including twenty definitions of social entrepreneurship found in scholar literature, which demonstrates the lack of unifying definitions. Following the footsteps of Zahra et al. (2009) Dacin, Dacin & Matear (2010) made a list of thirty-eight varying definitions of social entrepreneurship. As an example of the variety of definitions concerning social entrepreneurship a few chosen ones, derived from the research papers used in this thesis, are shown on table 1.

There are critiques of the definitional landscape who often make conflicting remarks (Miller et al. 2012). According to Light (2006) the current definitions are too exclusive, whereas Martin & Osberg (2007) find them too inclusive. Dees (1998) actually observed this challenge early on and suggested that the definition of social entrepreneurship should not be too broad for it to be void of meaning, nor too narrow for it to regard only the special few. Because the concept of social entrepreneurship is poorly defined and the boundaries remain fussy, Mair et al. (2006) perceives it as an opportunity for researchers from different disciplines to inspect the concept further.

The definitions of social entrepreneurship vary according to the single view the observer has taken (innovation, social value creation, process, the double bottom line). Observers own background and worldview also plays a role in how they define the concept (Lehner 2013). Several scholars have focused on defining what makes social entrepreneurship special from conventional entrepreneurship (Peredo and McLean 2006; Dees 1998; Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern 2006). According to Peredo and McLean (2006, 56) there are several reasons why it is important "to be clear about what constitutes social entrepreneurship". First, the standards of evaluation for social entrepreneurship may be different when in comparison with standard forms of entrepreneurship. Second, if social entrepreneurship is considered to a promising instrument for addressing social needs, it may require legislation and other forms of social policy for assistance. Third, the managerial issues of social entrepreneurship may require different approach than in entrepreneurship operating without the social component. It was established earlier that there are no clear

boundaries, which are agreed upon by scholars and practitioners, of what constitutes social entrepreneurship. The characteristics of social entrepreneurship found in literature are discussed in more depth next.

TABLE 1 Definitions of social entrepreneurship

Source	Definition
Dees (1998, 4)	"Social entrepreneurs play the role of change agents in the social sector by: 1) adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value), 2) Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve the mission, 3) Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation and learning, 4) Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and 5) Exhibiting a heightened sense of accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created."
Peredo & McLean (2006, 56)	"Social entrepreneurship is exercised where some person or persons 1) aim either exclusively or in some prominent way to create social value of some kind, and pursue that goal through some combination of 2) recognizing and exploiting opportunities to create this value, 3) employing innovation, 4) tolerating risk and 5) declining to accept limitations in available resources."
Mair & Marti (2006, 37)	"First, we view social entrepreneurship as a process of creating value by combining resources in new ways. Second, these resource combinations are intended primarily to explore and exploit opportunities to create social value by stimulating social change or meeting social needs. And third, when viewed as a process, social entrepreneurship involves the offering of services and products but can also refer to the creation of new organizations."
Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern (2006, 2)	"Social entrepreneurship as innovative, social value creating activity that can occur within or across the non-profits, business, or governmental sectors"
Zahra, Gedajilovic, Neubaum & Shulman (2009, 519)	"Social entrepreneurship encompasses the activities and processes undertaken to discover, define, and exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organizations in an innovative manner"
Santos (2012, 335)	"Social entrepreneurship is the pursuit of sustainable solutions to neglected problems with positive externalities"

## 2.1 Characteristics of social entrepreneurship

Some scholars see social entrepreneurship as a large tent (Martin et al. 2007) under which distinct activities and processes to create social wealth belong to (Zahra et al. 2009). The roots of the problem with unclear definitions of social entrepreneurship lies in the reality that there is no clear definition of entrepreneurship either (Tan et al. 2005). In the simplest observation social entrepreneurship is seen merely as establishing and managing a social enterprise with the recognition of the possible risks involved (Perero et al. 2006).

Dacin et al. (2011, 1204) made observations that the variety of definitions about social entrepreneurship focus mainly on the individual characteristics of the entrepreneur, the operation, the processes and resources or the mission. Various scholars, including Dees (1998), Mair & Martí (2006) and Martin & Osberg (2007), discuss some or all of these issues in their attempts to define social entrepreneurship. The problem with a focus on individual-level characteristics of social entrepreneurs is that the debate on what these characteristics should be, will never end, as there is unlikely to be definitive set of characteristics that can be applied to all kinds of social entrepreneurial activities (Dacin 2010). Montgomery et al. (2012) also suggest emphasizing social entrepreneurs as lone actors creates a false image, as the efforts to solve social problems often involves collaborative action with other actors and organizations.

Zahra et al. (2009) suggests that several definitions of social entrepreneurship focus on the double-bottom line. This observation perceives social and economic goals as equal while others emphasize social wealth creation over economic wealth creation (Dees 1998; Peredo et al. 2006; Martin & Osberg 2007). Tan, Williams & Tan (2005) emphasize the latter view of social entrepreneurship and suggests that instead of maximizing individual profits entrepreneurship may be aimed at benefiting society. They call this as an altruistic form of capitalism where the sole purpose is not to evaluate all human activities in business terms. Mair et al. (2006) also share this duality of wealth creation suggesting that social entrepreneurship differs from traditional entrepreneurship in the emphasis on social value creation instead of economic value creation. In general "most existing definitions imply that social entrepreneurship relates to exploiting opportunities for social change and improvement, rather than traditional profit maximization" (Zahra et al. 2009, 521).

Austin et al. (2006, 2) see social entrepreneurship as "innovative social value creation activity that can occur within or across the non-profit, business, or government sectors". Mair et al. (2006, 37) define social entrepreneurship as "a process involving the innovative use and combination of resources to pursue opportunities to catalyze social change and/or address social needs". Furthermore Zahra et al. (2009, 519) states that "social entrepreneurship encompasses the activities and processes undertaken to discover, define, and exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organizations in an innovative manner". By adapting these defini-



tions by Austin et al. (2006, 2), Mair et al. (2006, 37) and Zahra et al. (2009, 519) this thesis suggests that social entrepreneurship is not limited to certain sectors but instead can occur in the non-profit, commercial, or government sectors. It is a process of combining and using resources in an innovative manner in order to recognize and pursue opportunities to create social change and social value and acknowledge social needs. This can be accomplished by establishing new social ventures or by managing existing ones using innovative business methods. Even though this thesis does not address the process of innovative use of resources and only vaguely discusses the opportunity recognition, it still comprises it to be an important aspect of social entrepreneurship.

## 2.2 Social enterprise

Social enterprises have risen to be prominent players in market economies as they are more market driven than the traditional nonprofit ventures and have the capacity to become financially self-sustaining (Di Domenico, Haugh & Tracey 2010). Simply defined social enterprises 'are organizations seeking business solution to social problems' (Thompson & Doherty 2006, 362) or socially driven businesses (Di Domenico et al. 2010). There are distinct differences between social enterprises and other socially-oriented organizations that can also benefit communities. The latter ones do not want or seek to be businesses and therefore often remain dependent on gifts and grants. Social enterprises pursue to serve particular social mission through the sales of products and/or services and by doing so they aim to accomplish financial sustainability. (Di Domenico et al. 2010). They blur the boundaries between the private and nonprofit sectors by adopting the pursuit of revenue generation from private sector organizations and the social goals of nonprofit sectors (Dees 1998).

More comprehensive definitions are offered for example by Di Domenico et al. (2010, 682) who define social enterprises to include four characteristics: 1) the pursuit of revenue generation through trading, 2) the aim to achieve social and/or environmental goals, 3) in addition to supplying products and services to clients, they also aim to generate additional benefits such as increased social capital and community cohesion and, 4) they are often associated with communities characterized by limited access to resources. Thompson et al. (2006, 362) characterizes social enterprises to have a social purpose which is pursued (at least partially) with trade and the accumulated wealth is used to improve the community instead of distributing the profits and surpluses to shareholders. The enterprise is seen to be accountable to its members and the community and the venture includes either double- or triple bottom line paradigm. Chell (2007, 11) who also makes a more comprehensive definition suggesting that social enterprise is an entity established to create and pursue opportunities relentlessly, without regard to limited resources available, with a mission to create social value and economic wealth (that may be reinvested in the business to assure its

sustainability). Mair et al (2006, 39) conclude that social entrepreneurship is equally well suited for for-profit organizations and that the choice of the enterprise set-up is dictated by "1) the nature of the social mission, 2) the amount of resources needed, 3) the scope for raising capital and 4) the ability to capture economic value".

Adopting from the definitions made by Di Domenico et al. (2010, 682), Thompson et al. (2006, 362), Chell (2007, 11) and Mair et al. (2006, 39) this thesis defines social enterprise as an entity with high sense of accountability to its members and community, established to create and pursue opportunities relentlessly without regards to limited resources available with a mission to create social value and pursue revenue generations through trading in order to achieve a social and/or environmental goal. This thesis also includes that social enterprises are not limited to certain types of business entities but instead vary from non-profit organizations to for-profit organizations. The choice of enterprise set-up is influenced by the social mission, the resources, the raising of capital and the capture of economic value. This thesis main focus is on the social entrepreneurs, but it also addresses the motives of establishing a social enterprise. The social entrepreneurs that participate in this research have all established a for-profit social enterprise and therefore it is important to include that social enterprises are not merely not-for-profit organizations, as social entrepreneurship literature still often proposes, but also for-profit organizations. Even though this thesis does not pay more attention to the characteristics of social enterprise, defined earlier by this thesis, this definition applies and is descriptive to all of the social enterprises taking part in this research.

### 2.3 Social entrepreneur

Social entrepreneurs are seen to have significant influence on societies and communities by adopting business models to offer creative solution to complex and ongoing social issues that have not attracted the interest of other actors either commercial, governmental or non-governmental in nature (Zahra et al. 2009). According to Dees (1998, 3) "Social entrepreneurs are one species in the genus entrepreneurs. They are entrepreneurs with a social mission". When focusing on defining an entrepreneur, there is quite a narrow outlook in the popular press of what an entrepreneurs is and does. The common notion is that an entrepreneur is someone who starts and/or runs a business (Peredo et al. 2006). Peredo et al. (2006) calls this a minimalist understanding of the concept. By this definition a social entrepreneur would be someone who starts and/or runs a business with a social mission in mind. This view can also be called the mainstream approaches where social entrepreneurs are described as entrepreneurs with a social mission (Dees 1998; Martin & Osberg 2007).

Some scholars suggest that defining social entrepreneurs should be based on the processes and resources they use when establishing a venture (Dacin,

Dacin & Matear 2010) for example not-for-profit versus for-profit (Perero et al. 2006) or social wealth creation versus economic wealth creation (Mair et al. 2006). Social entrepreneurship literature also focuses on the individual characteristics and the motivation of the social entrepreneurs often portraying them heroic (Dacin et al. 2011; Montgomery, Dacin & Dacin 2012). They are also seen to be altruistic in their behavior and motivation (Tan et al. 2005). As opposite to this Peredo et al. (2006) maintain that it is essential to allow the idea that some social entrepreneurs will have selfish motives behind their social mission and that they are less than exemplary in their actions.

One common discussion in social entrepreneurship literature is the centrality of the mission for social entrepreneurs. Dees (1998) and Dacin & Dacin (2011) see the social mission central and most important for social entrepreneurs. This influences the opportunity recognition and the way these entrepreneurs assess these opportunities. According to Dees (1998), wealth creation is secondary and only a means to an end for social entrepreneurs whereas with business entrepreneurs wealth creation is central. Stevens et al. (2014) suggest that social entrepreneur's social mission is dominant and they generate revenues in order to ensure the financial viability.

Among the more comprehensive definition of social entrepreneur is that of Dees (1998, 4) who defines an 'idealized' version of social entrepreneurs as change agents in the social sector by "1) adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value 2) recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission 3) engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation and learning 4) acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand and 5) exhibiting a heightened sense of accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created". This label of 'idealized' suggests that actual cases will most likely represent these characteristics unevenly and only partially (Peredo et al. 2006). Sharir & Lerner's (2006, 7) social entrepreneur is a change agent who creates and sustains social value ignoring the possible limitations of the resources currently in hand. Another comprehensive definition of social entrepreneurs is of Peredo & McLean's (2006) definition that has strong resemblance to Dees (1998) and Sharir et al. (2006) definitions. Peredo et al. (2006, 56) state that:

"Social entrepreneurship is exercised where some person or persons 1) aim either exclusively or in some prominent way to create social value of some kind, and pursue that goal through some combination of 2) recognizing and exploiting opportunities to create this value, 3) employing innovation, 4) tolerating risk and 5) declining to accept limitations in available resources."

Combining and adapting the definitions of Dees (1998), Lerner et al. (2006) and Peredo et al. (2006) this thesis defines social entrepreneurs as change agents who 1) adopt a mission to create and sustain social value exclusively or in some prominent way 2) recognize and pursue new opportunities in a relentless way to serve the mission in question and to create social value 3) employ continuous innovation, adaptation and learning 4) are not limited by the resources currently available 5) have strong sense of accountability to the mission and the stake-

holders and, 6) tolerate risks. This description is seen to be accurate and well describing the social entrepreneurs in this research. This description is also seen to be detailed enough to bring out the multidimensional features of social entrepreneurs.

### 2.3.1 Three types of social entrepreneurs

The attempts of scholars have tried to characterize the activities of entrepreneurs in general and especially those of social entrepreneurs (Zahra et al. 2009; Austin et al. 2006). Zahra et al. (2009, 519) for example identified three types of social entrepreneurs named as "Social Bricoleur, Social Constructionist and Social Engineer". The difference between these three social entrepreneurs is in how they observe opportunities presented to them, in the impact their mission has on the society and in how they collect resources to further their chosen mission. All of these entrepreneurs are motivated to address social needs. (Ibid).

*Social Bricoleurs* typically focus on discovering and addressing local, small scale social needs. In order for these entrepreneurs to be successful, they need tacit knowledge of both local environmental conditions and local resources. This localized tacit knowledge puts these entrepreneurs in a unique position that helps them to discover local social problems and needs. Even though their operations are often small in scale and limited in scope, they perform important functions by addressing serious local social needs that otherwise would remain unrecognized and unaddressed. (Ibid).

*Social Constructionists* often exploit opportunities and market failures by meeting the needs of neglected clients. These social entrepreneurs introduce innovations that can lead to the renewal of large scale social systems. They establish and operate ventures that address the social needs currently being overlooked by existing institutions, businesses, NGOs and government agencies. Their advantage does not come from local knowledge, like in the case of Social Bricoleurs, but from the way these entrepreneurs recognize opportunities to address the social issues often by creating and influencing different processes. Because the scope of the social problem is often larger, there is a need to develop fairly large and complex organizations with considerable financing and employee needs. This creates the need to acquire resources from different sources such as from governments, NGOs and charitable foundations. This may lead to the altering of the initial mission. (Zahra et al. 2009).

