Social impact scaling strategies in social enterprises: A systematic review and research agenda

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Abstract

Social enterprises have attracted increased attention from both researchers and practitioners around the world. In the social enterprise context, scaling social impact is considered the main currency or key performance metric. Two overarching social impact scaling strategies are organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy. However, to date, little cumulative knowledge exists on these two social impact scaling strategies. To address this issue, this paper conducts a systematic review of 111 peer-reviewed articles. It identifies and discusses key insights into organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy as a means to scale social impact in social enterprises. Based on these findings, the current paper also develops a framework to facilitate a comprehensive understanding of social impact scaling strategies in social enterprises. Finally, the review identifies gaps in the existing literature and discusses a comprehensive agenda for future research.

Keywords: Social impact; Scaling strategy; Organizational growth; Ecosystem growth; Social enterprise; Social entrepreneurship

1. Introduction

Over the past two decades, the phenomenon of social enterprises (SEs) has attracted increased scholarly attention (Dacin et al., 2011; Saebi et al., 2019). Broadly, SEs are organizations that primarily aim to solve pressing social/environmental problems (e.g., homelessness, youth unemployment, and carbon emissions) whilst engaging in commercial activities (either partially or fully) to support their operations (Doherty et al., 2014). They can take several forms such as cooperatives, development trusts, trading arms of charities, credit unions, and community enterprises (Vickers and Lyon, 2014; Powell et al., 2019). In the SE context, scaling social impact is considered the main currency (e.g., Bacq and Eddleston, 2018; Molecke and Pinkse, 2017). Scaling social impact refers to "an ongoing process of increasing the magnitude of both quantitative and qualitative positive changes in society by addressing pressing social problems at individual and/or systemic levels through one or more scaling paths" (Islam, 2020a: 1).

To scale their social impact, SEs use several strategies that are usually grouped under two overarching strategies. The first one is organizational growth strategy that refers to directly addressing a certain social problem on a large scale by growing organizational size (e.g., Vickers and Lyon, 2014; Vickers et al., 2017; Dees et al., 2004; Lyon and Fernandez, 2012). As an overarching strategy, organizational growth strategy encompasses several more specific strategies that aim to improve beneficiary wellbeing by developing new products, services, activities, and programs, as well as expanding geographic coverage to reach larger numbers of beneficiaries (e.g., Bacq and Eddleston, 2018; Desa and Koch, 2014; Bhatt et al., 2016; Dobson et al., 2018; Alshawaaf and Lee, 2020). The second overarching strategy is ecosystem growth strategy that refers to indirectly addressing targeted social problems on a large scale by growing and/or sustaining a supportive SE ecosystem (e.g., Thompson et al., 2018; Bloom and Dees, 2008; Montgomery et al., 2012; VanSandt et al., 2009). As an overarching strategy, ecosystem growth strategy includes several more specific strategies that focus on growing or sustaining a supportive SE ecosystem as a means to make positive changes in society through activities such as organizing advocacy campaigns, developing and disseminating valuable knowledge and research, providing training and advisory services to other SEs, helping young and less-reputed SEs to gain and maintain legitimacy, etc. (e.g., Islam, 2020b; Bauwens et al., 2020; Bloom and Chatterji, 2009; Granados and Rosli, 2020; Maseno and Wanyoike, 2020; Westley et al., 2014).

As organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy are generally considered two overarching social impact scaling strategies in SEs, the current review centers on these two strategies. This paper fills an important gap in the SE literature in that although research in the SE field is rapidly growing (Saebi et al., 2019), little cumulative knowledge exists on organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy as a means to scale social impact in SEs. To address this issue, thereby helping the advancement of SE research in a less fragmented way, the current paper conducts a systematic review of 111 peer-reviewed articles drawn from a wide range of journals. The review shows that while scaling social impact, organizational growth strategy has remained a popular one, under which SEs pursue two major activities, as will be discussed later. In contrast, while scaling social impact through ecosystem growth strategy, SEs undertake eight major activities. Key insights into each of these major activities are identified and discussed. The review also shows that although ecosystem growth strategy can create greater social impact by addressing pressing social problems at a larger scale beyond the organizational boundary, relatively lower scholarly attention has been paid to it. In addition, this review has highlighted the limitations or potential unintended consequences of various social impact scaling strategies. Finally, the current paper proposes several promising future research avenues, thus providing clear directions to scholars interested in researching the phenomenon of scaling social impact in SEs.

2. Methods

2.1 Data collection and cleaning

To identify relevant articles, three sets of keywords were developed following a systematic procedure. First, to gain an initial understanding of various terms that are used interchangeably with the term "social enterprise", we consulted a few prominent articles (both review and non-review articles) on social enterprises and social entrepreneurship (e.g., Austin et al., 2006; André and Pache, 2016; Battilana et al., 2015; Tracey and Jarvis, 2007; Saebi et al., 2019; Doherty et al., 2014). Based on our reading of these articles, we drafted an initial list of more than 15 keywords. To assess the suitability of these keywords, we searched them in various combinations in the Scopus database. Gradually, it became clear that many of these keywords were not adding any extra value in terms of search results, rather causing unnecessary duplication of effort. Therefore, to ensure inclusivity and focus while minimizing the duplication of effort, the following keywords were finalized: "social enterprise", "social business", "social venture", "social entrepreneurship", "social sector", "third sector", "hybrid organization", and "hybrid organisation".[1]

Second, the keywords for "social impact" were also selected following a systematic approach. Initially, we drafted more than 12 keywords after reviewing a number of prior articles (e.g., Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014; Di Domenico et al., 2010; Molecke and Pinkse, 2017; Bacq and Eddleston, 2018; Bloom and Chatterji, 2009; Desa and Koch, 2014). We searched them in several combinations in the Scopus database, but found that many were not adding any extra

[1] Following prior review articles on social enterprises and social entrepreneurship (see Doherty et al., 2014; Hlady-Rispal and Servantie, 2018), the current review considers social enterprises as an overarching form of organizations that pursue social goals and adopt some type of commercial activity to generate revenue, regardless of their different forms. Distinguishing different forms of social enterprises is beyond the scope of the current review.

value in the search results. Hence, we dropped them and finalized the following set of keywords: “social impact”, “social value”, “social performance”, “social change”, “environmental performance”, and “environmental impact”. Third, following the same systematic procedure as mentioned above, we finalized the following list of keywords to capture the theme of “scaling” after reviewing several prior articles (e.g., Islam, 2020a; Bloom and Chatterji, 2009; Easter and Conway Dato-On, 2015; Ormiston and Seymour, 2011; Perrini et al., 2010): “scal*”, “increas*”, and “creat*”.[2]

Drawing on Saebi et al. (2019) and Shepherd et al. (2015), the above three sets of keywords were searched in the Scopus database (using its article title, abstract, or keywords feature) in the following fashion, without placing boundaries on the time period: *any of the words from the first set of keywords AND any of words from the second set of keywords AND any of the words from the third set of keywords*. This search generated a list of 622 articles. The same search was also carried out in the Web of Science database, which resulted in 406 articles.

