Exploring the role of empathy in social enterprise

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Abstract

An exploration into why communities cooperate and what enables us to take another person's perspective into account transpires as valuable for social development and crucial in many situations in everyday life. The root definition of empathy, a term coined in 1858 by Rudolf Lotze based on a translation of the Greek term: *empatheia,* defines empathy as an ability to recognise oneself in another. Simply put, empathy is the experience of putting oneself in the shoes of somebody else. Multi-disciplinary interest in empathy provides a rich source of prior literature from where to begin to explore the under-researched role of empathy in Social Enterprise (SE). SE is increasingly recognised as an important contributor to societal and/or environmental regeneration through its pursuit of a social and/or environmental mission. In tackling social inequalities and unmet need, SEs address social problems in entrepreneurial and innovative ways. Inherent to SE is the need to connect and work with others in a much more collaborative way to traditional business, given that the beneficiaries of a SE are the central focus of the social mission and also valuable stakeholders. In working together a sense of reciprocal benefit is shared between the SE and its beneficiaries. The fieldwork took the form of a five month ethnography within one SE based in London. The organisation was established in the 1980s and has grown from a small workforce to now employ approximately one thousand people. The results of the research offer contributions to theory combined with practice, as the ethnographic methods provided the researcher with an opportunity to explore what is *said* about SE and what is *done*, in practice. The current research emphasises the connected nature of people and the dependence people have on one another, and this dependence is particularly related to SE. Emergent findings suggest empathy is like a 'currency' in SE. The SE and beneficiaries are as reliant on each other to achieve the collective social mission. Empathy emerges as vital for working together with a range of stakeholders, for the purpose of sharing viewpoints and creating welcomed services in the community. Furthermore, empathy emerges as a key contributor in sharing perspectives, motivating action for collective ends and striving for joint goals.

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Acronyms

BES	Basic Empathy Scale
BIS	Department for Business, Innovation and Skills
CCA	Constant Comparative Analysis
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
CR	Critical Realism
DA	Discourse Analysis
DBS	Disclosure and Barring Service
DCMS	Department for Culture, Media and Sport
DTI	Department for Trade and Industry
E2E	Entry to Employment
EMES	Emergence des Entreprises Sociales
GT	Grounded Theory
HES	Hogan Empathy Scale
IRI	Interpersonal Reactivity Index
NCVO	National Council for Voluntary Organisations
NI	Narrative Inquiry
NVIVO	Qualitative data analysis computer software package produced by Qualitative Research Software International
OB	Organisational Behaviour
OCS	Office for Civil Society
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
OTS	Office for the Third Sector
QDA	Qualitative Data Analysis
QMEE	Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy
QRS	Qualitative Research Software
RJ	Reflexive Journal
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
SE	Social Enterprise
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SBP	Socio-Biological Perspective
SME	Small to Medium-sized Enterprise
US	United States
WISE	Work Integration Social Enterprise

1. Background

1.1. Overview: Pro-social behaviours, motivation and empathy

When one sees someone in pain, for example someone suffering from the cold, there is something inside us that recognises the pain that she/he is experiencing and sometimes we have an inclination to help. The better one might know the person experiencing the pain, often the greater the impulse to comfort them (Slote, 2011). The ability to understand what the other person is feeling, the emotional instinct to help and to feel something of that person's suffering, is the experience of empathy. Prior research and writers suggest that an awareness of *the other* is a result of our evolution (Belzung, 2014). Philosophically, empathy emerged as a topic of interest and development during the Age of the Enlightenment (approximately 1685-1815) when writers such as Adam Smith and David Hume suggested that empathy was necessary in order to understand the other and calculate their behaviour, suggesting our minds mirror the minds of others (Hoffman, 1977). Since the late twentieth century philosophers such as Goldman (1992) and social neuroscientists such as Decety (Decety and Jackson, 2004) have suggested that empathy enables cognitive understanding of the other by putting ourselves in their position. Empathy is distinct from altruism given that behaving empathetically, such as helping someone in need, also helps ourselves by releasing us from a negative state and by making one feel better. However, altruism can be linked to the phenomenon of empathy given that reacting empathetically can sometimes come as a personal cost, for example one's time. Sympathy can be related to empathy yet remains distinctive, given that one can have sympathy *for* the other, whereas empathy is an experience more closely aligned *with* the other.

Empathy always involves another; it is a relationship with another person that affects not only how one might feel about the other and act, but also empathy enables the ability to put oneself in their shoes (Belzung, 2014). It is described as a phenomenon where one can move away from a purely introspective view of the world and one's existence, and move towards the direction of considering the world from another 'third' perspective termed 'outrospection' (Krznaric, 2012). As a result, development of our understanding of empathy as a phenomenon and its importance in various social settings is not only crucial in understanding and sharing in the experience of others, but also acts as a mechanism by which to understand ourselves (Ricoeur, 1990). Empathy is related to care ethics as it is suggested that being moral is taking account of someone else's emotions, needs and prosperity (Slote, 2011). As a result, empathy plays an important function in society as it contributes to our understanding of right and wrong and individual gain versus collective gain (Slote, 2010; Slote, 2011). Consequently, the exploration of empathy has great applicability to society, our communities and everyday life.