*Social Engineers* recognize and address large scale systemic problems within existing social structures. Social Engineers differ from the other two types of social entrepreneurs because they have a revolutionary impact on the social systems and structures. (Ibid). Zahra et al. (2009, 526) call them "the prime movers of innovation and change" by destroying and altering existing dated systems and transforming them into newer and socially more suitable ones. The changing of existing and dominant institutions has a profound influence on society and can be a remarkable force for social change. The social problems these entrepreneurs often address are national, transnational and global in scope. The large scope and scale of their mission and the possible deficits of legitimacy re-

quires Social Engineers to harness the public support in order to be successful in their mission. They need to gather sufficient political capital to gain other needed resources and to achieve legitimacy. (Ibid).

## 2.4 The concept of social in social entrepreneurship

There is an agreement amongst scholars that social entrepreneurs' are driven by social goals that aim at benefitting society in some way. This is one way of saying that social entrepreneurs' aspirations are to increase social value. Even though a consensus exists about the aspect of social value being part of social entrepreneurs' mission, there is still a disagreement over the importance social entrepreneurs' place for social value creation in their mission. There are those who see that social value creation must be the exclusive goal of the social entrepreneur. (Dees 1998; Peredo et al. 2006). Dees (1998, 3), who is seen by some scholars as one of the pioneers of theoretical SE (Marshall 2010), declares that "For social entrepreneurs, the social mission is explicit and central. ... Mission-related impact becomes the central criterion, not wealth creation. Wealth is just a means to an end for social entrepreneurs." This claim can be understood so that the financial benefits are important only because they advance the mission in hand and not among the goals of the undertaking. This is in line with the fact that a large body of the literature makes the connection of social entrepreneurship being the same as not-for-profit organizations (NFP) (Dees 1998; Werawardena & Mort 2006). The problem of measuring value is present in social entrepreneurship. Commercial businesses measure value in terms of how much wealth is created and therefore profit is typically considered a good indicator of how much value a venture has created. Whereas when concerning social improvements, public goods and harms, defining value is more complex. (Dees 1998).

The traditional distinction between economic and social value is often associated with definitions of social entrepreneurship. This view suggests that social entrepreneurs are entrepreneurs with a social mission ignoring any profit-seeking motivation (Santos 2012). Santos (2012) argues that this kind of dichotomy between economic and social values is quite problematic. It should not be ignored that economic value creation is inherently social in the sense that economic value creation also improves welfare of the society. Mair et al. (2006) are on the same line and suggests that the dichotomous line of thinking between altruistic and profit motives of social entrepreneurs should be forgotten. They argue that profit-motives and personal fulfillment can also be the driving forces behind social entrepreneurs, even though social entrepreneurship is often seen to be about ethical motives and high moral responsibility. Dacin et al. (2011) is concerned that many scholars overlook entrepreneurs that seek to maximize both social change and profitability by placing social values above profitability in terms of mission.

The term “hybrid” is often used in social entrepreneurship and indicates to a structural form which mixes for-profit and nonprofit approaches or as some literature refers to it as double bottom line. This view accepts that social entrepreneurs can also have other motives besides the social value creation. For-profit social enterprises have dual social and financial objectives that guide their decision-making and determine their success regardless whether they view economic values as a means for creating social value or as valuable on its own. This dual goal of economic and social value creation is commonly referred as the double bottom line. (Dees & Anderson 2003).

## 2.5 For-profit social entrepreneurship

According to Peredo et al. (2006) staggering 83% of scholarly and non-scholarly publications over the past 15 years of social entrepreneurship has referred to examples of the not-for-profit sector. Some change has happened since then, but still the concept of social entrepreneurship often refers to non-profit enterprises. Even though the literature on social entrepreneurship focuses commonly on the not-for profit (NFP) concept, there are good reasons not to limit social entrepreneurship under this assumption. First of all, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish the boundaries between not-for-profit and for-profit organizations. There are borderline cases. There is still an ongoing debate on whether a social entrepreneur can have social and commercial motives simultaneously. (Peredo et al. 2006). The problem lies in determining how central the social mission should be in contrast to profit motives (Mair et al. 2006).

One common example is the case of ice cream franchise Ben and Jerry's. From its founding, the company has had a strong emphasize on environmental and social issues. It is clearly a highly profitable for-profit organization, but with a strong corporate social responsibility even after it was sold to Unilever in 2000. (Peredo et al. 2006). In their values the company Ben & Jerry's (2014, values) states that “Ben & Jerry's operates on a three-part mission that aims to create linked prosperity for everyone that's connected to our business: suppliers, employees, farmers, franchisees, customers, and neighbors alike.” According to their websites the issues they have taken a stand for are fair and global economy, social justice, the environment and sustainable food systems. (Ben & Jerry's 2014). Perhaps not the standard issues traditional for-profit organizations focus on. From their action and value statements it seems difficult to deny that their actions would not fit under the description of social entrepreneurship. The statements Ben & Jerry's make show a blend of commitment to profitability with equally strong commitment to social and environmental issues. To label Ben & Jerry's as a social enterprise is not acceptable to all. The same kind of discussion is also going on in social entrepreneurship scenes in Finland, concerning whether or not Veikkaus should be labeled as a social enterprise or not. They have received the Finnish Social Entrepreneurship Mark and therefor

have been classified as social enterprise (The Association for Finnish Work 2015).

Dees & Anderson (2003) have defined for-profit social enterprises as entrepreneurial organizations that are 1) legally incorporated as for-profit ventures, with one or more owners with the formal right to control the firm and its assets, and 2) "explicitly designed to serve a social purpose while making a profit". The social purpose creates a commitment to create value for the society or community rather than just wealth for the owners. Dees et al. (2003) suggest that social entrepreneurs might be drawn to for-profit structures in order to see if they can do well while doing good.

In their research Peredo et al. (2006) found companies that had strong goals of profitability alongside their social and/or environmental commitments and goals. It was difficult to distinguish if the goal of profitability rank closely or equal to environmental and social mission. Mair et al (2006, 39) argue that social entrepreneurship is equally well suited for for-profit organizations. According to them the choice of set-up is generally dictated "by the nature of the nature of the social needs addressed, the amount of resources needed, the scope for raising capital and the ability to capture economic value".

Peredo et al. (2006) argue that the presence of social goals as part of an undertakings purpose can be classified as an example of social entrepreneurship. They draw a continuum to explain the range of what may be considered social entrepreneurship. On the other end is the requirement that the social mission be the only goal of the entrepreneurial undertaking and on the opposite end the social goal is somewhere among the other goals. At one extreme social goals are exclusively the only objective to be pursued. Some of these entrepreneurs will not engage in any commercial activity at all, while others will engage in some commercial exchange, but all the income is directed back to the cause. Any profit is seen as instrumental necessity to help the cause. The term social entrepreneur is quite generally accepted to include individuals and groups whose main purpose is to generate social benefits but who also aim to generate monetary benefits for themselves and possibly others. In this case, the profit-making is no-longer only a means to an end but also an accepted goal. (Ibid). Social wealth creation is then the primary objective, while economic value creation ensures the sustainability of the enterprise (Mair et al. 2006). Some may take it as far as to allow social goals to be among the other goals, even the subordinate to monetary goals. The personal gain may even be the sole purpose and social goals just a happy outcome or way to make more profits. (Peredo et al. 2006).

Some cases bring up the questions of a current strategy attracting increasing interest in the competitive business world called "cause branding". The purpose of cause branding is to provide needed support for chosen worthwhile social and/or environmental projects and also to increase the profitability of the company partly by encouraging loyalty amongst customers and employees. It may be challenging to determine whether the social actions made are pursued purely for their marketing value or for their social purpose. (Peredo et al 2006.).

## 2.6 The Social Enterprise Mark

According to the Association for Finnish Work social entrepreneurship is business that is strongly value driven, financially profitable and operates using sustainable development methods. The association estimates that there are thousands of social enterprises in Finland across different sectors. Distinctive to these enterprises is that they 1) reform service structure, 2) produce healthcare services in a humane and financially sustainably way, 3) employ and develop services from a local perspective and use their profits to support the welfare of their extended neighborhood, and 4) develop sustainable solutions to environmental problems. (The Association for Finnish Work 2015).

The Social Enterprise Mark was launched in 2011. It can be given to enterprises, which are established to solve social and/or environmental problems. The companies are obligated to spend most of their profits to further their social or environmental mission. The purpose of the Social Enterprise Mark is to help social enterprises to differentiate themselves from the other actors in the business field and also to indicate that the enterprises adapt the social enterprise operating model. (Ibid).

Social entrepreneurship has a growing trend in the world and there is an equivalent mark to the Finnish Social Enterprise Mark, for example in Great-Britain. According to the Association for Finnish Work (2015) even as social entrepreneurship has gained more awareness around the world, it is still fairly unknown in Finland. That is why the purpose of the Finnish Social Enterprise Mark is also to improve the public knowledge of social entrepreneurship by bringing more visibility to the issue.

The mark is granted by the Association for Finnish Work and it can be granted to social enterprises whose 1) primary purpose is to generate social good and they conduct their business in a responsible manner, 2) have a restricted profit distribution and use most of their profit to support the social mission, and 3) have open and transparent business operations. There are also other criteria taken into consideration when the Finnish Social Enterprise mark is granted. (Ibid)



### 3 MOTIVATION

“Motivational theories ask a fundamental question, namely: What moves a person? (Ryan 1998).”

There are several contexts in which to examine motivation. For psychophysiol-ogists motivation is a biochemical state or a neurological activation whereas for psychologists it is a dynamic aspect of behavior which leads individuals into contact with the world. Motivation is an active process which leads individuals to direct behavior towards certain situation and object. Furthermore motivation is typically conceptualized as internal impulse or external attraction. (Nuttin 1984).

Traditionally the research on motivation has been conducted to answer the questions of: 1) what gets a person activated 2) why he chooses certain things over another and 3) why the responds of people differ from another when the stimuli is the same (Perwin 2003, Nuttin 1984). Motivational theories can be roughly categorized into *drive theories* and *incentive theories*. (Elfving 2008). According to drive theories there is an internal stimulus such as hunger, thirst or fear that drives a person. The concept of need is very central in these theories. The need to reduce tension, triggered by the stimulus, becomes a motivational force. Examples of well-known drive theories are Freud’s theory of motivation, Murray’s theory of motivation and McClelland’s achievement motivation (n Ash) to name a few. Achievement motivation has been described as a need to exceed the standards of excellence and it has been used quite commonly to study individual preferences towards entrepreneurial activities. Incentive theories suggest there is a motivational pull of incentives. An Incentive can be some kind of final goal that pulls the individual towards it, therefore these theories are called goal theories. (Perwin 2003). In drive theories the push factor dominates where as in incentive theories the pull factors dominate (Elfving 2008). Drive theories and incentive theories are also called push and pull theories in entrepreneurship literature.

Not all motivation theories fall under the categories of push and pull theories. These theories emphasize the movement towards individual fulfillment of one’s potential and the interest in activities that do not have external rewards. Therefor motivation can furthermore be divided into *intrinsic* and *extrinsic motivation*. (Perwin 2003). Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that comes from within a person and is not affected by any external rewards such as money or fame. Personal interest in the task at hand and pleasure from the task itself are essential to intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Desi 2000). According to Ryan and Desi (2000, 70) intrinsic motivation consists of “the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacities, to explore, and to lean”. Extrinsic motivation is seen as the opposite to intrinsic motivation and suggests that a person is driven by the reward that completing a task successfully will bring. For instance, someone learning to play the violin just for the

love of playing can be illustrated as intrinsic motivation, whereas someone learning to play the violin because of common praise or approval can be seen as extrinsic motivation. (Ibid). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not exclusive, one can be motivated by both (Nuttin 1984).

Both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are part of the self-determination theory that for example Ryan and Desi (2000) have successfully continued to develop from its early days. They have proposed three basic human needs that motivate people: competence, autonomy and relatedness. Competence is seen in the motivation to master a difficult task, autonomy in the motivation of a freedom to choose tasks and actions based on individual interests and values. The need for relatedness is expressed in motivation to feel closeness and connection with ones loved ones.

### 3.1 Motivation and entrepreneurship

Since the decade of 1990's the field of entrepreneurship research has seemingly shifted focus away from the research of the entrepreneur, almost abandoning the study of entrepreneur completely. In the 1980's research attentions focused on understanding the entrepreneur: wanting to discover unique personality traits of the entrepreneur as well as discovering potential entrepreneurs. (Carsrud & Brännback 2009, 17; 2011). There was a belief that unique personality traits could be found that would define an entrepreneur. At the time the field of entrepreneurship research was still in its early stage, accumulating knowledge from other science disciplines, such as social science and psychology for example. When research could not demonstrate special characteristics or personality traits of the entrepreneur, it also ended investigations of potentially beneficial lines of research including research on entrepreneurial motivation. This resulted in the shifting of research focus away from entrepreneur's personality and motivation before the theme was fully explored. (Carsrud & Brännback 2011). It took nearly a decade before the interest towards entrepreneurial cognitions in the entrepreneurial research emerged again. The research on entrepreneurial motivation, mind and behavior would benefit from well-tested theories from other disciplines such as psychology and other behavioral sciences. (Mair & Martí 2006; Carsrud & Brännback 2009, 19).

Traditionally economic aspirations have been seen as the main reasons for new venture creations (Dees 1998). Recently, however, there has been an insight for example in social entrepreneurs that there might be other, more relevant motives for the entrepreneur to start a business. The social gains and values are seen as the primary motivation for social entrepreneurs. For lifestyle entrepreneurs economic goals and motives might very well be important incentives but still, the aspirations might not necessarily be the maximization of the economic gains. (Carsrud & Brännback 2011). Craftsmen and artists certainly aspire to make a living by their arts and crafts, but more important than the economic

gain for them might be the motivation of doing what they do. Sometimes the primary motivation may change over time. This craftsman who started his business out of passion for the job, might over time and commercial success start to value the economic gain more than the job itself. (Elfving 2008).

Entrepreneurs are assumed to have the same motivations as anyone else for fulfilling their needs and wants. What sets them apart from everyone else, however, is the way of using these motivations to create ventures rather than just working in them. Some entrepreneurs would choose to work as an entrepreneur even if other compelling opportunities would arise. (Carsrud & Brännback 2011).