Next, drawing on Doherty et al. (2014) and Saebi et al. (2019), to obtain a manageable and quality sample of articles, the search was limited to i) peer-reviewed articles (in English) and ii) journals rating from 2 to 4* by the Chartered Association of Business Schools (2018)[3]. This resulted in 170 articles in Scopus and 121 articles in Web of Science. Following Shepherd et al. (2015) and Saebi et al. (2019), data was manually cleaned by excluding i) duplicate articles between the two databases, ii) articles that were mainly summaries of articles published elsewhere, book reviews, teaching cases, a research methods article, and iii) articles that

[2] The Scopus and Web of Science databases employed in the current paper use lemmatization in the search, hence automatically retrieve both singular and plural forms of a keyword. For example, “social enterprise” finds both social enterprise and social enterprises. The wildcard (*) was mainly used to locate multiple variants of a keyword, going beyond singular and plural forms. For example, “scal*” finds scale, scaling, scalability, etc. Also, where applicable, both American and British English variants are included in the keywords (e.g., “hybrid organization” and “hybrid organisation”).
[3] Journals rating from 2 to 4* by the Chartered Association of Business Schools (2018) are roughly equivalent to journals rating from B to A* by the Australian Business Deans Council (2019).

contained little or no discussion about organizational growth strategy or ecosystem growth strategy in the context of scaling social impact in SEs. This left a total of 80 articles.

Also, drawing on Doherty et al. (2014) and Linnenluecke et al. (2020), this paper employed a reverse search technique to source additional articles from the citations in these 80 articles. This generated a further 31 articles by following two main inclusion criteria: i) peer-reviewed articles (in English), and ii) articles must contain substantial discussion about scaling social impact through organizational growth strategy or ecosystem growth strategy in the SE context. These additional articles were not detected in the initial search because, for example, the publication titles (e.g., *Stanford Social Innovation Review*) were not included in the search databases and search terms were missing in the article title, abstract and keywords. Overall, the final list contains 111 articles (cut-off: 26 October 2020; see Appendix for a complete list).

2.2 Data coding and analysis

The articles in the final sample were coded and analyzed in several iterative stages. As noted above, organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy are generally considered two overarching social impact scaling strategies in SEs. Therefore, in the first stage, by thoroughly reviewing the contents of each article, articles were categorized into two broader groups: organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy. More specifically, articles, whose primary focus was addressing social problems on a large scale through activities related to the growth of organizational size, were grouped under organizational growth strategy (e.g., Lyon and Fernandez, 2012; Hlady-Rispal and Servantie, 2017; Huybrechts et al., 2017). On the other hand, articles, whose primary focus was addressing social problems on a large scale through activities related to the growth and/or sustainment of a supportive SE ecosystem, were grouped under ecosystem growth strategy (e.g., Thompson et al., 2018; Montgomery et al., 2012; VanSandt et al., 2009).

In the second stage, articles under organizational growth strategy were analyzed to identify key insights into this overarching social impact scaling strategy. These insights are discussed around the following major themes that emerged from the analysis: product/service expansion and geographic expansion (see Figure 1 for a summary of key insights generated in this regard).

In the third stage, articles under ecosystem growth strategy were analyzed to identify key insights into this overarching strategy. These insights are presented around the following major themes that emerged from our analysis: advocacy work, coalition work, industry work, training and advisory work, infrastructure work, legitimacy work, research and publication work, and financing work (see Figure 1 for a summary of key insights developed in this regard).

--- Insert Figure 1 here ---

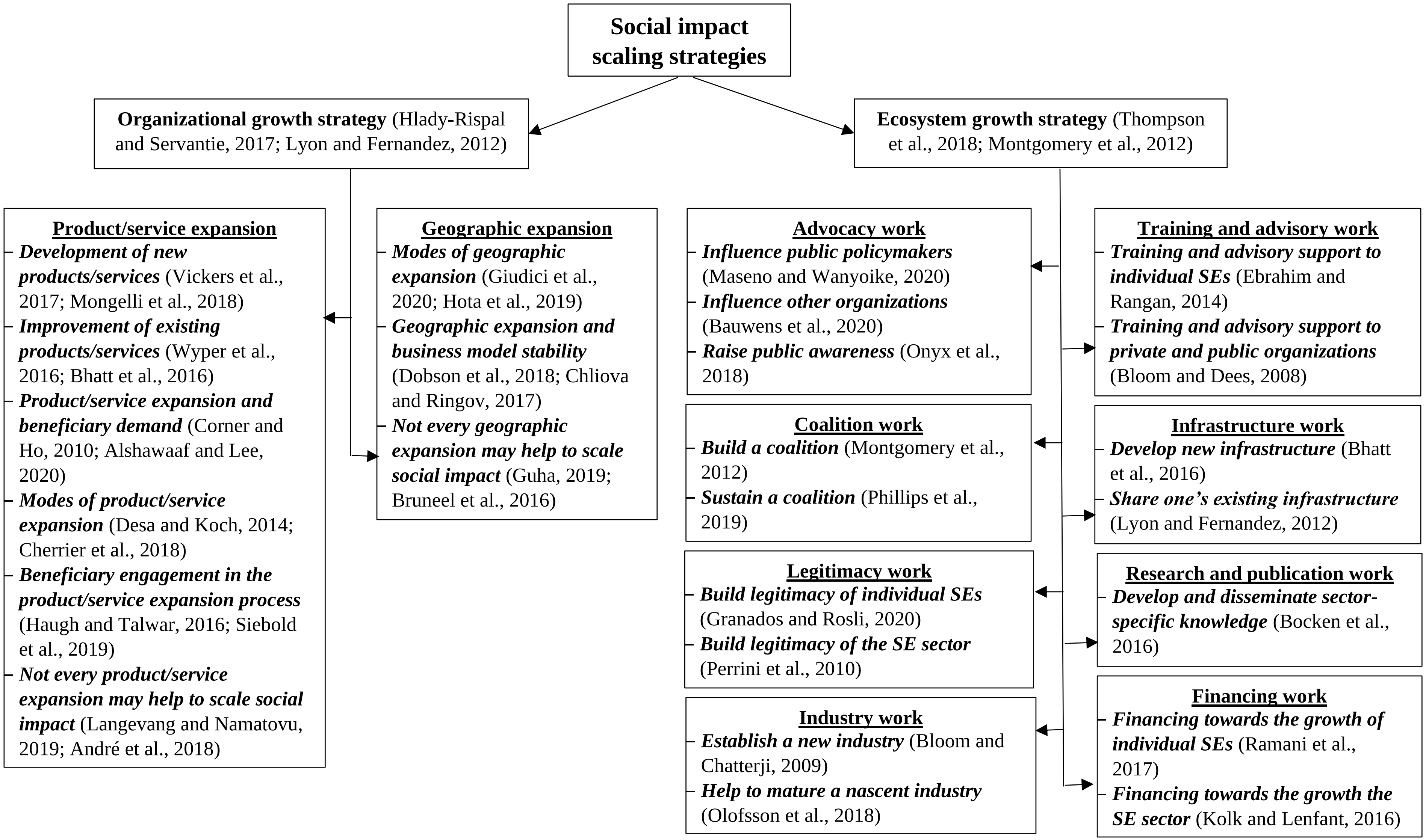

Figure 1. A summary of key insights into social impact scaling strategies in social enterprises (representative references are in the parentheses)

3. Scaling social impact through organizational growth strategy

This section discusses key insights into scaling social impact through organizational growth strategy in SEs, as identified in the literature.