1.2. Overview: Social Enterprise in the United Kingdom

In recent decades, interest in Social Enterprise (SE) as a field of research has increased (Haugh, 2005). SEs use business disciplines in order to address social needs and problems, such as disability, inequality and social exclusion. More recently, SE's value in terms of its contribution to society and to adding social value has been explored in a range of literature (Maclean, Harvey and Gordon, 2012; Teasdale, 2010; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Discursively the terms: 'enterprise', 'entrepreneur' or 'entrepreneurship' have traditionally emphasised the importance of the individual (Holmquist, 2003; Cho, 2006; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Whereas the term 'social enterprise' suggests a focus on social entrepreneurial practices and new opportunities where activity centres on concern for the collective (Haugh, 2006). Bygrave and Hofer (1991) propose that social entrepreneurship encompasses the pursuit of creating social value and the formation of a SE is the vehicle for fulfilling that aim. There are many varied definitions of SE internationally (OECD, 1999; 2007) however, the centrality of the social mission and the concern for collective ends by helping disadvantaged communities has been recognised as a crucial motivator (Cho, 2006; Spear, 2006).

Prior research suggests that exploring the motivations of those concerned with SE would be of beneficial value, given the paucity of research around SE employee motivations, recruitment strategies and management (Haugh, 2005; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Prior literature has proposed that simply adopting what is known from entrepreneurship theory to fit with the social sphere is both linguistically and practically questionable (Krashinsky, 1998; Paton, 2003; Pearce, 2003; Dees, 2004; Cho 2006; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). As a result, a form of 're-search' (Dey and Steyaert, 2010) is identified as important in SE research so as not to disregard some of the principles that may be crucially rooted in SE formation (Pearce, 2003), motivation and success. The ability to work for collective ends, which is linked to SE given its link to society and local communities, suggests motivation stems from internal and external sources. It is suggested that in order for the SE to identify and address a social problem, the individuals of the SE may feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE (the ability to imagine someone else's situation 'as if' it were one's own). This suggests that the successful SE engages with a complex range of motivations in order to address social and financial results. Given the range of perceived influences and challenges for entrepreneurs, research is needed into the actual experiences in social and entrepreneurial environments (Marlow, 2009; Kellet, Humphrey and Sleeth, 2006; Wolf, Pescosolido and Druskat, 2002).

1.3. Researcher experience

With a background in Human Rights, Social Justice and Moral and Political Philosophy, the researcher's interest in the project was directed by a motivation to explore moral reasons for action and level of attunement to others in social settings (please see Appendix A for original advertisement of PhD position by the University of Northampton). The researcher's prior research focused on care ethics; what it means to be moral, conflicting moral judgements in social justice and individual as well as group relationships to society. An on-going research interest has been exploring our reasons for individual as well as joint action. The researcher felt that this area of research was not only of great importance to explore in SE, but personally, the researcher was motivated by an intellectual curiosity to explore the relationship between the individual and the collective in SE. Throughout the fieldwork the over-riding research focus remained exploring organisational behaviour, individual and collective motivations in SE for the leadership team, external stakeholders, employees and volunteers, beneficiaries and the wider community, and how these various areas interacted. The researcher's work background included working for a third sector organisation offering humanistically oriented professional training programmes. The researcher felt that this background knowledge and experience supplemented her understanding of ethical considerations and implications at doctoral level study.

1.4. The current research aim

This research study had the following central aim: To explore the role of empathy in social enterprise, in terms of its possible effect on motivation and organisational behaviour. The role of the ethnographer is to enter the field of study and observe social phenomena while remaining as unbiased as possible in order to report the participants' point of view. Prior literature has identified that ethnographic methods are exploratory and emphasis is placed on exploring the nature of a specifc social phenomenon, rather than setting out with distinct aims, questions and hypotheses to test (Reeves, Kuper and Hodges, 2008). However, the researcher acknowledges that a prior in-depth literature review did to some extent, guide the research focus and inform the interview questions. The researcher also engaged with observation and a reflexive journal as a means of data collection that allowed space for unexpected findings to emerge. Once immersed in the field of study, the following research aims and questions developed over the course of the fieldwork:

Research aim one: What if any, is the role of empathy in social enterprise?

Research aim two: Can empathy with others motivate action?

Research aim three: Can empathy be taught, developed or encouraged?

Research aim four: Does empathy impact leadership positively or negatively?

Research aim five: What are the methodological contributions –

  a) What is the value of utilising ethnography to explore social enterprise?

  b) What is the relationship between ethnography and empathy?