### 3.2 The role of personal values as motivators

“The value concept, more than any other, should occupy a central position... (is) able to unify the apparently diverse interest of all sciences concerned with human behavior” Rokeach 1973, p.3).

These words were written by a psychologist defining the centrality of the value concept. In everyday spoken language values are discussed as what people consider important to them in their personal lives. To some its security and kindness, to others its independence, power or success. All individuals hold a certain number of values that vary in importance to them. What is important to someone, might be altogether irrelevant to someone else.

According to Rokeach (1973) values and value systems immediate functions are to guide human actions in everyday situations. As long term functions values give expressions to basic human needs. Values are seen as high-order systems of belief that are formed early in life and are shaped by the life-experience of a person. Values are more concrete construct than attitudes or desires. They are not in the immediate control of the individual and therefore cannot be denied or altered easily. (Hemingway 2005; Rokeach 1973). They are the beliefs that define what is right and desirable for ourselves and for others and as such drive judgment serving as a standard by which individuals can evaluate objects, situations and the actions of oneself and the actions of others (Conger 2012, Rokeach 1973).

Rokeach (1973) distinguishes four components in values: cognitive, affective, behavioral and motivational components. The cognitive component is the knowledge of what is desirable, what the right way to behave is or the right end-state to strive for. Affective side of values is the emotions that they generate for or against. Behavioral component of value comes from it being an intervening variable that generates action when activated. The motivational side of values is seen though *instrumental* or *terminal values*. Instrumental values are motivational because they provide the means by which a desired end goal is accomplish. Terminal values on the other hand motivate by being the ultimate goals that we strive to achieve and are the most important to us. Terminal values rep-

resent goals that are beyond immediate, biologically urgent goals. These super-goals are something that we might never actually meet, but yet we spend a lifetime hoping to achieve them eventually. Terminal and instrumental values can be further classified. Terminal values to self-centered or society-centered, intrapersonal (e.g. salvation, peace of mind) or interpersonal (e.g. world peace and brotherhood) depending on their focus. Persons may vary quite significantly from one another concerning the priorities they place on social and personal values. Prioritization in social values lead to decreasing in personal values and vice versa. Instrumental values can be further categorized as moral values and competence or self-actualization values. Moral values refer to certain instrumental values that have intrapersonal focus, while competence or self-actualization values rather have personal focus and might not have concerns with morality. (Ibid.).

Schwartz and Bilsky (1990, 878) defined that “values 1) are concepts or beliefs, 2) pertain to desirable end states or behaviors, 3) transcend specific situations, 4) guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and 5) are ordered by relative importance.” Even though this definition is quite commonly acknowledged, it does not, however, shed light into the substantive content of values. It tells us nothing about the different value types that exist or about the relationship among different types of values – what are the individual value priorities and which values are compatible or incompatible with one another. (Schwarz 1994). The definition that is used in this research is of Schwartz’s (1994, p.21) more comprehensive definition of values “as desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity.” According to Schwartz (1994) values as goals have implicit aspects: they must serve the interest of a social entity, they can motivate action by giving it direction and emotional intensity, and they are used as standards for individuals’ to judge and justify their actions and are absorbed as the dominant group values and through individual learning experiences. The emphasis is that the primary aspect of a value is the type of goal or motivational concern that it expresses. Thus, values are trans-situational goals that vary in importance and that serve as guiding principles in people’s lives. They also vary in the motivational goals that they express. Values are hierarchical, acknowledging that individuals prefer behaviors or outcomes over another resulting in some values becoming dominant (Rokeach 1973; Schwarz 1992, 1994). (Rokeach 1973; Schwarz 1992, 1994). For Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) values are, in the form of conscious goals, a channel for individuals to express their universal human needs of biological survival, social interaction and welfare of the society. Since values are considered to be deeply held and are shaped by one’s life experience they are also seen to be foundational to the self-concept and identity. Value-expressive behavior can be seen as self-expressive behavior which has a positive reinforcing affect to enhance and maintain self-esteem. (Rokeach 1973). Behavior that is not in sync with individuals’ values can cause stress and feelings of guilt (Wright 1971). The need to express one’s

authentic self and values is a powerful and deep-seated motivational force (Conger 2012; Rokeach 1973).

### 3.2.1 Values and the entrepreneur

Values and the relation between individual values and the organization has been the ongoing topic of discussion in the academic circles (Stevens, Moray & Bruneel 2014). It comes without surprise that the social entrepreneurship literature has emphasized the importance of individual social entrepreneur, who is the mastermind behind the social venture (Shahir & Lerner 2006; Dacin, Dacin & Matear 2010). Social entrepreneurs are seen to require the values to be committed to helping others and the community rather than just for personal monetary gain (Thompson, Alvy & Lees 2000). Individuals with particular values, capabilities and skills are drawn to social entrepreneurship (Zahra et al. 2009). The motives of social entrepreneurs can be linked to ethical motives, moral responsibility and altruistic reasons (Meir & Marti 2006).

In the nexus of entrepreneurship the key components of the values theory can be used to understand the role of values in shaping the self-concept and motivational goals of the entrepreneur. Values are described as trans-situational and enduring standards (Rokeach 1973; Schwarz 1992, 1994) by which the entrepreneur can reflect the desirability and importance of his actions. These reflections do not only encompass welfare of the entrepreneur but also the welfare of others. In this sense values can guide entrepreneurs to recognize and pursuit opportunities that are not merely economically oriented or beneficial only to entrepreneur herself but also beneficial to others. (Conger 2012).

Values are known to be hierarchical, resulting some values to become dominant over others (Rokeach 1973; Schwarz 1992, 1994). Values are also seen to be foundational to self-concept and identity. Value-expressive behavior is also self-expressive behavior that can maintain or reinforce self-esteem. (Rokeach 1973). Thus, entrepreneur's idiosyncratic value hierarchy will dictate which values will be dominant and will reflect entrepreneur's self-concept best. As entrepreneurs will prioritize their values differently they will also recognize and prefer different opportunities. (Conger 2012).

## 3.3 Schwartz's motivational types of value

There has always been a quest among motivation psychologists to find whether or not there are universal needs or motives (Perwin 2003). Rokeach's (1973) work on values made an attempt to discover reasonably comprehensive and universally applicable values. The purpose was to develop a cross culturally valid survey that would allow a comparison between any one country's values with those of another. Building on Rokeach's (1973) work on values Schwartz (1992, 1994) developed a model for classifying and measuring personal values. In addition to Rokeach's (1973) goal of developing a cross culturally valid sur-

vey that would allow comparison between different nations, Schwartz's (1992, 1994) also postulated the cross-cultural analyses to be the key in generating a theory of the basic content and structure of human values. The theory of universal types of values was derived from three universal requirements of the human condition: needs of individuals as biological organisms, social interaction and welfare of the society (Schwartz & Bilsky 1987). Schwartz developed a comprehensive model of motivational value types that are universally understood and recognized across all cultures. The theory was composed from research conducted between years 1988-1993 that obtained 97 samples in 44 countries from every inhabited continent totaling 25 863 respondents.

TABLE 2 Schwartz's motivational types of values (Schwartz 1992; 1994)

Schwartz's motivational types of values	Exemplary values	Meaning behind the motivational values	Value type dimension
Hedonism	Pleasure, enjoying life	The value type of <i>hedonism</i> derives from organismic need and from the pleasure associated with satisfying these needs. The motivational goal of this type is pleasure or serious gratification for oneself.	Self-enhancement
Power	Social power, authority, wealth, social recognition, preserving one's public image	The central goals of <i>power</i> values are attainment of social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources. Power values focus is on social esteem. They emphasize the establishment or preservation of a dominant position within the more general social system.	Self-enhancement
Achievement	Success, ambition	The motivational goal of <i>achievement</i> is personal success through demonstrating competence according to prevailing cultural standards and by obtaining social approval. This definition differs from McClelland's (McClelland 1961) achievement motivation which focuses on the internal aspects of achievement motivation.	Self-enhancement
Benevolence	Helpfulness, honesty, forgiveness, loyalty, responsibility	<i>Benevolence</i> is a concern for the welfare of close others in everyday interaction. The motivational goal of benevolence is the need to keep those close others away from harm's way, to preserve and enhance the welfare of others that one is in frequent contact.	Self-transcendence

(Table 2 continues)

Universalism	Broadmindedness, social justice, equality	<i>Universalism's</i> motivational goals are understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of all others and the nature. These motivational goals can be derived from the survival needs of groups and people. These needs become obvious to individuals when they come to contact with individuals that are outside their primary group and the scarcity of resources is revealed.	Self-transcendence
Self-direction	Creativity, curiosity, freedom, choosing one's own goals, independency	The defining goal of <i>Self-direction</i> is independent thought and action, the autonomy to choose, create and explore.	Openness to change
Stimulation	Varied life, exiting life	The motivational goal of <i>stimulation</i> type of values is excitement, novelty and challenge in life.	Openness to change
Tradition	Humility, devotion, accepting ones portion in life, respect for tradition	It is a custom for groups to develop symbols and traditions that reflect their shared experience and fate. <i>Traditional</i> goals of motivational values emphasize respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that are typical for one's culture or religion.	Conservation
Security	Social order, cleanliness, national security, sense of belonging, family security, healthy	The motivational goals of <i>Security</i> value type is safety, harmony and stability of society, relationships and self.	Conservation
Conformity	Politeness, obedience, respecting elders	The motivational goals of <i>Conformity</i> are defined as restraint of actions, inclinations and impulses that could upset or harm others and that could violate expectations or norms. These values emphasize self-restraint in everyday interaction with close others.	Conservation

In Schwartz's model, value is understood by its relationship with other values. Values with similar motivational goals are grouped together or with compatible value type groupings. Those values that have dissimilar goals will

be grouped in conflicting value types. (Schwarz 1992, 1994). If values are seen as motivational goals, then reaching these goals must serve the interest of the individual and/or some collectivity. Individual and collective values are seen to be opposite to one another. For example, values with the goal of conformity are more compatible with values expressing tradition than with values expressing self-direction for instance (Schwartz 1992). Schwartz's 10 motivational types of value are seen in table 2 and each are defined by its central goal on column three. The second column gives exemplary specific values presenting each type. People promote the central goal of the value type when they act in ways that express these specific values (Schwartz 1994). The last column reveals the value type dimension. There is no definite answer to whether or not this list of ten motivational types of values is exhaustive of all the main types recognized in different cultures, but there is empirical evidence that support this proposition (Schwartz 1992, 1994).

### 3.3.1 The structure of value relations

According to Prince-Gibson et al. (1998) a relationship between value types and the meaning attributed through these relations are referred as value structure. The relations of the value structures are seen in the model in figure 1. The ten motivational types of values are located inside the circle and higher order value dimensions are placed on the outside of the circle. In the model, tradition is located outside of conformity because they are seen to share a single motivational goal of subordination of self in favor of socially imposed expectations (Schwartz 1994).

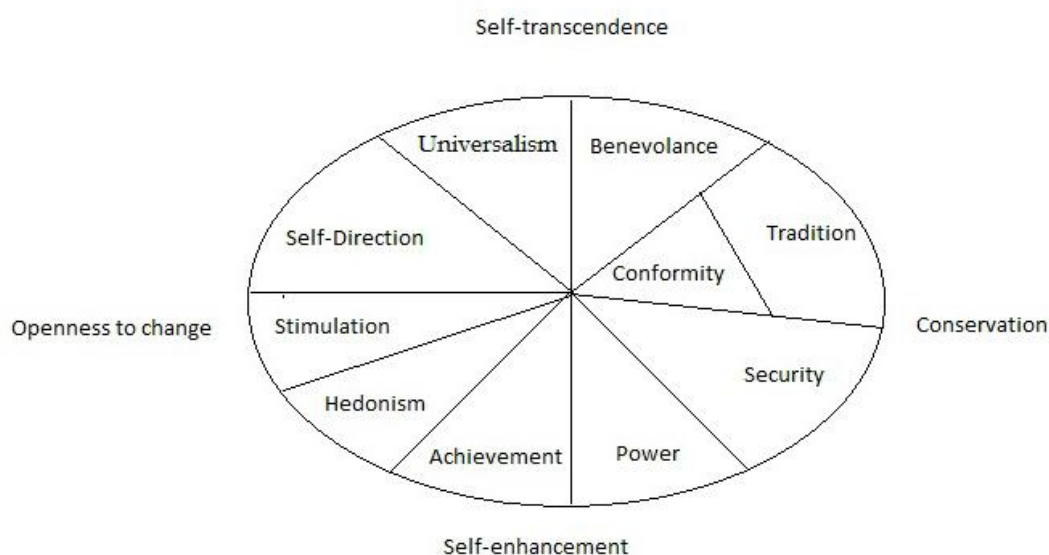


FIGURE 1 Theoretical model of relations among motivational types of values (Prince-Gibson & Schwartz 1998, 54)



The pursuit of any values have psychological, practical and social consequences that may conflict or be compatible with the pursuit of another value. The compatibilities and conflicts that spring from the simultaneous pursuit of different values are the bases of the structure of relations among value types (Prince-Gibson & Schwartz 1998). The positioning of value types is descriptive of the relationships between these value types. Value types that are proposed as compatible types are situated in close proximity going around the circle. The more distance values encounter in the circular order, the less compatible they are and the more conflict there is postulated to be between them. The greatest conflict is proposed to be between value types that are located opposite to one another from the center. (Schwartz 1992, 1994).

Even though the theory makes a discrimination among value types, it postulates that values form a continuum of related motivations. This continuum engenders the circular structure. The motivational differences between value types are continuous rather than discrete with overlapping's in meaning with value types of close proximity. There has been empirical evidence that values from adjacent types might mix together rather than appear in clearly distinct regions. On the other hand, there should not be any intermix between values and value types that express opposing motivations, instead they should be distinctly separated from one another. (Schwarz 1994, 24-25).