3.1 Product/service expansion

A major activity that SEs pursue as part of organizational growth strategy to scale their social impact is to expand their products/services to address varying needs of targeted beneficiaries. Here, products/services are used as an umbrella term to refer to a SE's products, services, activities, initiatives, and programs through which it addresses the targeted social problems.

3.1.1 Development of new products/services. Developing new products/services, and thereby addressing unmet social needs, is a popular path to scale social impact (Vickers et al., 2017; Vickers and Lyon, 2014). Research shows that SEs scale their social impact by developing new products/services that are *related* to their existing products/services. For example, Grameen Bank expanded its microcredit program by introducing new but related products, such as basic loans, flexible loans, saving accounts, pension plans, and loan insurance (Yunus, 2007; Grameen Bank, 2016; Alvord et al., 2004). Related products/services are developed to offer a "complete package" that can address widely distributed needs of beneficiaries, helping to improve the overall quality of life of beneficiaries (Mongelli et al., 2018; Roy and Karna, 2015; Auvinet and Lloret, 2015; Kodzi Jr., 2015). However, by developing related products/services to serve its beneficiaries, a SE positions itself within a single industry (e.g., the renewable energy industry), making itself more susceptible to the survival threat resulting from a major change in the focal industry (e.g., government policy change and an overall slowdown of industry-specific economic activities) (Hillman et al., 2018; Barraket and Loosemore, 2018).

SEs also scale their social impact by developing new but *unrelated* products/services. For example, to serve its beneficiaries, BRAC – a Bangladesh-based SE – introduced several new products but in unrelated sectors, such as health, education, financial services, agriculture, etc. (Alvord et al., 2004). The development of unrelated products/services helps to cater to varying needs of different beneficiary groups, and thus, facilitates a rapid increase in a SE's beneficiary base (Langevang and Namatovu, 2019; Bocken et al., 2016). Furthermore, by developing unrelated products/services to scale its social impact, a SE operates in multiple industries, and thus, is more protected against the survival threat resulting from major changes in an industry (Powell et al., 2019). However, developing unrelated products/services adds extra complexity to a SE's operations, and SEs that lack sufficient resources (e.g., financial and human) may struggle to provide a quality service to their beneficiaries (Uvin et al., 2000).

3.1.2 Improvement of existing products/services. SEs do not necessarily develop completely new products/services to scale their social impact. Improvement of existing products/services (e.g., the addition of new features into an existing product/service) also enables a SE to scale its social impact. Take the example of Transport for Tongue Limited (T4T), a SE that provides transport services in a rural community (that mostly comprises of retirees) in Scotland. After several months of its operations, T4T introduced new transportation routes as well as offering extended service hours in some of its existing routes to better serve community members making their weekend visits to city areas (Wyper et al., 2016). Thus, by improving its existing products/services to better serve its *existing* beneficiaries, a SE like T4T helps to increase the overall quality of life of its beneficiaries.

SEs also improve their existing products/services to serve *new* beneficiary groups, which is a cost-effective way to serve a larger beneficiary base. For example, Mahiti Infotech, an Indian SE, developed an open-source software, OurCrop, for monitoring and tracking the effectiveness of farming activities (e.g., crop procurement, inventory management, and marketing operations) (Bhatt et al., 2016). Initially, the original product served around 5,000 cotton farmers in a state in India. However, gradually, Mahiti developed several customized versions of OurCrop for different farmer groups (e.g., coffee growers, groundnuts and soya growers) in India as well as abroad to suit those organizations' operations, and thus, was serving over 100,000 farmers globally by 2015 (Bhatt et al., 2016).

3.1.3 Beneficiary demand. Research shows that, in most cases, SEs expand their products/services in response to the *existing* demand from beneficiaries (e.g., Desa and Koch, 2014; Uvin, 1995). This practice ensures a better product-beneficiary fit, since SEs can tailor their products/services to meet the beneficiaries' requirements (Corner and Ho, 2010). However, ensuring a product-beneficiary fit is not that straightforward; rather, it requires careful unpacking of beneficiaries' problems through deep immersion in their everyday lives (Vickers et al., 2017; Bhatt et al., 2016). When a SE aims to develop products/services that have strong demand in the specific community, investors and other stakeholders perceive the products/services as highly valuable and are more inclined to provide supports (Albert et al., 2016).

Instead of responding to the existing demand, at times, SEs also develop products/services to gradually *create* the demand for such a product/service among targeted beneficiaries. For example, BRAC experimented with a new service, "model ward", in a specific village in Bangladesh, although there was no explicit demand for the service at the time of its initiation in 2012 (May et al., 2014). The underlying idea of this new service (i.e., model ward) was to bring a village together to define their own vision of a model community in terms of various parameters (e.g., school enrolment, economic opportunities, and sanitary latrine availability) and then, work together to realize it (May et al., 2014). Although BRAC was not sure about this new service's success, it gradually created the demand for the service in that village and later delivered it to over 13,000 villages by 2014 (May et al., 2014). SEs appear to push a new product/service in the market when they anticipate that the new product/service, if successful, will have a significant positive impact on the lives of targeted beneficiaries (Khare and Joshi, 2018; Alshawaaf and Lee, 2020). However, in this case, as products/services are developed in the absence of existing demand from targeted beneficiaries, there is a higher risk of non-acceptance of the products/services in the market, and thereby, a waste of resources expended on product/service development (Katre and Salipante, 2012; Bloom and Chatterji, 2009).

3.1.4 Modes of product/service expansion. While scaling social impact, a *partnership-based* mode of product/service expansion is a popular one, where a SE expands its products/services in partnership with other organizations (e.g., Westley et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016). For example, Naandi, an India SE, partnered with private organizations, state governments, and local authorities to develop water treatment plants to provide safe drinking water to rural villages in India (Desa and Koch, 2014). A partnership-based mode of product/service expansion leverages multiple organizations' expertise and resources (Gillett et al., 2019; Corner and Ho, 2010; Shier and Handy, 2020). Thus, it helps increase the overall quality of the products/services developed (Henry, 2015). However, as multiple firms often have different agendas, products/services developed through a partnership-based mode may not be well-aligned with the focal SE's mission (Le Ber and Branzei, 2010; Berger et al., 2004; Peerally et al., 2019).