Following five months of full time ethnographic fieldwork, clear connections between the above five research aims and empirical research emerged. With regards research aim one; the role of empathy emerged as a form of 'currency' in SE. Connecting with others emerged as possible by engaging with empathy and such connections were found to motivate action - this finding provided support for research aim two. In relation to research aim three; empirical research findings emerged to demonstrate that empathy through perspective taking can be encouraged. Cultivating empathy within an organisation emerged as important and as a result, adopting an empathetic leadership approach promoted effective leadership - this finding provided an explicit connection between research aim four and the empirical research. Finally, methodological contributions emerged that highlighted: a) the worthiness of adopting ethnographic methods in researching SE organisations; and b) the unequivocal link between ethnography and empathy (full discussion of contributions and findings can be found in chapter 6).

1.5 Outline of the thesis

This thesis is arranged into seven chapters beginning with this introductory chapter. Chapter two focuses on the literature of empathy, pro-social and organisational behaviour. The second chapter explores the various dimensions of empathy as emotional, cognitive and an ability to disconnect. This chapter expands on the development of empathy from a philosophical concept that emerged during the Age of Enlightenment to a multi-disciplinary social phenomenon that affects and influences much of everyday life. Chapter two reviews various theoretical perspectives on pro-social behaviour as well as a review of organisational motivations and behaviours. The distinction between altruism and empathy, and sympathy and empathy, is addressed and the relationship between these social phenomena is discussed. A review of empathy across various disciplines is presented, and prior research links between empathy and leadership are outlined to be explored in the thesis. Chapter three presents an overview of SE in terms of historical roots, international definitions, conceptions and contexts. SE management and leadership is discussed given the complex multi-dimensional aims SEs seek to address. Given the multi-bottom line that SEs seek to address, the following question is raised

and discussed: What happens when the social mission conflicts with the economic commitments? Chapter three concludes by suggesting that a further exploration of SE motivations from the perspective of all those affected by the SE (employees, leadership, stakeholders, beneficiaries and the local community) is relevant to further inquiry given that transformative social change occurs when all areas of SE overlap.

A review of ontology and epistemology and how these relate to the researcher and the research is presented in chapter four in an effort to demonstrate that how the researcher perceives the world and makes sense of it affects both the research focus and motivation. Critical Realism is selected as an appropriate methodological approach in the research, given that the researcher proposes that empathy both exists as a real phenomenon yet through our feelings and experiences it is also socially constructed and mediated. Following a meta-analysis of seventy-three journal articles related to 'empathy' and a meta-analysis of one hundred and sixty-eight journal articles related to 'social enterprise', ethnography is critically selected as an appropriate research methodology given its use in discovering and exploring cultural phenomena from the perspective of the research participants. A further meta-analysis which includes the review of fifty-two 'ethnography' journal articles is reported, as well as a review of quantitative research methods in order to provide a rationale for the research tools to be used in the current research and also the length of the fieldwork. The research tools used to collect data include: semi-structured interviews with a range of stakeholders associated with the SE, observations and a daily reflexive journal kept up-to-date over the five month, full time ethnographic fieldwork period. A discussion of empathy and ethnography follows in chapter four, as empathy is emotionally and cognitively linked to ethnography as ethnographers endeavour to accurately represent the experiences of the participants. Critical Discourse Analysis and Narrative Inquiry are reviewed and proposed as appropriate methods to analyse the data given that both methods are concerned with taking account of social and cultural contexts and motivations with a consideration of meaning-making. Various research considerations are discussed including sampling, ethics, care of participants, as well as researcher reflexivity and research motivations.

Chapter five presents the full results of the data analysis of three data sets: twenty-three semi-structured interviews; five months of observations ranging from volunteer work, participation in meetings, and a daily reflexive journal kept up-to-date throughout the five months of fieldwork. Following a literature review of ethnography, the transcribed interview data is selected as the 'voice' of the research participants. Following analysis of each data set (interview data, observations, reflexive journal) similar 'themes' emerged and as a result, "reciprocal translations" were possible from the individual data sets. The following areas are explored in further detail within chapter five: 1)

defining success; 2) employee perspective; 3) senior leadership, management and trustees (denoted 'the senior team'); and 4) community.

Research contributions are discussed in chapters six and are outlined below:

Table 1.1. The relationship between the research contributions

Research Contributions	Who/What is affected?			
Empathy emerges as a 'currency' in social enterprise	Beneficiaries (including community) ⟷	Employees ⟷	External stakeholders ⟷	Leadership (including Senior Team)
Connecting with others motivates action	Beneficiaries (including community) ⟷		External stakeholders ⟷	Leadership (including Senior Team)
Empathy can be encouraged	Beneficiaries ⟷		External stakeholders, leadership and employees	
Empathetic leadership encourages effective leadership	Leadership ⟷		External stakeholders, employees and beneficiaries	
Methodological contribution: a) ethnography and social enterprise	Ethnography ⟷		Social enterprise	
Methodological contribution: a) ethnography and empathy	Ethnography ⟷		Empathy	

Chapter seven presents and discusses theoretical and practical issues. This chapter also focuses on research considerations and limitations. The chapter reflects on the research aim, research purpose and findings, as well as the effects of ethnography on both the researcher and the researched. Furthermore, this final chapter considers practical implications of the research for academics and practitioners, and a theoretical model is proposed.