The oppositions between competing value types are summarized in two higher-order dimensions where opposing value types are placed on opposite ends of a bipolar dimension. These dimensions are *conservation versus openness to change* and *self-enhancement versus self-transcendence*. (Schwartz 1992, 1994). The conservation versus openness to change dimension is defined as how much the values motivate people to follow their intellectual and emotional interest towards the unknown, favoring change and unpredictable direction (self-direction and stimulation) versus to submissive self-restriction, letting thing be as they are, preserving traditional practices and stability (security, tradition and conformity). (Schwartz 1992, 1994). Therefore values in the tradition type such as humility and accepting one's position in life are compatible with values in the security type like safety and social order. The motivation in these values is towards the goal of conservation in which the aim is stability and safety by preserving things as they are. On the opposite side of the dimension are the values that motivate people away from the conservation toward the openness to change. (Conger 2012). These values motivate people to seek for independence, adventurous life and creativity

The self-enhancement versus self-transcendence dimension is about duality of values either motivating people towards dominance over others, enhancing one's own personal interest and success even at the expense of others (power and achievement) versus values motivating people away from selfish behavior towards promoting the welfare of others and the environment and to accept others as equal (universalism and benevolence). (Schwarz 1992). Thus, power type values such as authority and wealth are compatible with achievement type values such as success and ambition. These values have in common the motiva-

tion towards the goal of self-enhancement and the salience of one's own interest. On the opposite side of this dimension are the motivational values that drive people toward self-transcendence: a concern for the welfare of others. (Conger 2012). Examples of compatible values from the value type of universalism are social justice and equality and from benevolence values such as helpfulness and forgiveness.

### 3.3.2 Value priority

As there are psychological, practical and social consequences in the interaction between compatible and incompatible values types (Schwartz 1992; Prince-Gibson et al. 1998) it is difficult for the individual to hold incompatible values simultaneously, while holding compatible values often has a positive effects. The concept of value structure is universally comprehended just as the effects of differences in value prioritization is universally recognized. Therefore, just as the value types of power and universalism are recognized in almost all cultures, so is the possible conflict between these values. (Prince-Gibson et al. 1998, Schwartz 1992, 1994). Thus, individuals prioritize values and arrange them hierarchically. The emphasis is on the values that are most important to individuals and the values that are not compatible with dominant values are deemphasized. (Rokearch 1973; Schwarz 1992).

While value structure is universal and the effects of value prioritization is universally recognized, the value prioritization itself is idiosyncratic. This means that individuals will most likely agree what power and universalism mean, as will they recognize that these value types are incompatible. However these value types will differ in terms of how much importance they hold for different individuals. Therefore value prioritization creates individual differences in the way values are expressed. (Conger 2012).

## 4 METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 Research method

The chosen research method in this thesis is qualitative research, because it gives a more in depth view of the phenomenon being examined. Defining what qualitative research is does not come without a problem. Because of the lack of clear definition of what qualitative research is, it is often described as the opposite of quantitative research. This definition suggests that qualitative research is not about using measurements and the intention is not to turn material into numeral information. (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008, 4; Koskinen, Alasuutari & Peltonen 2005, 30). The problem with this definition is that qualitative and quantitative research are actually not opposite of each other but instead have similarities such as the need for the results to be comprehensively argued (Silverman 2011). There are, however, characteristics that describe qualitative research. The starting point in qualitative research as Hirsjärvi, Remes and Sajavaara (2009, 161) see it is describing real life. According to a definition presented by Koskinen, Alasuutari and Peltonen (2005, 31) qualitative research is about analyzing a single case, in which the interaction between the researcher and the single observation is essential. Therefore, qualitative research is about the subjective views of the examinee and about understanding these individuals that are part of these single cases. Every case is unique and the empirical data is processed taking this into consideration (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 164).

Qualitative research usually proceeds inductively without priorly set hypotheses. This approach gives freedom to build the research and theory part further in the midst of research. The goal is to reveal unexpected matters. Qualitative research is not about testing hypotheses or theories, but about analyzing the material in a multilateral and detailed matter. The research material is usually preferred to be naturally occurring in its own context instead of material that is actively produced by the researcher. Methods that let the voice and viewpoints of the examinee be heard are much preferred such as observation, in-depth interviews or textual data. The participants for the research are often chosen specifically by using convenience sampling. The goal is to keep researchers influence to material at minimum. (Koskinen et al. 2005, 31-33; Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 164). Qualitative business research enables a researcher to produce new information about how things work in real-life business, why they work in such matters and how to comprehend these matters in a way that allows them to be changed (Eriksson et al. 2008, 4; 116). It enables researchers to examine the complexity of business-related phenomena in their natural context (Eriksson et al. 2008, 116; Koskinen et al. 2005, 15). The use of qualitative research is justifiable when for example questions like what, how and why are central or when prior insight about the phenomenon under examination is

modest or when quantitative research cannot produce needed answers. (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008, Koskinen et al. 2005, 161).

Case study research is commonly used in business related qualitative research. Case study refers to research where a single case or a few specifically chosen cases are being examined. (Koskinen et al. 2005, 154; Eriksson et al. 2008, 115). Thus, a central feature is the construction of 'the case' or several 'cases'. The research questions are designed to understand or solve the case by explaining what the case is about and what can be learned from it. Case study can be divided into two different types: intensive and extensive. Intensive case study intends to provide a profound and holistic understanding of a unique case from the inside whereas the aim of extensive case study research is to create, test or elaborate a generalizations of constructs by comparing a number of cases. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 118).

The research topic in itself speaks on behalf of qualitative research as the prior knowledge of the subject is still lacking. For-profit social entrepreneurship has not been extensively examined along with motivational factors of these entrepreneurs. The research cannot be categorized as solely intensive or extensive case study. The intention is not to make new hypothesis or theory like extensive case study designs to do (Eriksson & Koskinen 2005, 118-119) but to interpret the examined cases and possibly find common features, which can be examined under current theories.

## 4.2 Case criteria and research data

### 4.2.1 Case criteria

Koskinen, Alasuutari and Peltonen (2005, 157) do not go into much detail about the collecting of empirical data except that it has to be as appropriate as possible. The same perspective is given by Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 52) stating that accessibility and suitability of the empirical data is important. Systematic sampling methods are not required because the purpose of qualitative studies is not to make statistical generalization. General purpose of the research, the chosen research approach and research questions should guide in what kind of empirical data is most useful. (Ibid). There are no general rules in qualitative research as to what is an adequate sample size. Sometimes the term saturation is used in qualitative research meaning that the researcher starts the research without prior knowledge of how much research material is sufficient. A researcher will continue collecting the data until it seems that any new material will not expose anything new regarding the research. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 181-182).

The entrepreneurs participating in this research all have received The Finnish Social Enterprise Mark that is granted by the Committee of Social Enterprises. This mark is granted to enterprises and entrepreneurs that are commit-

ted to trying to find solutions to social and ecological problems. Also their business operations are seen to have positive effects that benefit the society. (The Association of Finnish Work 2015). The entrepreneurs participating in this research were chosen specifically to fit the research in question. As social entrepreneurship is still lacking of clear definition of what is considered social entrepreneurship (Dees 1998, Zahra et al. 2009, Peredo and McLean, 2006), it might be difficult to identify social entrepreneurs and enterprises that fit under the widely recognized definition of social entrepreneurship. The Finnish Social Enterprise Mark helps to identify social enterprises and entrepreneurs reliably as the Finnish Social Entrepreneurship mark is granted by committee that constitutes of experts. All of the social enterprises that have received The Finnish Social Enterprise Mark have met the criteria of social entrepreneurship defined by The Association for Finnish Work, which is widely acknowledged association in Finland. This gives some reliability to the research as all the participants of the research are evaluated under the same criteria and are not merely meeting the criteria of the researcher of what consist as social enterprise. In addition to having the Finnish Social Enterprise mark the companies chosen for this research had to meet other criteria such as the companies 1) had to be for-profit social enterprises and 2) they had to be owned and led by entrepreneurs. This excluded non-profit social enterprises and enterprises that are owned by foundations and various associations.

The possible participants were chosen from a list published at the Association for Finnish Work website of enterprises that have received the Finnish Social Entrepreneurship mark. Possible candidates that met the earlier mentioned criteria were selected and they were contacted by email that explained the reason for the approach and the research in short. At this state there were eleven enterprises that met the criteria of 1) having the Social Entrepreneurship mark 2) being a for-profit organization that is 3) owned and led by an entrepreneur. Out of these eleven companies three agreed to participate in the research, two politely declined and six never responded to the primary inquiry or the follow ups that were later send. Another entrepreneur was found through private networks that fit the criteria and a fifth one through connections from another participant. The two later found participants were not chosen earlier from the Association for Finnish Work's list because it remained unclear whether they were for-profit organizations or not as they were later discovered to be.

#### 4.2.2 Data collection

The research material can be primary data or secondary data. Primary data is collected by the researchers themselves directly from the examinee or created by the research subject whereas secondary data already exist somewhere and has been collected by someone else for examples different statistics or databases. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 186; Eriksson et al. 2008, 78). Secondary data interprets or analyses primary data. Primary data has the advantage of giving direct firsthand information about the research subject. Secondary data often has to be molded to fit the research at hand because it rarely can be used as it is. Using

one source does not exclude the use of another. It is possible to apply both sources in a single research. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 186). It is possible to use several different sources of empirical data such as interviews, observation, statistics and other sources and the combining of these is called triangulation (Eriksson et al. 2008, 127). The most common data collection method used in qualitative research is theme interviews and because of this it has almost become a synonym for qualitative research (Koskinen et al. 2005, 105).

Interviews as a data collecting method is chosen when for example an individual is seen in the research context as a subject, who should have the opportunity to freely express his/hers own matters. Also it is justifiable to use interviews when research topic has not been studied much and therefore it is difficult for the researcher to know what the answers are going to reveal. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 205). Because of these reasons it is justifiable to use interviews as data collecting method in this research. Both central concepts of this research, for-profit entrepreneurship and motivational values, have not been examined much. This research argues that it is important to let the social entrepreneurs participating in this research express their thoughts and mind freely. Because of the lack of prior research on this topic, it is difficult for the researcher to know exactly what is relevant to research.

The primary inquiry to all possible interviewees was sent March 9<sup>th</sup> 2015 and the interviews took place in April and early May 2015. Secondary information about the participants was gathered online before each theme interview. An outline of themes for the interview was designed prior to the interviews and questions were made to fit this structure. The outline of themes was sent to the interviewees prior to the interview in order to make the themes familiar to the interviewees. The outline of themes can be found on appendix I on page 66. Four of the interviews were conducted by phone and one via Skype. Interviews were recorded and later transcribed word to word. Some notes were written during the phone interviews and afterwards in the case of the Skype interview. The interviews took 35 minutes to 67 minutes and gave 53 pages of A4 when transcribed word to word (Times New Roman, 12, single). General information about the interviews is collected together and presented in table 3.

TABLE 3 Research interviews

Interviewee	Sex	Date of interview	Type of Interview	Duration of interview (min)
Entrepreneur 1.	Female	7.4.2015	Phone	68:23
Entrepreneur 2.	Male	15.4.2015	Phone	43:26
Entrepreneur 3.	Male	16.4.2015	Phone	55:58
Entrepreneur 4.	Female	22.4.2015	Skype	35:05
Entrepreneur 5.	Male	5.5.2015	Phone	42:05

Theme interview was chosen as the method of use. It is a very simple interaction method but can be an effective method when conducted well. It is a way of communication that consist of the primary and secondary questions made by the interviewer and the often narrative answers given by the interviewee. (Eriksson et al. 2008, 78; Koskinen et al. 2005, 108). A pivotal guiding instrument of the theme interview is an outline of themes and topics that set the shape of the interview and helps to ensure the right questions are being asked. The purpose of the preprepared outline of themes is not to be a theory based list of questions but instead to help the interviewer to remember which topics have already been addressed and which ones still need addressing. (Koskinen et al. 2005, 105; 108-109). The preprepared outline of themes, that was also send to the interviewees, was used in the interviews as a guiding tool to help the interviewer address all the premeditated topics and themes like Koskinen et al. (2005, 108-109) suggested.

There are several ways how research interviews have been classified in the literature. The most typical way of classifying is to separate the interviews according to how structured or formal the interviews are as 1) structured and standardized interviews, 2) guided and semi-structured interviews and 3) unstructured, informal, open and narrative interviews. Structured and standardized interviews are performed by adhering to a preplanned script with little flexibility in phrasing or in the order of questions. Many qualitative business related interviews fall into the guided and semi-structured interviews category. In such cases the interviewer has preprepared outline of topics, issues or themes but there is still room to vary the wording and order of questions in each interview, making the interviews seem fairly conversational and informal. Typical for unstructured, informal, open and narrative interviews is the use of some guiding questions or core concepts that are asked without using any formal, structured interview instrument or interview protocol. The interviewer is also able to guide the conversation which ever direction seen appropriate for the

interview. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 208-210; Eriksson et al. 2008, 81-83). The interviews were semi-structured in nature allowing the interviewer to alter the wording and change the order of the question to follow the direction of the conversation. Also secondary reflective, clearing and complementary questions were made during each interview. As Eriksson et al. (2008, 84-85) point out, it may be beneficial for the interview to continue discussion and elaboration of respondents comments to check understanding of a matter and to give the participant an opportunity to add in or correct some details.

The outline of themes used in the interviews was categorized into four sections heading as basic information, social entrepreneurship, the Finnish Social entrepreneurship mark and the meaning of social entrepreneurship. The first section of the interview was designed to covered basic information about the entrepreneur and his or hers enterprise. The second part of the interview focused on factors concerning how and why everything got started, what motivates the entrepreneur, why the entrepreneur wants to operate as social entrepreneur, what is the meaning of values and what kind of motivational values and factors can be found. The following theme addressed the Finnish Social Entrepreneurship mark and what motivated the entrepreneur to apply for the mark. The forth and the last part of the interview focused on the general concept of social entrepreneurship. All of the sections of the interview were designed to discover what motivates the participants to operate in their current venture. Following Eriksson et al. (2008, 79) advice the interview questions were related, but not equal, to the research questions. Some of the questions were similar in order to get an answer to the topics seen most important to research. Sometimes questions can be misunderstood by the interviewee or some important aspects might not come up the first time around, which is why some of the themes came up again in a different manner and context. This gave the interviewee a chance to supplement the previous statements or highlight the important aspects mentioned earlier. The topics also covered value priorities and the possible change in them. The purpose was to get the entrepreneurs give narrative answers and to talk freely about the chosen themes. Secondary reflective, clearing and complementary questions were made to define the chosen themes.

### 4.3 Research data analysis

It is quite difficult to make any generalizations about when the data analyzing process should begin, however, usually it is best to start the process straight away after the data has been collected. That is when the material still inspires the researcher and material can be easily specified and can be complemented. Methods of analyzing data can be roughly divided into methods aiming at explaining or understanding. Approach aspiring to understanding is often used in qualitative analysis. This kind of analysis is usually illustrated as a spiral pro-



cess, meandering as it progresses. In other words the analyzing process does not proceed in a straightforward manner but instead a researcher goes back and forth between different themes and phases of the research. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 223-225).