Research also shows that, at times, SEs adopt a more *organic* mode of product/service expansion to scale their social impact – that is, they expand products/services on their own (e.g., Bauwens et al., 2020; Lyon and Fernandez, 2012). SEs tend to adopt an organic mode of product/service expansion when they have sufficient resources (e.g., money and knowledgeable staff members) to develop "good enough" products/services by themselves (Bhatt et al., 2016; Olofsson et al., 2018), when there is no suitable organizations or individuals to collaborate (Khare and Joshi, 2018; Langevang and Namatovu, 2019), and/or when they want to protect the technical "know-how" for competition reasons (Cherrier et al., 2018). However, because of the limitation that a single organization may have, an organic mode takes a long time to bring products/services to the market, and thus, may slow the process of addressing targeted social problems (Palomares-Aguirre et al., 2018).

3.1.5 Beneficiary engagement. While expanding products/services to scale their social impact, SEs generally involve their target beneficiaries in the process (e.g., Pless and Appel, 2012; Ramani et al., 2017). Scholars show that engaging beneficiaries in the product/service development process help develop trust between the focal SE and its beneficiaries (Bhatt and Altinay, 2013; Sengupta et al., 2020). This, in turn, facilitates greater acceptance and implementation of the product/service in the community (Haugh and Talwar, 2016; Vestrum, 2014; Siebold et al., 2019).

However, in the case of work integration SEs (WISEs) that mainly provide employment or workplace training opportunities to disadvantaged people (Battilana et al., 2015; Leung et al., 2019; Ramus and Vaccaro, 2017; Easter and Conway Dato-On, 2015), researchers note the importance of selectively engaging beneficiaries in various tasks. On the one hand, involving beneficiaries in tasks that require higher skills than beneficiaries' skills can result in developing sub-optimal products/services and lower productivity (Powell et al., 2019), damaging the organization's business prospect, and thereby, impair the organization's ability to serve its beneficiaries in the future (Bruneel et al., 2016). On the other hand, engaging, for example, a disabled beneficiary in an unsafe task (e.g., operating a heavy machine) would represent a major occupational health and safety risk for the beneficiary (Loosemore, 2015).

3.1.6 Potential unintended consequences. Although product/service expansion enables SEs to scale their social impact by addressing targeted social problems, scholars note that this is not always the case. Indeed, developing products/services that are incompatible with a SE's mission or context can lead to business failure in terms of lack of investors, loss of relationship with key stakeholders, and waste of resources (Katre and Salipante, 2012; Austin et al., 2006).

SEs that develop unrelated (rather than related) products/services to scale their social impact are more susceptible to the risk of product/service incompatibility, since it is more challenging to tie unrelated products/services together (Bacq et al., 2015; Di Domenico et al., 2010). Take the example of Gulu Youth Development Association (GYDA), an Uganda-based SE that mainly provides vocational training to the most vulnerable young people. When GYDA ventured into a new service, namely, motorbike taxi services, the new service appeared to be incompatible with GYDA's capacity and context (Langevang and Namatovu, 2019). Consequently, GYDA had to terminate its motorbike taxi services within six months of its operation, which resulted in a waste of its limited resources (Langevang and Namatovu, 2019).

Researchers also note that developing products/services that do not address a specific social need in a better way than the current alternative may not be helpful in scaling social impact. For example, a SE is not actually making a social impact by providing fresh drinking water to underprivileged people when its product offerings (e.g., product quality and price) are similar to that of the existing commercial organizations (André et al., 2018). Therefore, to scale its social impact, a SE needs to expand its products/services to address a specific social need in a better way than the existing alternatives do (André et al., 2018; Auvinet and Lloret, 2015; Kickul et al., 2018).

3.2 Geographic expansion

The second major activity that SEs pursue as part of organizational growth strategy to scale their social impact is to expand their geographic coverage to reach a larger number of beneficiaries.

3.2.1 Modes of geographic expansion. Forming some sort of partnership with other organizations (i.e., a *partnership-based* mode) to reach beneficiaries in wider geographic areas is a popular geographic expansion mode (Parris and McInnis-Bowers, 2014; Bocken et al., 2016; Shrimali et al., 2011). Within this partnership-based mode of geographic expansion, franchising is a common arrangement, where the original SE (the franchisor) sells the right to market products/services under its name and using its practices to a local SE (the franchisee) (Tracey and Jarvis, 2007; Bradach, 2003). For example, Drishtee, an Indian SE whose mission is to empower rural communities by providing information technology goods and services, adopted a franchising arrangement to expand its operations in hundreds of villages in India (Desa and Koch, 2014). Although a franchising arrangement offers rapid geographic expansion in a cost-effective way (Beckmann and Zeyen, 2014), the original SE (the franchisor) may not reap the full potential of such an arrangement due to its lack of expertise in selecting and managing franchisees and much control over the local SE's operations (Krzeminska and Zeyen, 2017; Giudici et al., 2020).

In addition to a franchising arrangement, the partnership-based geographic expansion also takes other forms, such as licensing, joint ventures, micro-assignments, etc. (Dobson et al., 2018; Parris and McInnis-Bowers, 2014; Hota et al., 2019). Despite their various forms, partnership-based geographic expansion facilitates quicker and greater reach to beneficiaries due to local partners' higher degree of local embeddedness and localized knowledge (Klein et al., 2020; Rangan and Gregg, 2019). However, finding suitable local partners is always a challenging endeavor (Pless and Appel, 2012; Zhao and Han, 2020).

Research also shows that many SEs expand their operations to a new geographic market through an *organization-owned* mode – that is, by opening their own local branches. For example, ABC, an Indian SE that delivers science-based education and experiential learning to school-aged children, expanded to over 19 states in India through replicating the educational program on its own (Guha, 2019). The organization-owned mode is particularly suitable when successful geographic expansion depends on tight quality control and specific practices and knowledge that are not explicitly documented and readily communicated (Dees et al., 2004).

However, it demands a greater investment of resources and a higher degree of central coordination (Smith et al., 2016; Smith and Stevens, 2010).