2. Literature review: Empathy, pro-social and organisational behaviour

2.1. Introduction

Empathy is emerging as an important area of study related to social cognition and offers potential contributions across disciplines including a more socially driven understanding of SE (Carre, Stefaniak, D'Ambrosio, Bensalah and Besche-Richard, 2013; Decety and Svetlova, 2012). Empathy is becoming established as an interconnected term not centrally located within a specific discipline and appears to link various experiences and activities (Jensen and Moran, 2012) including social life and SE (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012). Years of study within fields of counselling and psychotherapy have developed the importance of empathy in establishing interpersonal relationships (Rogers, 1957) and in producing change and learning (Rogers, 1975). Within SE, the need to satisfy the 'multi-bottom line' (financial, social and environmental) is characteristic of the SE sector, as SEs seek to direct contributions towards the beneficiary category as well as maintaining financial viability (Gui, 1991). It is proposed that empathy is related to SE because it is perceived as motivation to action (Hourdequin, 2012). The social mission is the key motivation and purpose of a SE (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008); indeed, research demonstrates empathetic ability aids social cohesion (Gerdes and Segal, 2011). Schumpeter's (1934) early account of economic sociology provides support for SE stemming from both individualistic and collective agendas. The relationship between the individual and the collective is perceived as a crucial element and the social entrepreneur is the leader of this change (Schumpeter, 1934; Festre and Garrouste, 2008).

This chapter will examine the role of empathy across various research disciplines. In seeking to arrive at the most appropriate lens through which to view the role of empathy in SE, theoretical perspectives of pro-social behaviour are explored. The first section will examine the Socio-Biological Perspective (SBP), Social LearningTheory (SLT) and finally, Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). Due to the multifaceted nature of empathy, the focus will progress on to the psychology of organisations in order to analyse pro-social motivations in organisational settings and the complex behavioural science that is Organisational Behaviour (OB). In relation to OB, a focus on culture and leadership are most fitting in view of this research aims (please see section 1.4 for further discussion of research aims). In distinguishing empathy from altruism (as motivation and related action), the chapter will also conceptually analyse empathy as a motivation to action and as a pro-social motivation in itself. The interdisciplinary nature of empathy will be considered in light of emerging research in fields of psychology, social work, neuroscience, leadership and business management. Owing to research contributions from multidisciplinary fields, the role of empathy in SE emerges as a complex

phenomenon and its relationship to SE presents itself as an under-researched area in need of further exploration.

2.2. Conceptualising and defining empathy

Empathy enables people to suspend judgement and as a result creates more interactive and cooperative environments (Pavlovich et al., 2012). The suspension of judgement promotes collective understanding rather than individual self-interest. This suggests important contribution for SE success not only in its formation stage but also over time. Research suggests empathy with the beneficiaries of SE aids the development of SEs as human flourishing is promoted (Pavlovich et al., 2012). It is argued that engaging with further research on empathy as a way of understanding SE, helps build just and sustainable social structures (Gerdes et al., 2010). This in turn promotes a new mode of transparent and authentic leadership (Humphrey, 2002). In sharing perspectives and striving for joint goals, the boundaries between self and others become blurred within SE to the extent that individual social problems become collective social problems. The proposed research presents an original contribution by exploring empathy as a potentially crucial concept in motivating individuals to collaborate to form a SE in order to resolve a social problem.

Recent studies discuss empathy as consisting of affective and emotional elements and as a result three aspects of empathy have been identified: emotional contagion, emotional disconnection and cognitive empathy (Carre et al., 2013; Joliffe and Farrington, 2006). Emotional contagion is understood as a capacity to experience emotions of others and to be affected by them, almost as experiencing them *for* that person (Maibom and Heidi, 2009). Emotional disconnection enables the necessary differentiation of *the self* and *other* and cognitive empathy is understood as sharing or more accurately understanding of the mental states of others (Carre et al., 2013). These three elements suggest that the nature of empathy is complex and whilst it cannot be empirically defined as an object, the Empathy Index is capable of reporting on empathy to a valid extent (Carre et al., 2013; Grady and Rose, 2011). Empathy is emerging as a significant area of study related to social understanding and suggests potential contributions to various disciplines including support for our understanding of SE motivation and success (Carre et al., 2013; Decety and Svetlova, 2012). Empathy is becoming established as an interconnected term not centrally located within a specific discipline and appears to link various experiences and activities (Jensen and Moran, 2012) including social life and SE (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012). Empathy is not a single human experience; it can be experienced unconsciously by being affected emotionally (for instance witnessing pain or suffering in another human being and potentially feeling compelled to act), or can be a more cognitive process. In

addition, empathy requires the ability to disconnect in order to differentiate between self and other (Carre et al., 2013).