There are countless different ways to analyze qualitative data, thus researcher have to adopt the one that will be most suitable for the specific situation and study (Patton 2002, 434). Content analysis is a basic analyzing method, which can be used in all qualitative research (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2009, 91). According to Patton (2002, 453) content analysis usually refers to analyzing text such as interview transcripts, diaries or documents. In more general terms it refers to "any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings". Patton (ibid) mentions case study as an example which can be content analyzed.

Inductive and deductive analyses are often linked to qualitative analysis. This dividing is based on the interpretation made about the logical reasoning used in the research. (Tuomi et al. 2009, 95). Central to inductive analysis is the discovery of patterns, themes, and categories in one's research data. Researchers' interaction with the data results in findings emerging from the data. In deductive analysis the data are analyzed according to an existing framework. (Patton 2002, 453). In other words deductive reasoning works from the more general to the more specific and inductive reasoning works the other way, from specific observations to broader generalizations. A third scientific reasoning that is also used besides these two is abductive logic. According to abductive reasoning theory formation is possible when observations are based on a leading thought or a clue. (Tuomi et al. 2009, 95). The research in question was analyzed using content analysis and it used the abductive logic.

In summary inductive content analysis has three phases 1) data reduction 2) data clustering and 3) abstraction ergo creating theoretical concepts (Tuomi et al. 2009, 108). Abductive content analysis proceeds to a great extent the same way as inductive content analysis except for the final part concerning abstraction. In abductive analysis findings are compared with previous findings or theories and abstractions are not being made. (ibid, 97; 117-118). This research follows the logic of abductive content analysis. The process of analysis used in this thesis is described in figure 2.

Qualitative data analysis usually starts with reading through the material, in other words, the transcribed interviews and making preliminary notes (Koskinen et al. 2005, 231; Patton 2002, 463). The first step taken after all the interviews were transcribed, was reading through the transcripts. Comments in the margins and underlining were made to start organizing the data into topics and files. The shorthand topics were written directly on the relevant data passages. This phase is called reducing and the purpose is to process research data so that all what is considered irrelevant is left out (Tuomi et al. 2009, 109). The coding and classifying is used to produce a framework that will identify and organize all data collected during fieldwork. This will help identifying recurring regular-

ities or irregularities in the data which can be sorted into categories. (Patton 2002, 465). The regularities and irregularities are grouped together and named with a term describing the class. First the groups form sub classes and by combining sub-classes upper classes are formed. This phase is called clustering. The following phase in inductive content analysis is abstraction where the relevant information is separated and based on the chosen information theoretical concepts are created. (Tuomi et al. 2009, 110-111). However, as this research analysis followed abductive logic instead of creating new theories it reflected findings from data to prior theories found in literature.

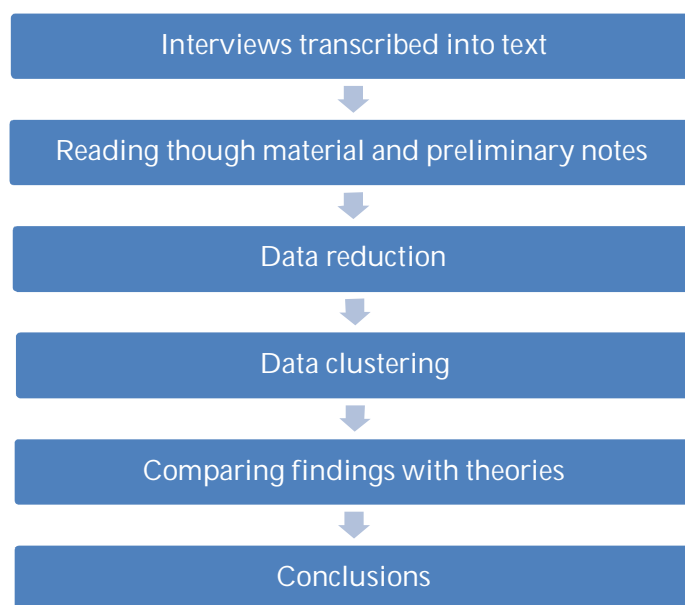


FIGURE 2 Analysis process (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2009)

#### 4.4 Reliability, validity and ethical considerations

Reliability and validity are difficult to establish in qualitative research and in case studies. The reliability of the research, however, can be verified by using a descriptive detailed review of how the research has been executed and how the researcher has come to the final conclusions. Validity is an indication of the compatibility of the description and its explanations and interpretations, in other words, does the explanation of the description fit and therefor is the interpretation reliable. The demand for accuracy applies to each step of the research. In interviews for instance, duration of the interview, possible distractions, misinterpretations and researchers self-evaluations must be described. Classification and detailed information about reasons behind the classification is crucial for the analysis of empirical data. The interpretation of the results also have the same demand for detailed accuracy. The researcher must be able to describe how (s)he has come to the conclusions that (s)he has. Direct quotations and oth-

er authentic documents help the reader to understand the researchers' interpretations better. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 232-232). Due to the fact that the interviews were held in Finnish and later translated into English, it should be kept in mind that some minimal nuances might be lost in the translations. All the translations are made the best possible way in order to capture the true statements made by the interviewees and all the quotations are translated as accurate as possible.

Qualitative research gives quite a lot of information about a small number of cases, thus the subject might be easily identifiable or at least quite easily traceable (Koskinen et al. 2005, 278). To avoid identification anonymity was promised to all participants at the beginning of the process. Therefore the interviewees will be referred as entrepreneur 1., entrepreneur 2. and so on, revealing very little personal information about the participants. As Eriksson et al. (2008, 73) point out the anonymity of the participants in the research should be a priority and should be honored in research process. The research paper will be available to all research participants in the extent they wish before publishing, to be approved by them.

The reliability of the research also indicates the degree to which the measure is consistent, meaning that if repeated would the measurements give the same results and validity indicates whether the research measures what it was supposed to measure. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 231). As a qualitative research this research describes the researched phenomenon at a certain time. The empirical findings reflect the issues that were brought up by the participants and seemed meaningful to them at the time of the interview. Although values are seen as deeply rooted and quite stable, there is the possibility that value priorities change and the participants describe things differently. However, in the case of repeated research it is plausible that the results would be convergent.

The purpose of this research was to discover motivational values of social entrepreneurs, how these values are prioritized and how the motivational values influenced the social enterprise creation. This research describes the values that were found to be meaningful to the interviewed social entrepreneurs. Therefore it is worth noting that the entrepreneurs in this research were interviewed as an entrepreneur and not as a private person. Because of this this research does not editorialize beyond their role as an entrepreneur and the answers are interpreted reflecting their role as an entrepreneur. Therefore it is possible that their motivational values as private people are not completely in sync with their motivational values as entrepreneurs of a social enterprise. This research does not want to exclude the existence of other personal and motivational values the social entrepreneurs have. The purpose was to find the motivational values that hold truth to most of the entrepreneurs and therefore some single values were left out of this research because they were interpreted to be insignificant to the outcomes of this research. As the research was qualitative there is also the possibility that not all important values were mentioned in the interview due to different reasons. However, this research postulates that the entrepreneurs disclosed the most important motivational values and possibly only left out the less important ones.

It is possible that the semi-structured questions influenced the reliability of the research by effecting the length of the answers. Some of the answers were more concise than the others and it is possible that the interviewer steered the more brief answers in order to receive a longer response. There is also the possibility that the participants have made somewhat varying interpretations of the same question and responded according to these interpretations (Eriksson et al. 2008, 82).

## 5 FINDINGS

The purpose of this thesis was to study for-profit social entrepreneurs' motivational values, what kind of value prioritizing they have and whether these values have played any influence in the venture creation of a social enterprise. Chapter 5.1 discusses the findings concerning motivational values emerging from the research data. The following chapter 5.2 introduces findings focuses on the value prioritizing. It introduces the values that emerged in the value prioritizing discussions and discusses how this can be seen in action. The final chapter 5.3 will illustrate how personal values have influenced the venture creation of for-profit social enterprise.

### 5.1 Motivational values of for-profit social entrepreneurs

The interviewed entrepreneurs operate across Finland and in different sectors: two in the sales and service sector and three in the health- and social sector. The companies have been established between 2011 and 2013 for the exception of one established in 2009. Three of the ventures were created right from the beginning as social enterprises. The remaining two enterprises were first establishes and later realized the link between their operations and social entrepreneurship. All of them are for-profit social enterprises with limited distribution of profit and they all have received the Finnish Social Entrepreneurship Mark.

The research questions were designed to identify what motivational values social entrepreneurs have. They were asked what motivates them in their everyday work and what they hold vitally important in their social venture. They were also asked about their company's values and their personal values and how these two meet. The motivational values that emerged from the data were grouped together and categorized as the cause, innovation, integrity, meaning in life, wealth and human vs. environment. Figure 3 illustrates these values and they are discussed in more details in the following chapters.

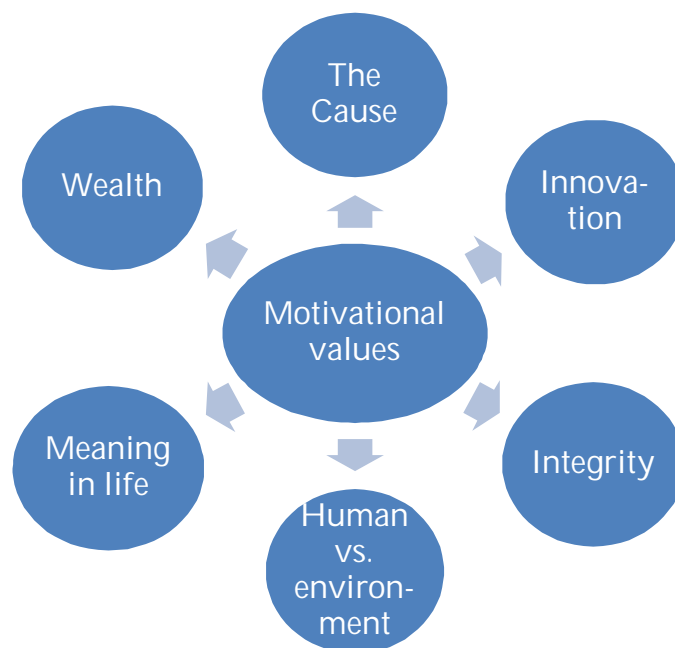


FIGURE 3 Motivational values of social entrepreneurs

### 5.1.1 Personal and corporate values

The interview questions and themes were designed to investigate interviewees' values and motivational aspects. As the interviewees discussed much about their company's values, a link between their personal values as an entrepreneur, founder and owner of the company and their company's values, was investigated and established. Some entrepreneurs saw a direct link between their own values and their company's values, while others saw there was some connections. Some entrepreneurs' also opened up the motivational aspect of their values, however the link between motivation and values in new venture creation is further discussed and presented later in chapter 5.3. There are two issues that need to be taken into account. First, the interviewed entrepreneurs work in different sectors: healthcare and social sector or commercial sector. Second, some of the companies were specifically established as social enterprises right from the start as others became one later on. The divergence of the sectors and the purpose of the new venture creation might reflect the answers as different backgrounds.

The entrepreneurs that saw a connection between their own personal values and working in a social enterprise expressed, that it would be difficult to work in such company if the value structure did not match. They saw that the work they do is based so much on values that their own way of thinking and acting must be in line with the company's values and vice versa. They also described that they expressed their values in a concrete manner in their everyday work so company values were not only established as company protocol or statements, but as concrete ways of conducting business. The corporate values

had been discussed with all the employees and with other owners of the company. It was also seen to makes things easier when everyone agrees on the values and are fully aware of them.

*"They do reflect my own values and I mean it would be really difficult to establish a company and operate if you didn't endorse the operating model and values. So I mean they do reflect my own values clearly." Entrepreneur 2.*

*"Well they are virtually the same so that...well I mean this is after all such a value-based thing and everyone involved in this, well we have also discussed these things through with them ... everyone involved in this are in it for the same... basically for the same reasons and share them... share the same values. It is also of course something that makes it easier... easier that you don't have to consider which the company values are and which are your values. So that everything you do is also according to company values." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"They do match quite a lot... I would say that. Well, I do see it as really important, because without that you could not pull this thing through and take it forward, if you just invented something and didn't believe in it yourself. So it does matter. It's the alpha and omega that you need to believe in the product so that... so that you can work for it to make it happen. So I do see it very important." Entrepreneur 1.*

As some of the companies had grown there were some variations inside the company in how the values were seen. Value discussions had taken place in every enterprise so all the employees were aware of them. Company values had also been brought up in recruiting processes and influenced at least to some extent the employee selection. Values were seen to guide how the social enterprises conducted their business.

*"Well, I'm sure there are similarities, but I wouldn't say they are exactly the same. I mean values are after all how we practice our concrete work and then there are so many of us therapists and there are therapists at different stages of their career. So it might not be possible to see the social impact of the job. I do understand that." Entrepreneur 4.*

Even though to some extent the connection between entrepreneurs own personal values and company values had been seen, it was also seen that it is still about business and about fixing a certain problem. Values were seen as the expression of the owners will as how the business is run. The justification for the existence of the company comes from solving a certain problem using business means. No matter what the statement was about the influence of personal values, they all shared the will to do good business.

### 5.1.2 The cause

The most unanimously and most often mentioned motivational factor for the participants in their venture was what is named as *the cause* here. All of the interviewees discussed in a multiple occasions the positive motivation their social cause has on them. Social cause refers here to the social problem each of these enterprises were designed to solve. This is in line with the fact that these enterprises were designed in order to solve a problem. The entrepreneurs had made certain observations about social problems and come up with a solution how to solve it or make it at least smaller by using business methods. To them the problem is worth fixing and fixing this problem is what drives them forward. It was also mentioned that they saw it was their obligation to do something to mend the problem after they had spotted the problem. They also felt that due to their education and experience they had the needed skills to address the problems. There are multiple motivational factors behind the will to mend the problem they have spotted. Some of these spring from the desire to help people or the environment, but also it has something to do with opportunity identification.