3.2.2 Business model stability. Scholars show that, in most instances, SEs expand their geographic coverage with a *proven* business model (e.g., Bradach, 2003; Dees et al., 2004). Here, a SE such as Aravind Eye Hospital first aims to systematically develop and fine-tune its business model in a limited geographic area (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014). Once it has developed a successful business model, it then replicates the model to wider geographic markets (Chliova and Ringov, 2017). A proven business model facilitates rapid geographic expansion, especially when different geographic markets share common features (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014; Rangan and Gregg, 2019). However, a copy-and-paste approach to replicating a proven business model in a new geographic area may not be successful (Cannatelli, 2017). For example, SEWA's, an Indian SE, business model was highly successful in increasing its membership base in the Gujarat region, but was far from successful when the exact model was replicated in other nearby regions because of the subtle socio-cultural differences between Gujarat and other nearby regions (Roy and Karna, 2015). This suggests that, while expanding their operations to a new geographic area, SEs need to remain open and vigilant to refine their existing, proven business models to better reflect the important subtleties of the new area.

Although geographic expansion with a proven business model is a popular phenomenon, a few recent studies show that some SEs also expand their operations to new geographic markets with an *unproven* business model. For example, ViaVia Travellers Café (ViaVia), a Belgium-based SE, deliberately expanded its operations to several locations across four continents with an unproven business model (Dobson et al., 2018: 4558). An unproven business model remains highly flexible to change and open to experimentation, and thus, has greater potential to capture the local market dynamics in an uncertain environment (Dobson et al., 2018; Perrini et al., 2010).

Recent research also shows that, at times, the decision to expand geographic coverages with an unproven business model is less deliberate and more "accidental" in nature to capitalize on an unexpected opportunity to create significant social impact. For example, Tiempo de Juego (TJ), a Colombian SE that aims to improve the wellbeing of poor and vulnerable neighborhoods, expanded its operations to a new neighborhood with an unproven business model to seize a sudden opportunity (e.g., strong support from a local stakeholder group) that had the potential to change a greater number of lives of vulnerable teenagers (Hlady-Rispal and Servantie, 2017).

3.2.3 Potential unintended consequences. Although geographic expansion enables a SE to scale its social impact by serving larger numbers of beneficiaries, this may not always be the case. Researchers note that geographic expansion with "inappropriate" local partners may backfire. For example, when a SE provides its services to distant locations through a local partner, the local partner may exploit the underprivileged beneficiaries as well as the focal SE's brand image (Beckmann and Zeyen, 2014). Thus, geographic expansion with inappropriate local partners may actually increase (rather than decrease) the suffering of target beneficiaries (Huybrechts et al., 2017; Guha, 2019).

Scholars also point out that unthoughtful geographic expansion may impair a SE's overall ability to serve its beneficiaries in the long run. This is because serving a large number of beneficiaries in dispersed geographic locations increases significant complexity (e.g., reconfiguration of organizational structure) in a SE's operations (Battilana et al., 2015; Walske and Tyson, 2015). Many SEs do not have the necessary resources and expertise to manage larger geographic operations (Becker et al., 2017; Scheuerle and Schmitz, 2016). In such cases, ineffectiveness and inefficiency may arise in a SE's operations, which may compromise the quality of services delivered to beneficiaries (Langevang and Namatovu, 2019; Bruneel et al., 2016; Ormiston and Seymour, 2011).

Furthermore, while geographic expansion provides SEs with an opportunity to generate higher earned-income (Bacq and Eddleston, 2018), serving only those beneficiaries who can afford to pay for products/services (i.e., not serving those who cannot afford to pay) may not create a desired social impact (Bailis et al., 2009; Shrimali et al., 2011; Wolf and Mair, 2019). Indeed, researchers note that geographic expansion building on a "number" principle rather than a "caring" principle contradicts with the fundamental values underlying the establishment of SEs (André and Pache, 2016; Blundel and Lyon, 2015; Ometto et al., 2019).

4. Scaling social impact through ecosystem growth strategy

This section discusses key insights into scaling social impact through ecosystem growth strategy in SEs, as identified in the literature.

In business, the concept of ecosystem generally implies a set of attributes (e.g., networks, investment capital, mentors, infrastructure, policy and governance, etc.) that collectively create a supportive environment for a business to thrive (Spigel and Harrison, 2018; Spigel, 2017). The attributes underlying a supportive business ecosystem are produced and re-produced by a variety of organizations and individuals (McMullen, 2018; Zahra and Nambisan, 2012). In line with this, a SE ecosystem comprises a set of attributes that create a conducive environment for SEs to flourish (Bloom and Dees, 2008; VanSandt et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 2018). Researchers show that, apart from growing the organizational size, SEs also scale their social impact by indirectly addressing social problems on a bigger scale by growing and/or sustaining a supportive SE ecosystem through several major activities, as will be detailed below (Bradach, 2010; Montgomery et al., 2012; Elsayed, 2018; Westley et al., 2014).

4.1 Advocacy work

Advocacy constitutes an important attribute in a SE ecosystem (Bradach, 2010; Grant and Crutchfield, 2007). A major form of a SE's advocacy work is to organize a campaign by coordinating other grassroots alliances, organizations, and/or individuals to influence public policymakers in favor of a specific social problem (Uvin et al., 2000; Bloom and Smith, 2010; Maseno and Wanyoike, 2020). For example, Self-Help, a USA-based SE, organized several individuals, business groups (e.g., banks, homebuilders), and activist organizations to advocate for an anti-predatory lending law to improve the financial wellbeing of poor people by protecting them from practices, such as unfair refinance deals and "payday lending" (Bloom and Dees, 2008).

Furthermore, a SE's advocacy work does not necessarily focus on influencing public policymakers; rather, it also focuses on influencing other organizations to adopt certain products, services, or business models to address a certain social problem on a larger scale. For example, Ecopower, a Belgium-based cooperative that provides renewable energy-related services to address energy poverty, undertook several advocacy-related activities to influence other social entrepreneurs to replicate its business model throughout the country, and thereby addressing energy poverty at a national scale (Bauwens et al., 2020). Similarly, SEs also undertake their advocacy work in the form of raising greater public awareness about a specific social problem and/or the availability of certain products regarding a certain social problem (Onyx et al., 2018; Uvin et al., 2000). However, researchers note that, at times, SEs' advocacy work can trigger hostile behavior from the government, which can significantly jeopardize their operations (Elsayed, 2018; Darby, 2016; Islam, 2020b).

4.2 Coalition work

Another crucial attribute of a SE ecosystem is the presence of a coalition, defined as a formal or informal network of various individuals and/or organizations, which aims to tackle complex social problems collaboratively (Dees et al., 2004; Salignac et al., 2018). Scholars show that some SEs take a more leadership role and build a new coalition from scratch (Becker et al., 2017; Perrini et al., 2010), while others take a more participant role and help to sustain a coalition by participating in regular activities that underlie the coalition (Granados and Rosli, 2020; Phillips et al., 2019). By helping to build/sustain a coalition, a SE facilitates the sharing and exchanging of good practices of addressing various social problems (Lyon and Fernandez, 2012; Hillman et al., 2018). Such a coalition also aids social entrepreneurs to validate their business models and increase their confidence in implementing social mission (Granados and Rosli, 2020) and obtain more collaboration opportunities (Montgomery et al., 2012). Researchers also show that a coalition serves as a platform to pool resources and expertise from various SEs, which are then used to better compete with well-resourced commercial organizations; for example, to win large public and/or private contracts (Phillips et al., 2019; Gillett et al., 2019; Saripalli et al., 2019).