Research suggests empathy dissolves the space between self and others (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012). Pavlovich and Krahnke's (2012) research highlights that in feeling the suffering of another person, we connect in a shared reality exposing the human need for mutual dependency. As a result, empathy is more readily experienced rather than easily defined much like knowledge, and can be: "…co-constructed in social interactions" (Eisenberg, 1990:141). Empathy enables one to consider another person's viewpoint by adopting their perspective. In addition, it enables the ability to imagine how another is affected by a situation (Gerdes et al., 2010; Stotland, 1969). Carkhuff (1969) argues that empathy is a specific skill utilised in both conscious and unconscious communication with others. On the basis that empathy is both a conscious and an unconscious process, the current research approaches the concept of empathy as an exploration of an existential phenomenon.

Definitions of empathy have varied greatly and as a result conceptualising empathy has often differed from study to study (Gerdes et al., 2010). Between 1957 and 1967 there were twenty-one different definitions of empathy in social work literature (Gerdes et al., 2010). Most definitions derived from psychologist Carl Rogers' (1957) work and centred on the ability of a therapist to sense the client's world as if it were the therapists' own. From the 1980s onwards, empathy became more widely understood as consisting of two factors; the physiological experience (also referred to as *affective* or *emotional* experience) and the cognitive experience (Gerdes et al., 2010). Eisenberg et al. (1994) and later Gross (1998) linked the importance of the cognitive experience of empathy to empathetic accuracy. Gross (1998) argued that the cognitive process of emotional regulation is extremely important in the experience of empathy in order to safeguard against the observer being overcome by empathy leading to distress. The cognitive ability to regulate or disconnect as Carre et al. (2013) asserts, plays a key role in empathy and distinguishes it from sympathy. Sympathy is defined as feeling an emotion *for* the other person at a distance, whereas empathy enables one to *share* the emotion of the other. Empathy requires one to consider the other's viewpoint and perspective as if it could be their own (de Waal, 2008; Eisenberg, 2000). Empathy as a result requires a shift in perspective; considering the world through the eyes of another, whilst importantly not losing sight of oneself.

Within prior literature empathy is sometimes referred to as a *quality* (Levenson and Reug 1992). The three qualities of empathy are identified as: feeling (emotional); knowing (cognitive); and responding compassionately (action). An act of compassion requires both emotional regulation to avoid distress, and emotional disconnection in order to be able to consider what is best and appropriate as a response.

Positioning compassion as a *response* distinguishes it from empathy; compassion suggests action which goes beyond initial empathy. For example, empathy is the first stage of self-and-other contact which may contain compassion (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012). Empathy is also defined as being able to emotionally relate to another person (de Waal, 2008), which is of paramount importance to a successful social mission. Relating to others is essential for social interactions and crucial for survival in certain circumstances for both humans and animals (De Waal, 2008). For example, monkeys use distress vocalisations to warn other monkeys of potential predators, hence demonstrating empathy-induced actions (de Waal, 2008). People also employ distress warnings, such as shouting to alert someone that a car is coming in their direction. This type of behaviour demonstrates cooperation and a striving towards the shared goal of survival (de Waal, 2008). Prior literature suggests that more empathetic people are also disposed to unconscious mimicry adding further evidence that empathy is both a conscious and unconscious experience (Chartrand and Bargh, 1999).

The ability shared among primates and humans to quickly relate to the emotional state of another is essential for social interactions (de Waal, 2008). For example, in relating to another person one needs to judge a situation accurately and to pitch one's behaviour accordingly (Preston and de Waal, 2002). This judgement and behaviour has profound implications for SEs whose primary aim is to assess a social ill and implement action to remedy it. Evidence shows humans have a prompt empathetic-emotional response and a desire for connectedness (Pavlovich et al., 2012). The idea that one person is affected by another's emotional state is a broad perspective dating back to Lipps (1903). The ability to be affected by another highlights the emotional connection shared among humans. This connectedness begins early in life as dependency forms part of survival, at least in the infant stages (de Waal, 2008). Cognitive empathy, whilst critically tied to the complete definition of empathy, is a consequent occurrence to an emotional feeling or response. For example, Hoffman (1981:79) states: "Humans must be equipped biologically effectively in many social situations without undue reliance on cognitive processes."