*"This is just for the problem solving of this industry that we created this. That was the main motive" Entrepreneur 1.*

*"I do see it as a kind of responsibility, when you have made certain observations, to take things forward. Of course some realities are against. This should be made into business to keep thing going. But to put it this way, if this company stopped from existing then this problem would not have disappeared and this must be solved. So this is one motivator." Entrepreneur 3.*

*"Well, there is of course this strong... strong own will and believe to this thing and knowing that your solving a real problem and when you solve this problem it benefits many. So that is what this is, kind of... that is why you work. Knowing that it helps others." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"Well, we want to influence the welfare of children, youth and families. We operate in the rehabilitation sector so we see a lot of families and children who are feeling really bad and who need help. So we have the chance to help them. That is our mission." Entrepreneur 4.*

*"Well of course the feedback we get and that you sense and see that people are content and that you're doing good things, so it's motivating that... that probably is the biggest motivational factor being able to stand for what you do and to be enabling... --- better quality for customers and then for the employees a little... or actually a lot better working conditions and more flexible working conditions." Entrepreneur 2.*

The motivational types behind the cause can be roughly divided into helping others and solving a problem. Three of the entrepreneurs were motivated by



helping others (clients, employees, other interest groups) and the two were motivated to solve a problem of the industry. This is where the background of the entrepreneurs was clearly visible.

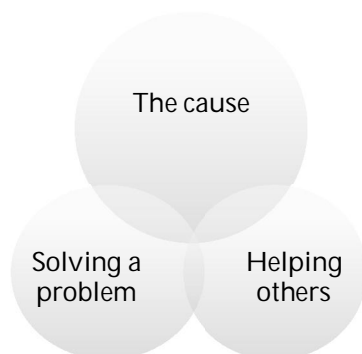


FIGURE 4 Motivational types of the cause

### 5.1.3 Innovation

All of the companies in this research can be seen as pioneer in their own field in different ways. Some entrepreneurs have developed new methods to conduct business in seemingly traditional fields, some had created completely new businesses that did not exist before or they had expanded the old ones using new methods. Technology was also used to create new businesses the way that had not been used before. What was common to all these entrepreneurs was the use of innovation in new venture creations but also in development of their company. They all seemed eager to develop their concept and company even further instead of preserving the status quo. Interviewees all expressed in different terms, that they found innovating to motivate them.

*"You do the kind of work that you can determine yourself what you do and when you do and how you do and also with whom you do it with. And it's motivating that you can develop something new that is your thing and that is our thing." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"Certainly because I was studying management and had possibly even a radical idea of how to change this social- and healthcare sectors' quite traditional hierarchical organization... so testing these ideas was probably why I wanted to go... --- - wanted to possibly go and see and show that even as a limited company it can be done with some other goals than money first." Entrepreneur 2.*

*"Probably one of the reasons why I left private company and started my own business was the will to do things differently." Entrepreneur 4.*

*"I've probably said that I would never become an entrepreneurs, but that's what just happened, but I've always been entrepreneurial and I've always had the desire to improve myself and innovate." Entrepreneur 4.*

The innovations did not stop only at venture creations or development, but also in some cases in finding alternative, even imaginative funding options. Even though the participants saw that innovating had positive motivational factors, also negative aspects were mentioned. As pioneer in their field they sometimes felt that they had to argue and justify their case because they were working in an area no-one had gone before. Also finding funding options was seen limited in some cases. As pioneer in their field they also felt like they had to work even harder in order to be successful. From this angle innovations can have positive and negative motivating aspects.

Based on the type of innovation further categorizations were made. The entrepreneurs were classified as *tradition reformers*, *change agent* and *inventors*. The tradition reformers were innovating old traditional organizations and developed new models to operate in the seemingly old-fashioned industries. They were motivated to do thing in a new way and to change old perceptions. The change agent was refining an old business method and updating it more to the present day by using technological innovations. The inventors came up with new innovative concepts that did not exist before in their industries.

#### 5.1.4 Integrity

The next group of values, which were expressed by all the interviewed entrepreneurs', was named *integrity*. All of the mentioned values have integrity as integrative factor. The interviewees brought up honesty, reliability, openness and transparency as important values to them and their companies. They saw that it is important to communicate openly in the social media as well as to their customers and other stakeholders. They want their procedures and operational models to be open to discussions, so that there's no secrecy, everything is out in the open. It was seen to have a positive motivational force to be able to stand tall to what you are doing.

*"And honesty and reliability. Transparency is an important one to mention. So that we are trying to take this forward with transparency." Entrepreneur 1.*

*"And then openness is one important value. Meaning that we communicate openly, are active in the social media and are active towards the relatives. And then of course we're completely open about our operational model and discuss about it. So openness is one of the pivotal values." Entrepreneur 2.*

*"Well it is actually, I would say a certain openness, transparency what's pivotal to me. It's always been to me, even in the tough business world, really difficult to understand why... I mean why operating can't be much more open. We disguise a lot of issues behind certain things and believe that things are certain way. Being afraid of something. I do start with this principal of openness. Lets try to be as open as possible and then based on that transparency, take things forward." Entrepreneur 3.*

*"I appreciate the openness in it, what the principal is, that we're open. And I consider it at all levels, being open. Perhaps visible... there aren't any secrets and to strive to do things right and financial profitability is reasonable. To me it's about making informed decisions." Entrepreneurs 4.*

It was apparent that having honesty, reliability, openness and transparency named as important values were not just empty statements made by companies, but instead these values were something that actually are included in their operations and how these social enterprises conduct their businesses. First of all the openness and transparency is seen in how these companies communicate with their employees, social media and other stakeholders. According to one entrepreneur they are very open with their employees of the company finances and what everything costs. They even have authorize their employees to make purchases on their own for the company. All of the mentioned values are transcribed into the everyday work of these companies, as concrete actions taken instead of making empty statements.

#### 5.1.5 Meaning in life

What the interviewed entrepreneurs agreed on, was the motivational factor of having a meaningful work. They found it motivating to be able to do something that has a bigger meaning than work in general, where the outcomes can have far reaching impact. It goes beyond helping others to making a substantial possibly sustainable change. They feel like they are generating good and enabling a positive change. They also feel like they are part of something that is greater than just themselves and perhaps, leaving a positive footprint for the generations to come. Many of the interviewed entrepreneurs mentioned that the positive feedback they receive also helps them stay motivated. That is concrete prove to them of how they have succeeded, how they have managed to help people and how they have helped to make a change happen. As they explained, it would be impossible to work for such venture unless it was something you truly believed in and believed to have a positive change on something.

*"If this was only about the money then this business wouldn't exist anymore. So the number one thing is that this is a meaningful job. That's why you do it." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"Well, to do something you believe in. To be able to work for what you really believe in, so that there is a real meaning. I mean... that is what has carried me though." Entrepreneur 1.*

*"And then there's kind of a will to have an influence and leave this positive footprint in a way. To do something meaningful and it is kind of... Something that is useful to multiple parties... something like that." Entrepreneur 5.*

The motivational types derived from the motivational type of value *meaning in life* are *leaving a positive legacy, personal motivation coming from working for something one believes in and working for something bigger than oneself*. The social entrepreneurs participating in this research were motivated by some of these aspects or by all of them.

#### 5.1.6 Wealth

This is perhaps the most important value to open up and discuss in more detail what is meant by it. All of the entrepreneurs mentioned money or wealth in some terms during the interview and it was seen to have motivational value to them. However, it is worth clarifying that in this case money and wealth was interpreted to mostly be an instrumental value for the entrepreneurs and not a terminal value. Instrumental value provides the means by which a desired end goal is accomplished whereas terminal values are motivating by being the ultimate goal one strives to achieve. In this case the entrepreneurs see money as basically means to an end. In order for them to achieve their goal of solving a problem and keep their operations running, they need money and wealth. The research also investigated entrepreneurs value prioritizing and it is discussed in more details in chapter 5.2.

*"I mean... in a way... everyone has that own desire to become wealthy, successful through entrepreneurship. It would be great if this became successful, to make a lot of money so that it would be possible to develop and develop. But the main motive is to get to this field some permanent... to fix these permanently, to make these problems so much smaller so that it wouldn't be harmful for this field." Entrepreneur 1.*

*"Well yeah I do see that values and a social goal is the core of the operations. And then money creates the frame to what is possible to execute." Entrepreneur 2.*

Even though money was never mentioned as the main motive for the new venture creation and can be seen as instrumental value, it would be naïve to minimize its meaning. All of the social enterprises interviewed in this research are limited companies and for-profit social organizations with limited distribution of profit. Even as their main focus is mending a social problem and not to make their owners wealthy, they are still about making good business and money. As they are not charity organizations, they are also about being profitable for their owners and making their time and efforts worthwhile in the midst of going good. All of the entrepreneurs wish to get their paycheck from the enterprise and to be able to develop their work. Having a profitable enterprise is seen to generate good not only to the owners but also to fixing the social problem. The more money the enterprise generates, the more it also benefits the cause.

*“There’s a limit to this value thinking. The goal after all, is to eventually get some well-earned pay from this a bit more and that the horizon would be a bit longer.” Entrepreneur 3.*

### 5.1.7 Human vs. environment

In addition to the values mentioned earlier, there were some values that were not mentioned by all the entrepreneurs. It was clear that the background of the company had influence on some values they held important. There were two types of values that divided the participants into two groups: the ones that saw human as an important value and the others who saw environment as the important value.

Some of the entrepreneurs saw improving environmental issues and sustainable development motivational to them. They wanted to be part of creating a world that would take environmental issues at heart and worked to improve environmental issues concerning chemicals or resource issues for example. Working towards improving these issues were seen motivational.

*“And of course there’s a search for reasonableness and all. That I would like to be part of creating a world where a company produces more good for the environment than it is a burden to it.” Entrepreneur 3.*

The companies that worked in the healthcare and social sector saw humans as a value itself. They saw that life is a value and people’s self-determination right, the capacity to act and the supporting of life as important. The entrepreneurs that saw humans as a value also extended this thinking to their employees. They focused on making their employees working conditions as good as possible by, for example, giving them flex to working hours. Some entrepreneurs stated helping others to be a motivational factor to them. They felt the need to help others and saw it to be a driving force in their venture.

*“These are basically something that can be found in every, at least in our sector organizations papers, that the main value is people. Our whole work is based on people being the central of everything, people’s self-determination, capacity to act and supporting that. ---- And then these kind of values that are really important, flexibility, so that we try to be flexible, protean, offering employees flex, offering flexible working hours. ---- Then openness is an important value.” Entrepreneur 2.*

## 5.2 Value prioritization

The research questions were designed to shed some light not only into what motivational values can be found, but also to how social entrepreneurs prioritize their values. The value prioritizing was distinct in one aspect: money and wealth versus mending the social problem the company was designed to do.

The entrepreneurs prioritized their social mission higher than money and wealth. They expressed their accomplishments to be more valuable than the money alone. They also expressed pride to what they were doing for the society, customers and other entrepreneurs. These companies do not measure their success by money and wealth alone, but by the social impact they have on the society.

*"It's the social good and influencing on that sector. We are not aiming to maximize out profits. It's the measurements in a way that's different. We measure how easily people get help for their mental problems versus how much money we get out of people getting help... getting into care. Of course we must also look at the financial side of things but the main goal, however, is different." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"Yes absolute, if we were able to succeed really well so that the brand became well known, I would be so much more proud about that because of its importance and because it has brought society and entrepreneurs and consumers this added value than I would be if it had paid me well and if the company had succeeded financially." Entrepreneur 1.*

*"When we have taken partners to join us and were establishing this company and taken new ones in, so we have had a value discussion first with everyone that this company does not exist in order for the owners to get wealthy." Entrepreneur 3.*

The entrepreneurs also prioritized their customers, their work and their stakeholders before money. It was also found that the companies' mission did not extend only to their own mission, but they also put their stakeholder's mission before money as they supported other similar causes. Through carefully selecting their cooperation partners they were maximizing their social impact beyond their own mission.

*"We try to view our operations that social edge first also otherwise. For example we do our purchases with considerations to social effectiveness. And if you think about our laundry services, we have used this launderette, which employs mental rehabilitation patients who are in a poor labor market position. So even in our purchase chain we do try to consider, instead of the cheapest price, that through our purchases we can produce as much of that social good as possible." Entrepreneur 2.*

The prioritizing can also be seen in putting their customers first before easy work and money. It would be quite easy to just focus on doing ones job without putting special effort in it. The data showed how the entrepreneurs put the customers' needs before his/hers own. This can be seen as trying to maximize the social impact by looking at things at a wider scale.

*"They (values) guide a lot because this could be turned into a service directed to wealthy people. A service for a closed circle where only certain type of therapists*

*are welcome, and would be sold to only certain types of people at a certain price and all. But we have intentionally made the choice that... that this would help as many as possible. So it's also a value judgement to make decisions like that." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"We see a far reaching meaning to our work, a broader perspective. It's not just that I'll do my job, I'll take care of this one customer, this one call and then we'll get the money. Seeing it in a wider scale. ----- Seeing what you're doing in a larger scale. If you think about our customers we see our customers in a larger scale. Not just the child or the young, whose name is in the commitment of expenditure. Our customers are also the whole family and often the teachers and daycare staff or whoever is in the child's inner circle who needs that support." Entrepreneur 4.*

This thesis categorizes these value priorities of the social entrepreneurs as *creating social value*, *maximizing social impact* and *accountability to different stakeholders* that become before wealth. Creating value over wealth means that instead of focusing on personal profit making these social entrepreneurs for instance are focusing on looking things from the clients and other stakeholder's point of view by making help accessible to all, having a wider perspective on operations and focusing on added value. Maximizing social impact refers to putting their mission beyond just their own, influencing not just their clients but at the same time the society and measuring success by the impact it has on people and society over how much profits they have accumulated. The interviewees also expressed how they prioritize their customers, employees and other stakeholders before money and that is what is referred here as accountability to different stakeholders. This broader categorizing of value priorities is shown in figure 5.

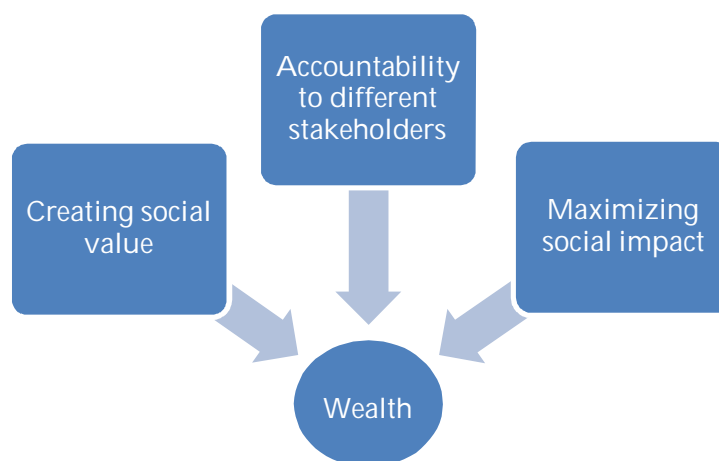


FIGURE 5 Value priorities

### 5.3 Motivational values and new venture creation

The research set out to find if personal values had motivational impact on what type of venture was created in other words if the values played a role in starting a social enterprise among these entrepreneurs. The research also intended to discover how the values possibly had influenced the new venture creations.