4.3 Industry work

SEs also scale their social impact through their industry work, which takes several forms. Researchers show that some SEs help to address a certain social problem by establishing a new industry. Take the example of Self-Help, a USA-based SE. By observing the very limited access of low-income people to the mainstream home mortgage market in the USA, Self-Help established a secondary mortgage market for low-income people in 1998 (Bloom and Chatterji, 2009). To do so, it innovatively leveraged its own resources as well as those of the Ford Foundation, Fannie Mae, and several other financial institutions (Bloom and Chatterji, 2009). Although establishing a new industry takes considerable expertise and resources (e.g., money, time, and effort), such work can potentially be a game-changer, significantly improving the lives of missions of beneficiaries (Alvord et al., 2004).

A SE's industry work also takes place in the form of developing new products, services, and/or practices, which help to mature a nascent industry. For example, BeauVent, a Belgium-based SE, experiments and develops new technologies and innovative practices regarding energy efficiency and energy savings in the renewable energy industry, and then openly shares them with other organizations, mainly to flourish the renewable energy industry as a whole, and thereby addresses energy poverty at a much broader level (Bauwens et al., 2020). Similarly, AlphaEl, a Scandinavian SE that produces and supplies renewable energy in rural areas, developed an innovative practice, namely, dynamic pricing contracts, to reduce consumers' electricity costs, which has become a standard practice in the renewable energy industry (Olofsson et al., 2018).

4.4 Training and advisory work

Many SEs scale their social impact by providing training and advisory support to other SEs to help them effectively run their operations (Lyon and Fernandez, 2012). For example, Aravind Eye Hospital offers a training and advisory program where hundreds of administrators and healthcare workers from 43 countries come to learn the "Aravind management model", which is built on low-cost and high-quality patient care systems (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014). Thus, through its training and advisory work towards other SEs, Aravind Eye Hospital contributes towards better addressing vision care-related problems of underprivileged people on a global scale, which would not have been possible through organizational growth alone.

Researchers also show that some SEs contribute to the development of the SE sector as a whole through their training and advisory work towards private and public organizations. For example, a leading Australian SE in the construction industry provides training and advisory support to private organizations in the same industry to help them develop and implement their "social procurement" policy, which aims to purchase a certain dollar amount of products/services from SEs (Barraket, 2020). In this case, through its training and advisory work towards private organizations, the focal SE is indirectly creating more earned-income opportunities for SEs as a whole. Similarly, Bloom and Dees (2008) show that Self-Help, a US-based SE, provided training and advisory support to several state governments in the USA to help them develop new laws to prevent “loan sharks” from exploiting poor people.

4.5 Infrastructure work

The presence of sufficient infrastructure is a major attribute of an effective SE ecosystem (Warnecke, 2018; Hoogendoorn et al., 2019). Researchers show that some SEs scale their social impact by developing new infrastructure necessary for the effective functioning of individual SEs and the SE sector as a whole. For example, Mahiti Infotech, an Indian SE, develops and freely distributes a selection of software, namely, “NGO-In-A-Box”, along with their user manual (Bhatt et al., 2016). Mahiti does so to strengthen the information and communication technology (ICT) infrastructure of the SE sector in India and beyond, and thereby, help better manage the operations of organizations (e.g., other SEs, funders) that are committed to making a social change (Bhatt et al., 2016).

Furthermore, some SEs also help the effective functioning of other SEs by sharing their existing infrastructure with other SEs that cannot afford such infrastructure. For example, Ossington Nursery, a UK-based SE, allows other SEs rent-free use of its office spaces and premises to run workshops and other functions and events (Lyon and Fernandez, 2012). Without receiving such support from Ossington Nursery, these SEs might not have implemented their social mission smoothly.

4.6 Legitimacy work

Legitimacy constitutes another major element of a supportive SE ecosystem, especially because of the infancy of the SE sector (Garrigós Simón et al., 2017; Smith and Stevens, 2010; Costa et al., 2011; Molecke and Pinkse, 2017). Researchers show that some SEs do their legitimacy work towards other SEs, especially the younger and less-reputed ones, by helping them gain and maintain the legitimacy necessary to survive and grow. For example, a leading Australian SE in the construction industry helped several young SEs gain the legitimacy required to bid for private and public contracts by helping them measure and evaluate their social impact (Barraket, 2020). Similarly, Granados and Rosli (2020) show that, in the UK, a few reputed SEs helped to build the legitimacy of other less-reputed SEs in the market by promoting their products/services to potential clients and partners.

Furthermore, some SEs create social value by building the legitimacy of the SE sector as a whole through promoting the contribution that the SE sector is making in a specific community, region, or country (Perrini et al., 2010; Mason, 2012). This fosters community buy-in to the activities of SEs (Warnecke, 2018; Haugh and Talwar, 2016). Although such a community buy-in is important for all SEs (Sardana et al., 2019; Di Domenico et al., 2010), it is particularly important for SEs whose social mission (e.g., promoting immigrant's welfare) is stigmatized in a specific community (Tracey and Phillips, 2016).

4.7 Research and publication work

Because of their crucial role in developing and disseminating valuable knowledge, research and publication are considered to be the lifeblood of an entrepreneurial ecosystem (Spigel, 2017). Many SEs create social impact by developing and disseminating sector-specific knowledge (Dees et al., 2004). Take the example of KaBOOM!, a USA-based SE that fosters the development of safe and active play opportunities for kids. Through its years of research, KaBOOM! has developed an innovative and successful program called "Play Everywhere" to turn non-traditional play spaces (e.g., bus stops, laundromats) into creative outlets for play (KaBOOM!, 2019). The organization publishes the freely accessible "Play Everywhere Playbook" on its website for other organizations to readily access and adopt the program, and thereby addresses the issue of safe and active play opportunities for kids on a global scale.

Indeed, by conducting research, for example, on the behaviors and needs of target beneficiaries as well as publishing such research in an easily accessible way for other organizations, SEs help to develop and implement innovative products/services to better address targeted social problems on a larger scale (Weerawardena et al., 2010; Bloom and Chatterji, 2009). While bigger SEs (e.g., BRAC and Aravind Eye Hospital) usually undertake large-scale research and publication work due to their dedicated research and publication units (Bocken et al., 2016), smaller SEs develop and disseminate important knowledge through publishing books and smaller case studies (Mair et al., 2012; Kolk and Lenfant, 2016). A SE’s such work can also inspire budding entrepreneurs to pursue a social entrepreneurial career (Bacq et al., 2016; Katre and Salipante, 2012).