In summary, empathy is a complex and highly applicable concept in social life. Empathy cannot be straightforwardly defined as an 'object' independent of our consciousness; one would not for example, be able to point to it as one might point to a tree in order to empirically define it. Empathy requires another consciousness; the experience of empathy is a concept that we share. One cannot for example, empathise without another person. As a way of understanding and gaining knowledge, it is important to consider the use of language across various disciplines in defining and understanding the term: empathy. Thus far, definitions of empathy have proved to support the bottom-up and top-down approach in that empathy can be considered both affective and cognitive (Carre et. al., 2013). In terms

of SE organisations, wider-study on the concept of empathy suggests that it may be an important contributor to both the success of the social mission and organisation as a whole.

Pescosolido (2002) suggests empathy could be utilised more widely to encourage successful leadership however, there is minimal research on this topic (Kellet et al., 2006; Pillai and Williams, 2004). Kellet et al.'s (2006) study focused on individual findings and suggested individuals with high empathy are considered by others as leaders. Such research provides insight into the perceptions of those who are empathetic however, further research into employee outcomes linked to having an empathetic manager would be beneficial (Gerdes et al., 2010). Research into perceived manager empathy could potentially benefit both employee and manager and as a result, managers might be encouraged to be more empathetic through perspective-taking, thereby benefitting the organisation as a whole (Kellet et al., 2006). Empathy emerges as a crucial factor in pro-social behaviour and suggests an emotional as well as cognitive motivation rooted in helping others (Mason and Bartal, 2010). Literature suggests emotions such as empathy are a fundamental aspect of social existence allowing people to confer meaning on experiences thus aiding further discovery (Cicchetti, Ganiham and Barnett, 1991). In addition, emotional understanding enables one to imagine one's own feelings as representational of how others may also feel (Harris, 1989a). Early psychological studies by Sagi and Hoffman (1976) showed infants as young as eight months demonstrated a form of pro-social understanding motivated by empathy. Sagi and Hoffman's (1976) research involved infants aged between eight and twelve months who were exposed to recorded cries of other infants and their natural response was prompt empathetic distress. The infants' own cries were played back to them and this did not prompt a distress reaction. Such pro-social studies evoke interest from both social and developmental psychologists who explore empathy as the awareness of someone else's emotional state or condition as an inbuilt response (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Whilst empathy emerges as central to a number of pro-social behaviours including Organisational Behaviour (OB), literature on conceptualising and defining it has differed greatly (Gerdes et al., 2010). As a result, comparing and developing a conceptual framework for empathy has remained problematic. Empathy in social work and education literature has been described as confusing and limited (Gerdes et al., 2010). However, cross-disciplinary research such as Pavlovich and Krahnke's (2012) neuroscience study observing neural networks in the brain to the study of empathy and emotions in leadership (Goleman, 2002), is leading to empathy becoming more observable, precise and increasingly widely applicable (Gerdes et al., 2010). Empathy is a multi-faceted social construct and includes both bottom-up and top-down components. The bottom-up aspect of empathy is the ability to recognise another's emotional state. The top-down aspect of empathy is the conscious cognitive process that helps us not only to understand our own behaviours, but also the behaviours of

others (Durkin, 1995). Given human's social need of belonging and cooperation (McGregor, 1957), an exploration of empathy transpires as not only advantageous but necessary in order to make SE organisations successful and sustainable.

2.3. Theoretical perspectives on pro-social behaviour

Pro-social motivations for example, cooperation, trust and authenticity have received much attention in research across various disciplines ranging from neuroscience (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012) through to psychology (Rogers, 1975). Given that other peoples' behaviour, thoughts and intentions are not always directly observable, pro social motivation presents itself as an interesting area of study (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Whilst there are adaptive, primitive reasons as to why people desire to understand others (in order to distinguish between friends and enemies), understanding pro-social behaviour is crucial to navigating complex social situations (Cairns and Cairns, 1988). Research suggests that individual feelings directly influence many aspects of cognition and behaviour (Baron, 2008). Prior research suggests three theoretical explanations for pro-social behaviour: the Socio-Biological Perspective (SBP), Social Learning Theory (SLT) and finally, Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). These three theories are explored in greater detail below.

The SBP suggests that where pro-social, empathetic behaviour exist it is programmed by nature (Durkin, 1995). As a result, the SBP supports the idea that where pro-social behaviour emerges it is an advantage for the individual in society (Wagner, 1999). The SBP perspective links social behaviour and individual self-interest, suggesting that motivation for pro-social action is solely linked to personal benefit. The SBP suggests pro-social behaviours such as gratitude and fairness emerge only as a means of regulating long-term relationships (Durkin, 1995; Trivers, 1985). As a result, self-sacrificing behaviours such as empathy or altruism are not considered natural tendencies by social-biologists other than for self-preservation and eventual gain (Durkin, 1995). To act altruistically, potentially motivated by empathetic feelings, does not fit with a socio-biological view given that the reward is directed towards another, or at least towards collective gain. SE success is defined by both a successful financial bottom line and a successful social and/or environmental mission (Harding, 2010; Di Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009). SE motivation therefore presents itself as an example against the SBP by showing that pro-social behaviour does not necessarily stem from an anticipation of individual gain, but that it is conceivable that individual and collective gain in society is strongly related.