All of the entrepreneurs expressed their values had played some role in choosing to set up a social enterprise. The formation of social enterprise was seen to be a sum of different things and the effect of values differed among the participants. Some entrepreneurs saw their own personal values having salient influence on forming a social enterprise, even though the values were not the only influential aspect. The values, at least to some extent, guided towards choosing to set up a social enterprise instead of a traditional commercial venture. They also influenced the entrepreneur's eagerness to set up a company.

*"It was the personal experiences and then... my values had a strong influence and all... And why social enterprise... it came from my own values why that (social enterprise) exactly. But coincidence and lucky also had something to do with it... I mean this business competition for example was the last... the last straw. After that it was kind of a must to found the company." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"Yeah, it did in a sense that if I hadn't know that there's also this way of doing business, I probably wouldn't have started a business as eagerly. Such a huge part of it after all has to do with the certain method and values. So I don't think I would have found necessarily, at least as easily a purely profit seeking company." Entrepreneur 5.*

Some entrepreneurs saw that their personal values had some meaning in establishing a social enterprise, even though they could see themselves being entrepreneurs anyway. Some entrepreneurs also had other enterprises that were not social enterprises. The values were seen to have influence on how the business was run no matter if the venture was social enterprise or not. The line of business was also seen to dictate the presence of values other than money and how value driven the company should be.

*"Personal values did have meaning for wanting to start doing this differently." Entrepreneur 2.*

*"I do believe I could be an entrepreneur anyway, but of course it had significance, that I am an entrepreneur at this stage because the way how I ended up becoming an entrepreneur. The venture guided to this social entrepreneurship so strongly that there wasn't any other alternatives, but basically I could be an entrepreneur anyways. But the more I have been playing with this social entrepreneurship idea... I mean no matter what the established company would be, I do think in order for it to be successful the ideas of social entrepreneurship, of course I would*



*pursue them in any case. I mean... if you think about it, our work is really strongly value driven and we have a strong vision that is something else than making money... so so the making money in itself is a poor goal. And to get the whole organization to commit and work for such goal... I mean no matter what the company, it should have some more profound meaning to work for." Entrepreneur 2.*

The presence of values was also seen as a quest to start a company that has more meaning to it than making money. The values were linked to finding meaning in work and using ones energy on something worthwhile, to leave a positive legacy behind. Some of the entrepreneurs explained how their values led to establishing a company in order to do something differently from other operators in the field.

*"Well, of course now that I've grown older and you could say now that there's also a couple of kids ---- You kind of... you kind of think that you want to use your energy on things that are meaningful. So perhaps, in a way I can now say in a rocking chair that at least I have done something useful. Perhaps that is it, a certain kind of motive." Entrepreneur 3.*

*"Probably the way that we have been a social enterprise from the start. So perhaps it was a one reason why I left the private company and became an entrepreneur myself that I wanted to do things differently. ---- At that stage we had already profiled as nature and animal assisted therapy so they fit quite well together, because there was the sustainable development and eco-friendliness and we focused even more on such things and started to think what those meant in our company" Entrepreneur 4.*

*"Well at least that the job is done with high quality and that the job is actually customer orientational. Customer orientation is quite often this cliché, but in our work it's actually possible to do customer oriented, customer central work... Listening to the customer, customer encounter and then on the other hand the effectiveness of the therapy is quite central to the effect of doing high quality work. ---- Doing things right. The way they are supposed to be done. That was important." Entrepreneur 4.*

In the social venture creation values were seen to influence 1) the opportunity recognition and the eagerness to establish a business, 2) the operational model of the enterprise, 3) the goal setting of the business (not to be profit driven), and 4) the will to do work with a purpose and to leave a positive legacy behind through meaningful work. It is worth noting that the social entrepreneurs were influenced by some of these aspects and not all. Also, there were other motivations behind establishing the social venture than the ones mentioned here.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter introduces the conclusions of this research, which are based on the research questions and the empirical findings. This research intended to find answers to the following research questions:

- What motivational values of social entrepreneurs can be identified?
  - How do for-profit social entrepreneurs prioritize motivational values?
  - How has social entrepreneur's personal values influence the kind of venture she/he has created?

The next chapters will reflect the empirical data with the research questions and the theoretical frame.

### 6.1 The meaning of motivational values

According to Schwartz (1992, 1994) values are trans-situational goals that vary in importance and that serve as guiding principles in people's lives. They also vary in the motivational goals that they express. Schwartz developed a comprehensive model of motivational value types that are universally understood and recognized across all cultures. Value is understood by its relationship with other values in Schwarz's model. Therefore values with similar motivational goals are grouped together or with compatible value type groupings and those with dissimilar goal with conflicting value types. (Schwartz 1992, 1994). When values are seen as motivational goals, reaching those goals must serve the interest of the individual and/or some collectivity. These two are often seen to be opposite to one another. (Schwartz 1992). The pursuit of any values are seen to have psychological, practical and social consequences that may be conflicting or compatible with the pursuit of other values. (Prince-Gibson & Schwarz 1998)

The motivational values found from the interviewed social entrepreneurs were named as the cause, innovation, integrity, meaning in life, wealth, human and environment. When these central values were reflected using Schwartz's model they fell under the value types of *universalism*, *benevolence*, *self-direction* and *power* as shown on figure 2. When reflecting these value types it could be interpreted that the motivational goals of the social entrepreneurs participating in this research are 1) to understand and protect the welfare of others and the environment (universalism), 2) to preserve and enhance the welfare of close others that one is in contact with (benevolence), 3) to have the autonomy to create, choose and explore (self-direction) and to 4) to attain social status and prestige and control over resources (power) (Schwartz 1992).

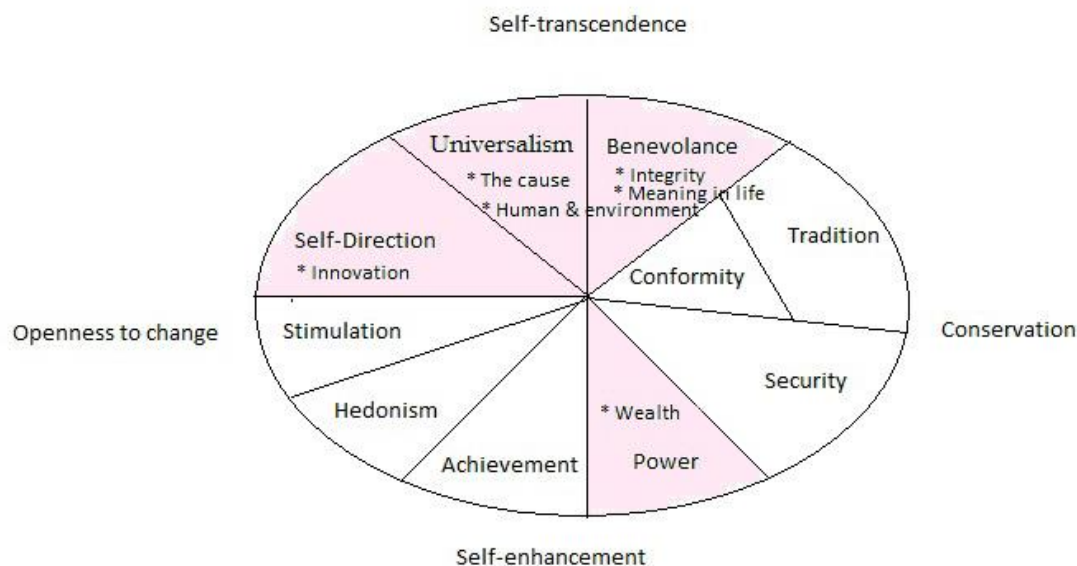


FIGURE 6 Motivational values of SE's in Schwartz's theoretical model (Schwartz 1994)

Value types that are proposed to be compatible are situated in close proximity around the circle in Schwartz's theoretical model. The more distance there is between value types, the less compatible they are proposed to be. The greatest conflict is seen to be between value types that are located opposite to one another from the center. (Schwartz 1992, 1994). As seen in figure 6 all of the values found from the empirical data, apart from one, are in close proximity to each other and therefore are seen to be compatible with each other. The only conflicting value, according to Schwartz's model, is wealth located in the power value type that is seen conflicting with universalism.

In a larger spectrum, all of the found value types are located in the self-enhancement versus self-transcendence dimensions, all except one in the openness to change dimension (self-direction). According to Schwartz's (1992) this is a duality of values either motivating people towards enhancing one's own personal interest versus values motivating people away from selfish behavior towards promoting the welfare of others and the environment. In the light of the findings it could be interpreted that the interviewee's values motivate them towards working for the good of others. These findings can be seen to be in the line of what the interviewees answers reflected. This is also rational considering that social enterprises are seen to apply innovative business models to address social problems and complex social needs for the sake of bettering communities and societies. (Zahra et al. 2009). Although, most of the value types found were compatible with each other, there is also that one value type that is seen to be conflicting. This will be discussed in more details in the following chapter.

We suggested earlier adapting from Dees (1998), Lerner et al. (2006) and Peredo et al. (2006) that social entrepreneurs are change agents who 1) adopt a mission to create and sustain social value exclusively or in some prominent way

2) recognize and pursuit new opportunities in a relentless way to serve the mission in question and to create social value 3) employ continuous innovation, adaptation and learning 4) is not limited by the resources currently available 5) has a strong sense of accountability to the mission and the stakeholders and, 6) tolerate risks. The motivational value types of social entrepreneurs found from the data were *the cause, innovation, integrity, meaning in life, wealth and human and environment*. From these the conclusion can be made that social entrepreneurs are motivated by the mission, the innovation of the venture, doing right by the mission and people involved, the importance of the venture, the personal and social gain of the economic profitability and the helping of others or the environment. By contrasting the definition of social entrepreneurs with what the empirical data revealed, it can be noted that they are convergent. Based on this it can be said, that these social entrepreneurs in the research are change agent, because they are striving to make a change in their chosen area. They are also committed to their mission and to creating value. They have recognized an opportunity and used innovative manners to serve the mission. This thesis did not focus on the resource aspects, but some of interviews revealed that the social entrepreneurs are sometimes faced with limited resources, but the commitment they have made to the mission and others involved keeps them continuing with the mission. The only aspect from the used definition of social entrepreneur that did not come up in the interviews, was the tolerance of risks. It can only be assumed that as for-profit entrepreneurs they are facing the same risks as any other entrepreneur.

## 6.2 Establishing the value priorities

The interaction between compatible and incompatible value types have psychological, practical and social consequences. Holding compatible values are often seen to have positive effects for the individual, whereas holding incompatible values are seen to have negative instead. (Prince-Gibson et al. 1998). To avoid this, individuals prioritize and arrange values hierarchically putting emphasis on the ones that are most important to them. The ones that are not compatible with dominant values are de-emphasized. (Rokearch 1973; 1992). Value types are idiosyncratic signifying that they vary in importance to each individual. Therefor value prioritizing created differences in how values are expressed by different individuals (Conger 2012).

It is quite difficult to draw comprehensive conclusions on how the interviewed social entrepreneurs prioritize their motivational values, when examined only based on the singular motivational values gathered from the empirical data. From the six motivational values of social entrepreneurs found in this research, a connection to three of them could be made in concerning value prioritizing. First, the motivational value named here as *the cause* was expressed as the main motive in multiple occasions. This means that solving the social

and/or environmental problem was seen as the main motivation to social entrepreneurs. It was also mentioned multiple times and in different terms that the social entrepreneurs prioritize the cause over money. Other singular motivational values found, when discussing value priorities, were reflecting the value types of *human* and *integrity*. In reflection of Schwartz's model (1994) this would be *universal* and *benevolence* types of values versus *power* type of value. As they are on the opposite sides of the spectrum they are seen to be the most conflicting values. Simply put, this would mean a dichotomy between the entrepreneurs will to do good for the society and/or environment and the will to make profit for oneself and also dichotomies between putting others and one's integrity before personal wealth gain.

Few different perspectives can be taken into considerations as in reality the interviewees did not seem to have any dichotomies in doing good for others and in keeping one's integrity versus making money while doing it. Schwartz's model (1994) would explain that the social entrepreneur puts the emphasis on making the social change before profit seeking. Conger (2012) would refer to the idiosyncrasy of values and argue about the individualistic differences in how they assess and prioritize different value types. Rokeach on the other hand (1973) would discuss how the motivational side of money, as a value, could be seen as instrumental value. Instrumental values are motivational because they provide the means by which a desired end goal is accomplished. In this case the money would enable the social entrepreneur to solve or better the social or environmental problem. Some definitions of social entrepreneurs are on the same line with these interpretations. Dees (1998) for example argues that the social mission is central and the most important thing for social entrepreneurs. According to him wealth creation is secondary and only a means to an end.

There has been discussion among scholars that the dichotomous line of thinking between opposing motives should be forgotten. These scholars argue that social entrepreneurs can simultaneously hold altruistic motives and profit-motives while also searching for personal fulfillment. (Mair et al. 2006; Santos 2012). Profit making is seen as an accepted goal, as the literature on social entrepreneurship quite commonly accepts the possibility to generate social good while concurrently generating monetary benefits for other and for oneself (Peredo et al. 2006). This thinking rejects the concept of conflicting values as Schwartz (1992, 1992) proposes and notes that the social and monetary goals are not excluding. As all the interviewed social entrepreneurs operate a for-profit social enterprise they may also have simultaneously equivalent social and monetary goals.

Aside from discussion on whether the motivational values are conflicting or not, the focus on singular motivational values and their prioritizing is not very informative about what the social entrepreneur's value more than monetary benefits. So far the research has come to the conclusion that these individuals consider their mission, people and integrity over money in their social venture. Through applying a broader perspective much more can be revealed about their value priorities. In order to introduce a more extensive perspective, the

singular values were categorized into broader value concepts named as *creating social value*, *maximizing social impact* and *accountability to different stakeholders*. First, it can be established that creating social value is prioritized over wealth creation by the social entrepreneurs. They are more focused on taking the clients and other stakeholders' perspective, operating in a broader manner and finding ways to create added value. Second, they also center their operations around maximizing social impact over profits, by extending their mission beyond their own, considering other stakeholders beyond their clients in their work and finding ways to maximize the potential impact on society. And third, they hold accountability to different stakeholders more important than producing profits. The participants emphasized the importance of their customers, employees and other stakeholders compared to their monetary goals. These value concepts offer a deeper insight of what the social entrepreneurs' value over money. Therefore this thesis suggests the use of broader concepts derived from the singular motivational values to offer more comprehensive explanation about the value prioritizing of social entrepreneurs.