4.8 Financing work

Availability of financial resources is another crucial element of a supportive SE ecosystem (Walske and Tyson, 2015; Scheuerle and Schmitz, 2016; Meyskens and Bird, 2015; Lehner and Nicholls, 2014). Researchers show how SEs scale their social impact through their financing work. Some SEs invest equity capital in other SEs to support their growth, where the investment is made either directly or through a consortium of other individuals/organizations (Bhatt and Ahmad, 2017; Ramani et al., 2017). Instead of providing equity capital, some SEs also do financing work in the form of making donations and grants to other SEs. For example, AlphaEl, a Scandinavian SE, donates the majority of its profit to other organizations that are committed to addressing various social problems (Olofsson et al., 2018). A SE’s financing work towards other SEs also takes the form of offering service contracts or sub-contracts to supplier SEs, making purchase guarantees from supplier SEs, and giving an interest-free and extended credit facility to customer SEs (Wilson and Post, 2013; Meyskens et al., 2010; Spieth et al., 2019; Sydow et al., 2020).

However, a SE’s financing work does not focus on individual SEs only; rather, it also focuses on the SE sector as a whole. For example, Coffee Rwanda, a Rwanda-based SE, donates its profit for the development of various infrastructure to strengthen the supply chain operations of the SE sector in Rwanda (Kolk and Lenfant, 2016). Indeed, researchers show that many SEs help address certain social problems on a larger scale through funding the development and sustainment of several attributes (e.g., to build a coalition and to organize an advocacy campaign) of the broader SE ecosystem in which they operate (Warnecke, 2018; Thompson et al., 2018; Powell et al., 2019).

5. Discussion

The objective of this paper is to provide a comprehensive picture of scaling social impact through organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy in SEs. The review shows that while scaling social impact, organizational growth strategy has remained a popular one through which SEs directly address targeted social problems on a large scale. A major activity under organizational growth strategy is product/service expansion, which takes in the form of the development of related and unrelated products/services as well as the improvement of existing products/services. While, in most cases, products/services are developed in response to existing beneficiary demand, they are also developed to gradually create their demand among targeted beneficiaries. The second major activity under organizational growth strategy is geographic expansion. In most cases, geographic expansion takes place with a proven business model. However, SEs also expand their geographic coverage with an unproven business model, especially when there is high uncertainty in the target market and when an unexpected opportunity arises to create significant social impact. That said, both product/service expansion and geographic expansion can create potential unintended consequences, suggesting that SEs need to be mindful of them while scaling their social impact.

In contrast to organizational growth strategy, ecosystem growth strategy focuses on scaling social impact by indirectly addressing social problems through growing and/or sustaining a supportive SE ecosystem. While scaling social impact through ecosystem growth strategy, SEs pursue eight major activities (e.g., advocacy work, coalition work, etc.). At times, these activities focus on supporting the growth of individual SEs, whereas, at other times, they focus on facilitating the growth of the SE sector as a whole. Ultimately, all these activities aim to better address various social problems on a much broader scale, which cannot be achieved through organizational growth strategy alone.

6. Future research opportunities

While previous research has significantly advanced our knowledge on strategies/paths for scaling social impact, several areas have remained underexplored or undertheorized. Building on prior work, this paper now presents several promising avenues of future research.

6.1 Different types of product/service expansion

Recent research (e.g., Langevang and Namatovu, 2019; Bocken et al., 2016) shows how SEs scale their social impact by developing related as well as unrelated products/services. However, several questions have remained largely unanswered. For example, when should scaling social impact by developing *related* products/services get preference over *unrelated* products/services, and vice-versa?

Furthermore, although existing research (e.g., Vickers et al., 2017; Bauwens et al., 2020) has addressed the upsides of demand-driven product/service expansion, its downsides concerning scaling social impact are rarely discussed. Also, little systematic research exists on the antecedents, challenges, processes, and consequences of demand-creation product/service expansion as a means to scale social impact.

6.2 Different variants of geographic expansion

Most research in the area of partnership-based geographic expansion has focused on one form of partnership, namely, a franchising arrangement (e.g., Giudici et al., 2020; Krzeminska and Zeyen, 2017). More in-depth research is needed to depict a comparative account of various forms (e.g., franchising, joint ventures, and micro-assignments) of partnership-based geographic expansion about scaling social impact in a specific context.

Furthermore, recent research (Dobson et al., 2018) shows that a SE can expand its operations in some locations through an organization-owned mode (i.e., by opening its own branches), and in other areas through a partnership-based mode. However, our understanding is limited about whether the simultaneous use of multiple modes of geographic expansion creates any unique challenges for a SE concerning scaling social impact, and if yes, how a SE addresses such challenges.

6.3 Downsizing social enterprises

An exciting and promising future research area is to understand issues around the relationship between downsizing a SE and scaling social impact. To date, upsizing the organization (e.g., geographic expansion and product/service expansion) as a means to scale social impact is prevalent in the literature (e.g., Powell et al., 2019; Hillman et al., 2018). However, a few studies (Austin et al., 2006; Uvin et al., 2000) note that some SEs do deliberately downsize their operations (e.g., stop offering certain products/services and stop serving certain geographic areas) in order to, for example, better focus on their core strengths. Unfortunately, we know little about a SE’s decision-making process regarding when and how to downsize its operations as far as the scaling of social impact is concerned.

6.4 Choosing the most effective impact scaling strategy

While existing research (e.g., Guha, 2019; Hota et al., 2019; Alshawaaf and Lee, 2020) shows how SEs pursue different strategies to scale their social impact, much more work remains to be done in this area. For example, although there are eight major activities under ecosystem growth strategy, a SE is unlikely to pursue all of them because of resource constraints (e.g., money, staff, and time). Therefore, future research could investigate how a SE decides which activity should be chosen over others to achieve higher social impact in a specific context. Also, recent research (Islam, 2020b) shows that, at times, a specific social impact scaling strategy (e.g., ecosystem growth strategy) can create unintended consequences in SEs. Future research could investigate how to avoid or mitigate the potential unintended consequences resulting from different impact scaling strategies.

Furthermore, most research on SEs has examined organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy separately (e.g., Chliova and Ringov, 2017; Cherrier et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2018). As a result, we know little about, for example, whether and to what extent certain activities under organizational growth strategy are compatible or incompatible with certain activities under ecosystem growth strategy.

7. Conclusion

The current paper conducts a systematic review to provide a better understanding of organizational growth strategy and ecosystem growth strategy as a means to scale social impact in SEs. The review reveals that while scaling social impact through organizational growth strategy, SEs pursue two major activities – product/service expansion and geographic expansion. In contrast, while scaling social impact through ecosystem growth strategy, SEs undertake eight major activities – advocacy work, coalition work, industry work, training and advisory work, infrastructure work, legitimacy work, research and development work, and financing work. Key insights into each of these major activities are identified and discussed. This review has also highlighted some limitations, risks, or potential unintended consequences of various social impact scaling strategies, suggesting that SEs need to be mindful of them.