SLT as a theoretical perspective suggests that like other behaviours, pro-social tendencies are learned either by social reinforcement or by punishment (Durkin, 1995). As SLT suggests individuals are

motivated only by rewards or by avoidance of punishment, SLT therefore suggests a link between pro-social behaviours and extrinsic factors (Durkin, 1995). SLT does not consider individual complex reasons often associated with pro-social behaviour (for instance empathy, connections and compassion); instead, SLT considers pro-social behaviour as a weighing-up of either an attraction or repulsion factor. Many studies show that children learn by imitating behaviours (Keller and Chaudhary, 2010; Durkin, 1995; Rogers, 1975), whereas SLT contributes little as to why pro-social and helping behaviours continue to develop through adolescence and adulthood, and also why there may be gender differences in empathy (Kramer, Mohammadi, Donamayer, Samii, Munte, 2010; Keller and Chaudhary, 2010). As a result, SLT fails to contribute fully to the discourse on empathy or a wider discussion of SE motivation given that it does not acknowledge the role of imitation in terms of development and learned behaviour. SLT does not recognise the complex nature of human motivations nor responsibility for pro-social action beyond positive and negative motivation.

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) suggests pro-social behaviours are influenced by social reasoning abilities, interpersonal consideration and problem-solving abilities (Durkin, 1995). Bandura (1997) found that people's motivations often stem from their beliefs and not always from their actual capabilities. As a result, pro-social motivation emerges as a complex phenomenon and examining the role of empathy is key in gaining a greater understanding of human motivations (given that observed capabilities in others are not always the best indicator of behaviour). Pro-social behaviours involve a number of cognitive processes that govern interpersonal behaviour highlighting that people's motivations for behaving pro-socially are governed by a variety of reasons (Bierhoff, 1996). Elder and Ardelt (1992) suggest human behaviour is affected by several factors ranging from social status, education and socio-economic status. Whilst the SBP explores empathy as a biological behaviour, and SLT explores empathy as a learnt behaviour based on positive and negative reinforcements, emergent research supports empathy as a social cognitive phenomenon (Baron, 2008; Ashkanasy, 2002). SCT lends itself as a theoretical perspective from which to explore empathy and SE, as key components such as social reasoning underlie pro-social behaviour. Both the SBP and SLT provide insight into pro-social motivations however, SCT employs a multi-dimensional approach and as a result remains the dominant theoretical perspective within pro-social research (Durkin, 1995).

Bandura's (1991) research on SCT found that people are active and motivated as individuals. In addition, this motivation and ability for forethought and organisation on an individual level enables people to set valued goals (Elder and Ardelt, 1992; Bandura, 1991). People are motivated in various ways in society and individuals themselves cultivate and determine where best to invest their efforts and decide what for them, are essentially motivating and worthy goals to pursue (Bandura, 1991). Bandura (1991) suggests societies gain great benefits from the successful endeavours of those

individuals who persist in their efforts to achieve personal goals. This has great relevance to SE given that the motivations and mission of the SE potentially affect not only the intended beneficiaries but also strengthen society as a whole (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). SCT encompasses the ability to organise cognitive, social and behavioural capabilities to serve a purpose (Bandura, 1991; Bandura, 1990; Sternberg and Kolligian 1990). Therefore the applicability of SCT to SE research emerges as apt and under-researched. An individual's identity and their ability to organise various capabilities motivated for valued good involves aspects of emotional and intellectual abilities (Rees, Favre, 1997; Weil 1986), and these abilities emerge as inextricably linked to social experience.

The most commonly used definition of SCT refers to social phenomena related to how people make sense of themselves and others (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Less common used definitions discuss cognition as a product of social interactions suggesting that human knowledge itself is a social product (Forgas, 1981). The *social* aspect of SCT assumes social knowledge, for example that a number of people make up a society, yet at the same time individuals are separate from the collective. Social comparison and perspective taking is a fundamental aspect of self-knowledge and a way of organising our social world (Goldstein and Winner, 2012; Durkin, 1995). As a result, pro-social behaviour is an indication of social adjustment and considered an integral part of civilised society (Mills, Fleck and Kozikowski, 2013; Goldstein and Winner, 2012; Andriopoulos, 2001). Literature suggests helping behaviours, for example empathy and related altruism, do not necessarily serve our own interests and therefore the origins of empathy-related motivation remains complex (Gerdes, Segal and Lietz, 2010). Empathetic and altruistic behaviours perplexed Darwin (1859) as such motivations were suggested to undermine the theory of natural selection (Durkin, 1995). Motivations for pro-social behaviours have attracted several theories including the self-satisfying feeling that on social comparison one might consider one's self to be better than the rest. Alternatively, pro-social behaviour for example, donating to charity might help in the alleviation of guilt stemming from knowledge that there are those less fortunate. Pro-social behaviour is often associated with a level of personal reward however, empathy and related altruism suggests motivation based on another's gain and not necessarily one's own (Gerdes et al., 2010; de Waal 2008). Prior research into pro-social behaviour suggests that organisations might be enriched if there is greater understanding of it (Durkin, 1995). Owing to SE focus on economic, social and/or environmental added value, pro-social motivation and related empathy appear closely linked. Given the complex nature and motivation behind pro-social behaviour it is important to examine motivations in the context of OB and related organisational psychology.