### 6.3 The influence of motivational values in social venture creation

Values are deeply held beliefs that are shaped by one's life experiences. They are also foundational to the self-concept and identity. (Rokeach 1973). According to Rokeach (1973) value-expressive behavior can be seen as self-expressive behavior and is often linked to having positive reinforcing effect on enhancing and maintaining self-esteem. Feelings of stress and guilt can arise when the behavior of an individual is conflicting with his values (Wright 1971). There is a universal need to express one's authentic self and values and this is a powerful and deep-seated motivational force that should not be ignored (Conger 2012; Rokeach 1973). Several of the interviewees expressed that their past experiences, either personal or work related, had influenced their values and their decision to establish their social enterprise. Some could even recount the specific incident that changed them and drove them towards social entrepreneurship. All of the entrepreneurs saw that their personal values had at least to some extent influenced their decision to start a social enterprise. Some felt that through their personal experiences and values, they had a deeply-seated motivation to help others. For some, their values made them want to make a difference by doing things differently from the traditional way. Although values had impact on the social enterprise creation, they were not necessarily the prime motives for establishing a business and certainly not the only motives. The entrepreneurs did explain that they express their values in their everyday work and in how the business is run.

*"It was the personal experiences and then... my values had a strong influence and all... And why social enterprise... it came from my own values why that (social enterprise) exactly. But coincidence and lucky also had something to do with it... I mean this business competition for example was the last... the last straw. After that it was kind of a must to found the company." Entrepreneur 5.*

*"Like I already said earlier, that this line of business it's such... I don't see traditional business logic being the best when caring for people. Because when money is put first that often means that residents, workers are seen more as expense and so the number of personnel, the quality of care, food, everything is reduced so that financial outcome would look as good as possible. So yeah, personal values did have meaning for wanting to start doing this differently." Entrepreneur 2.*

According to Dees (1998) social entrepreneurs consider the social mission to be central and most important. The centrality of the social mission is seen to influence the opportunity recognition and the way these entrepreneurs assess these opportunities. The empirical data revealed that in the social venture creation values were seen to influence 1) the opportunity recognition and the eagerness to establish a business, 2) the operational model of the enterprise, 3) the goal setting of the business (not to be profit driven), and 4) the will to do work with a purpose and to leave a positive legacy behind through meaningful work. Encompassing with the empirical data, the centrality of the mission, that Dees (1998) suggests, is seen in the operational model the social enterprise has chosen, in the goal setting of the business and in the will to have a meaningful job in order to leave a positive legacy. The centrality of the mission also did influence the opportunity recognition as Dees (1998) also suggests.

It is worth noting that for for-profit social entrepreneurs also assess the monetary benefits for themselves and possibly others. The profit-making is not merely a means to an end but also an accepted goal. There is the wish to do good and make a living while doing it. (Peredo et al. 2006). Therefore, it is worth noting that although values matter, there is no need to overvalue them, because there is a combination of reasons leading up to social enterprise creation.

*"It is about fixing a certain problem. Of course after that in order to keep the business running there has to be business activities and through that the values are not anything miraculous. It's quite pragmatic business. It's not like... I have always kind of told these social enterprises, own troops... don't try becoming more pope than the pope himself is. This isn't so much different from so called normal business except as a certain type of expression of the owners will. That it's mutually agreed like this... not so much otherwise... especially since we are a limited company." Entrepreneur 3.*

A broader perspective and a comparison with the six motivational values found suggests that all of the values also influenced the social enterprise crea-

tion. The motivational values found were the *cause, innovation, integrity, meaning in life, wealth, human and environment*. As Rokeach (1973) describes, value-expressive behavior is linked to self-expressive behavior and therefore new venture creation can be seen as an expression of one's values. A further inspection of the motivational aspect of these values, of how these values activated these individuals, also suggests a link to the social enterprise creation. *The cause* is seen as a reason for establishing this particular enterprise, *the innovation* determined how the mission would be accomplished, *the integrity* influenced how the social entrepreneurs wanted to operate their business, *the meaning in life* influenced the search for the mission, *wealth* as a means to achieving the mission and *human/environment* as the reasons for the mission. These values can be seen to establish the answers to questions of *what, how* and *why* concerning the social venture creation. This interpretation does not want to exclude other possible motives for establishing a social enterprise and therefore acknowledges the presence of other motivational aspects, not presented here.

This thesis defined social enterprise as 1) an entity with high sense of accountability to its members and community 2) established to create and pursue opportunities relentlessly without regards to limited resources available 3) with a mission to create social value and pursue revenue generations through trading 4) in order to achieve a social and/or environmental goal and, by 5) a set-up is dictated by the social mission, the resources, the raising of capital and the capture of economic value. This definition also answers to the same questions of what, how and why similarly to the motivational values found in this research, thus possessing resemblance to the definition.

### 6.3.1 Different types of social entrepreneur

Zahra et al. (2009, 519) identified three types of social entrepreneurs "Social Bricoleurs, Social Constructionists and Social Engineers" that vary from each other in their opportunity recognition, in their impact on the broader social system and in how they acquire the needed resources. *Social Bricoleurs* typically focus on discovering and addressing local, small scale social needs by using their tacit knowledge of both local environmental conditions and local resources. Their operations are often small in scale, but they perform important functions by finding solutions to social problems local in nature. *Social Constructionists* are known to recognize and pursue opportunities and market failures, currently being disregarded by existing institutions, businesses, NGOs and government agencies. Using innovative methods these entrepreneurs bring reformation to the large-scale social systems. Their advantage comes from their opportunity recognition skills to create social value to their chosen mission by renewing different processes. *Social Engineers* recognize and address large national, transnational and global scale systemic problems within existing social structures. They differ from the other two types of social entrepreneurs because they have a revolutionary impact on the social systems and structures. (Ibid).

The social entrepreneurs were classified as *tradition reformers, change agent* and *inventors* based on the innovation type they expressed. These motivational



innovation types were referring to the opportunity recognition that was the reason behind establishing a social enterprise. The tradition reformers of this research operate at a local level and the change agent and the inventors operate at a national level. The tradition reformers can also be classified as *Social Bricoleurs* because they discovered a local social need that needed addressing using a new business method. They used their tacit local knowledge to recognize and pursue the opportunity and the local resources to further the mission. The change agent and the inventors can also be called the *Social Constructionists*. The Social Constructionists of this research observed national problems currently being overlooked by existing institutions, businesses, NGOs and government agencies. Using innovative ways they created new process and reformed traditional ones to the broader social system.

#### 6.4 Research contribution and future research

The field of social entrepreneurship is still quite new and emerging. The interest in motivational factors has been lacking in entrepreneurship research in general during the past decades and has only recently again raised the interest of some scholars. In social entrepreneurship literature the existence and meaning of values has been established and recognized, but there has been very little attempt to examine what the values are that drive social entrepreneurs. Also the research on how these values influence social entrepreneurs and their new venture creation is lacking. The research on social entrepreneurship has mainly focused on not-for profit social enterprises and the existence of for-profit social enterprises has almost been denied until recent years.

This research shed some light into the motivational values of social entrepreneurs, their value prioritizing and how the motivational values influenced the new venture creation of a social enterprise. Instead of being content with the knowledge that values are important to social entrepreneur, this research made a concrete attempt to reveal the most important values that motivate social entrepreneurs. The benefit from this research is in helping to understand the individual entrepreneur better and by doing this it is easier to determine not only why someone becomes an entrepreneur, but also what type of entrepreneurs they will become (Conger 2012). As Laiho et al. (2011) explain, social entrepreneurship can expand the concept of entrepreneurship and make entrepreneurship seem more appealing to individuals that might not otherwise see entrepreneurship as an appealing career option. By gaining new information about the motivational factors behind social entrepreneurship, we can understand what drives social entrepreneurs to establish a social enterprise. This knowledge can help us better understand what could make social entrepreneurship more appealing to larger audience. In a larger perspective, there is no denying that social entrepreneurship in general is still quite unknown to the public and there-

for all research conducted on social entrepreneurship could contribute to its visibility.

There are several issues that could be considered in the light of future research. First, this research did not make any difference between industries where the social entrepreneurs operate. The participants were working on social and healthcare sector or on sales and service sector. The research revealed that there were value differences between the entrepreneurs working on different sectors and therefore it could be beneficial to focus on one specific sector. It could also be of great interest to compare the values of entrepreneurs from these two sectors. Second, this research did not study how educational background or demographical factors influence motivational values, value priorities or the importance of values in new venture creation. Social entrepreneurs are a heterogeneous group and therefore demographical factors could serve something new on the motivational value discussion. Third, as some of the participants adduced that according to them, there is not that much different between for-profit social entrepreneurs and commercial entrepreneurs. There has been attempts to compare social entrepreneurs and commercial entrepreneurs in previous studies (see e.g Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern 2006). Contrasting the motivational values of social entrepreneurs and commercial entrepreneurs could contribute to this kind of research.

## 7 CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

As social entrepreneurship as a field of research is still quite new, there are some difficulties that would need to be addressed. Among these difficulties is the fundamental problem that it still lacks comprehensive universally understood definition of what is meant by social entrepreneurship. It is confusing, to say the least, what is meant by social entrepreneurship. As social entrepreneurship is still relatively unknown, this diversity makes the awareness of the issue more difficult to achieve. The participants of this research all express that they have encountered misunderstandings concerning social entrepreneurship. They also mentioned that the public knowledge of social entrepreneurship is still widely lacking in Finland. Adapting from different scholars this thesis suggests definitions of social entrepreneurship, social enterprise and social entrepreneur that were estimated to be compatible with the real life for-profit social entrepreneurs and enterprises, that participated in this research. This does not, however, erase the fact that the spectrum of social entrepreneurship, comprising of not-for-profits, for-profits and their hybrids, is still extremely wide. What it offers is a perspective that is based on the real life and broader knowledge of the subject.

Traditionally social entrepreneurship is perceived to be only NGOs or not-for-profit organizations. This image does not help to promote social entrepreneurship as a potential new way of doing business. This misconception not only alienates potential entrepreneurs who in addition to social missions also have personal monetary motives. It also makes it much more difficult for for-profit social entrepreneurs to find funding options. Investors are still often driven by monetary goals and these kind of misconceptions can put them off. Even though the mutual understanding of the description of social entrepreneurship is still lacking, it is quite generally accepted that social entrepreneurs can also have personal monetary goals, meaning that the profit-making is no longer only a means to an end but also an accepted goal (Peredo et al. 2009). The will to do good does not need to exclude private monetary goals. This research offered much needed awareness to the for-profit social entrepreneurship still lacking of scholarly attention.

The interest of scholars on motivation, behavior and the mind of the entrepreneur has been fading ever since the 90's in entrepreneurship literature. The literature on social entrepreneurship emphasizes the importance of values for the mission of the social entrepreneur. And yet, value research on social entrepreneurship is scarce. Better understanding of the entrepreneurial mind will also help at understanding the process leading to new venture creation (Carsrud et al. 2009, 18), identifying why someone becomes an entrepreneur and what kind of entrepreneur they will become (Conger 2012). This thesis identified motivational values of for-profit social entrepreneurs and how these values influenced the process of new social venture creation. It also shed some light into how these values are prioritized by these entrepreneurs and what influence

that has on their social mission. This thesis identified two types of entrepreneurs among these for-profit social entrepreneurs: the Social Bricoleurs and Social Constructionists. This research on motivational values has contributed to understanding the social for-profit entrepreneurs better: precisely on what kind of values motivate them, how these values guide and influence the social mission, the social venture and its creation.

As universities, educational programs and media are increasingly taking notice of social entrepreneurship, public awareness of the issue is rising. Still a lot needs to be done in order for it to be a serious competitor for the traditional entrepreneurship. But when the time comes, social entrepreneurship will offer an alternative way of doing business that will appeal to innovative people around the world ready for the change.

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## APPENDIX 1 The outline of themes

### Teemahaastattelun runko

- Yrityksen ja yrittäjän esittely
  - nimi, ikä, koulutus
- Yrityksen missio ja visio

### Yhteiskunnallinen yrittäjyys:

- Miten ja miksi kaikki sai alkunsa?
- Millaiset asiat vaikuttivat päätökseen ryhtyä yhteiskunnalliseksi yrittäjäksi?
- Onko yritys ollut alusta saakka yhteiskunnallinen yritys?
- Mikä oli henkilökohtaisten arvojen merkitys yhteiskunnallisen yrityksen perustamisessa?
- Millaisia asioita arvostatte (yhteiskunnallisessa) yrittäjyydessä?
- Millaisiin asioihin haluatte vaikuttaa yhteiskunnallisella yrityksellänne? Miksi?
- Millaisia arvoja yrityksenne edustavat ja ovatko ne merkityksellisiä toimintanne kannalta?
- Millä lailla yhteiskunnallinen yrittäjyys näkyy?
- Mikä arvionne mukaan erottaa teidät muista ns. perinteisistä kaupallisista toimijoista?
- Ovatko asiat, jotka saivat teidät aikoinaan perustamaan yrityksen edelleen tärkeitä vai onko tärkeysjärjestys/asiat muuttuneet?
- Mitä asioita henkilökohtaisesti arvostatte työssänne kyseisessä hankkeessa?
- Miksi haluatte toimia yhteiskunnallisena yrittäjänä?

### Yhteiskunnallinen yritys- merkki

- Miten saitte tietää yhteiskunnallinen yritys – merkistä?
- Miksi haitte sitä?
- Millaisia vaikutuksia sillä on ollut teille?

### Yhteiskunnallisen yrittäjyyden merkitys:

- Millaisena näette yhteiskunnallisen yrittäjyyden merkityksen?
- Mitä etuja tai esteitä yhteiskunnallisella yrityksellä on?
- Millainen on mielestänne yhteiskunnallinen yrittäjä?
- Miten näette arvot osana yhteiskunnallisista yrittäjyyttä?
- Millaisena näette yhteiskunnallisen yrittäjyyden tulevaisuuden ja yrityksen tulevaisuuden?

- Onko jotain mitä haluat lisätä?
- Yhteenveto