This paper has also presented several promising future research areas concerning social impact scaling in SEs. These promising research areas are different types of product/service expansion, different variants of geographic expansion, downsizing SEs, and choosing the most effective impact scaling strategy. In addition to contributing to the theory of SEs, future research in these areas could significantly contribute to the practice of SEs, since these are some important issues that SEs need to tackle while scaling social impact. The current paper also encourages researchers to seriously take local realities and contexts into account while examining the phenomenon of scaling social impact in SEs. This could help to identify the boundary conditions of different social impact scaling strategies in SEs.

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Appendix: List of articles included in the review

#	**Authors (years)**	**Journals**
1	Albert et al. (2016)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
2	Alshawaaf and Lee (2020)	*Journal of Business Research*
3	Alvord et al. (2004)	*The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*
4	André et al. (2018)	*Journal of Business Venturing*
5	André and Pache (2016)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
6	Austin et al. (2006)	*Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*
7	Auvinet and Lloret (2015)	*Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*
8	Bacq and Eddleston (2018)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
9	Bacq et al. (2016)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
10	Bacq et al. (2015)	*International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*
11	Barraket (2020)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
12	Barraket and Loosemore (2018)	*Construction Management and Economics*
13	Battilana et al. (2015)	*Academy of Management Journal*
14	Bauwens et al. (2020)	*Organization and Environment*
15	Beckmann and Zeyen (2014)	*Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*
16	Bhatt and Ahmad (2017)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
17	Bhatt et al. (2016)	*Technovation*
18	Bhatt and Altinay (2013)	*Management Decision*
19	Bloom and Chatterji (2009)	*California Management Review*
20	Bloom and Dees (2008)	*Stanford Social Innovation Review*
21	Bloom and Smith (2010)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
22	Blundel and Lyon (2015)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
23	Bocken et al. (2016)	*Journal of Cleaner Production*
24	Bradach (2003)	*Stanford Social Innovation Review*
25	Bradach (2010)	*Stanford Social Innovation Review*
26	Bruneel et al. (2016)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
27	Cannatelli (2017)	*Voluntas*
28	Cherrier et al. (2018)	*Journal of Business Research*
29	Chliova and Ringov (2017)	*Academy of Management Perspectives*
30	Corner and Ho (2010)	*Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*
31	Costa et al. (2011)	*Voluntas*
32	Darby (2016)	*Antipode*
33	Dees et al. (2004)	*Stanford Social Innovation Review*
34	Desa and Koch (2014)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
35	Di Domenico et al. (2010)	*Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*
36	Dobson et al. (2018)	*Journal of Cleaner Production*
37	Easter and Conway Dato-On (2015)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
38	Ebrahim and Rangan (2014)	*California Management Review*
39	Elsayed (2018)	*Voluntas*
40	Garrigós Simón et al. (2017)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
41	Giudici et al. (2020)	*Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*
42	Granados and Rosli (2020)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
43	Grant and Crutchfield (2007)	*Stanford Social Innovation Review*

#	Authors (years)	Journals
44	Guha (2019)	*Voluntas*
45	Haugh and Talwar (2016)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
46	Henry (2015)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
47	Hillman et al. (2018)	*Energy Policy*
48	Hlady-Rispal and Servantie (2017)	*International Small Business Journal*
49	Hota et al. (2019)	*Management and Organization Review*
50	Huybrechts et al. (2017)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
51	Islam (2020b)	*Journal of Business Venturing Insights*
52	Khare and Joshi (2018)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
53	Kickul et al. (2018)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
54	Klein et al. (2020)	*Journal of Business Research*
55	Kodzi Jr. (2015)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
56	Kolk and Lenfant (2016)	*Business Horizons*
57	Langevang and Namatovu (2019)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
58	Lehner and Nicholls (2014)	*Venture Capital*
59	Leung et al. (2019)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
60	Loosemore (2015)	*Construction Management and Economics*
61	Lyon and Fernandez (2012)	*Social Enterprise Journal*
62	Mair et al. (2012)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
63	Maseno and Wanyoike (2020)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
64	Meyskens and Bird (2015)	*Entrepreneurship Research Journal*
65	Meyskens et al. (2010)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
66	Molecke and Pinkse (2017)	*Journal of Business Venturing*
67	Mongelli et al. (2018)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
68	Montgomery et al. (2012)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
69	Olofsson et al. (2018)	*Journal of Cleaner Production*
70	Ometto et al. (2019)	*Business and Society*
71	Onyx et al. (2018)	*Voluntas*
72	Ormiston and Seymour (2011)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
73	Palomares-Aguirre et al. (2018)	*Journal of Cleaner Production*
74	Parris and McInnis-Bowers (2014)	*Journal of Economic Issues*
75	Peerally et al. (2019)	*Long Range Planning*
76	Perrini et al. (2010)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
77	Phillips et al. (2019)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
78	Pless and Appel (2012)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
79	Powell et al. (2019)	*Public Management Review*
80	Ramani et al. (2017)	*Technological Forecasting and Social Change*
81	Ramus and Vaccaro (2017)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
82	Rangan and Gregg (2019)	*California Management Review*
83	Roy and Karna (2015)	*Management Decision*
84	Sardana et al. (2019)	*Management and Organization Review*
85	Saripalli et al. (2019)	*Society and Business Review*
86	Scheuerle and Schmitz (2016)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*
87	Sengupta et al. (2020)	*Journal of Cleaner Production*

#	Authors (years)	Journals
88	Shier and Handy (2020)	*Voluntas*
89	Shrimali et al. (2011)	*Energy Policy*
90	Siebold et al. (2019)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
91	Smith et al. (2016)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
92	Smith and Stevens (2010)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
93	Spieth et al. (2019)	*Long Range Planning*
94	Sydow et al. (2020)	*Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*
95	Thompson et al. (2018)	*Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*
96	Tracey and Jarvis (2007)	*Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*
97	Uvin (1995)	*World Development*
98	Uvin et al. (2000)	*World Development*
99	VanSandt et al. (2009)	*Journal of Business Ethics*
100	Vestrum (2014)	*Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*
101	Vickers and Lyon (2014)	*International Small Business Journal*
102	Vickers et al. (2017)	*Research Policy*
103	Walske and Tyson (2015)	*International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*
104	Wang et al. (2016)	*International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*
105	Warnecke (2018)	*Journal of Economic Issues*
106	Weerawardena et al. (2010)	*Journal of World Business*
107	Westley et al. (2014)	*Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*
108	Wilson and Post (2013)	*Small Business Economics*
109	Wolf and Mair (2019)	*Voluntas*
110	Wyper et al. (2016)	*Local Economy*
111	Zhao and Han (2020)	*Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*