2.4. The psychology of organisational behaviour

Organisational Behaviour (OB) is an applied behavioural science that emerged from various disciplines including psychology, sociology, anthropology and economics (Borkowski, 2009). OB is a study of individuals and related dynamics within an organisational setting (Brief and Weiss, 2002). Research into OB is of growing importance given organisations' diverse backgrounds and the cultures of its individuals (Goldstein and Winner, 2012). The beginnings of OB stem back to the early Twentieth Century as a response to the then current management tradition (Borkowski, 2009). Taylor (1911) developed what was termed 'Taylorism' (1911:14) in relation to scientific management: "Manager(s) must give special incentives to their workforce. For example, better contact with his workmen that comes only from a genuine and kindly interest in the welfare of those under him". In addition, results from The Hawthorne Studies developed by Mayo and Roethlisberger and conducted between 1924 and 1933, highlighted the significance of OB by showing the important, notable influence of human factors on worker's efficiency (Borkowski, 2009).

The study of influences at work emerged as a scientific research concern in the 1930s as interest arose among managers to understand the workers they managed in terms of their feelings, values, beliefs and assumptions (Brief and Weiss, 2002). As a result, fostering positive psychological principles has become increasingly important in the workplace not only as a way of understanding the motivations of workers, but also as a way of increasing organisational success in terms of financial, social and environmental success (Mills et al., 2013). OB is defined as the organisation's basic values and beliefs that are shared by the members of the organisation (Borkowski, 2009). As a result, organisational culture or OB (as it is more often referred to) is considered to be comprised of shared norms which affect the behaviour of the organisation (Andriopoulos, 2001). The study of OB itself is considered a bottom-up approach as it is an enquiry into individual and related group activity within an organisational environment, and how that environment affects and influences organisational dynamics (Kellet, Humphrey and Sleeth, 2006; Wolf, Pescosolido and Druskat, 2002). The implications of OB research not only provides insight into employees' motivation and behaviour, but the study of OB is of growing importance within business and leadership studies given the implications for organisation leaders. Management literature has begun to engage with the concept of empathy for example, Goleman et al.'s (2002) research stated that empathy is the foundation of social awareness. Pro-social behaviour has therefore emerged as an important feature of OB (Kellet et al., 2006; Cameron, Dutton and Quinn, 2003; Plutchik, 1987).

Research has linked empathy to organisational success, suggesting that empathetic individuals are more likely to recognise and share each other's successes and difficulties (Gable, Reis, Impett and

Asher, 2004). Research into organisational environments has highlighted that people who display pro-social behaviour towards others develop successful interpersonal relationships compared to those that score low on the empathy scale (implying a link between pro social motivation and empathy; Batson, 1987). George (2000) proposed that empathy positively impacts upon management in organisations due to generating positive feelings in others. In addition, research suggests that the emotional capabilities of managers play a part in the development of emotional contagion (Bono and Ilies, 2006). As a result, it is suggested empathetic managers are more effective at enhancing good moods and diminishing negative moods within the organisation (Plutchik, 1987).

OB literature explores the significant effect relationships have in the workplace (Mills et al., 2013). Prior research has demonstrated a link between positive mood and pro-social behaviour such as increased cooperation and reduced aggression (Cameron et al., 2003; Wolf et al., 2002). Moreover, prior research has reported that being in a positive mood promotes pro-social and helping behaviours such as cooperation and empathy, and engaging with pro-social behaviour diminishes unpleasant behaviours such as aggression (Brief and Weiss, 2002). The environments that people work in are liable to change and can be fairly unpredictable (Baron, 2008). Therefore a SE's impact is multifaceted; whilst maintaining a sustainable organisation, the organisation leadership team must at the same time balance: a) the needs of the individuals involved in the SE; and b) the SE's social impact. It is therefore of growing importance that the leadership and management team is able both to lead the organisation and at the same time remain part of the collective organisation, empathising with employees, stakeholders and beneficiaries to ensure the success of the enterprise.

Places of work have been recognised as emotion-laden (George, 2000) for both leadership teams and workers. Research suggests leaders who emotionally connect with their employees can be more successful in terms of influence and maintaining the welfare of their staff (Pescosolido, 2002). It is suggested that leaders can protect the emotional tone of the organisation by being emotionally in-tune with others in their organisation (Sy, Cote and Saavedra, 2005). The role of emotion in motivation is considered an under-researched area (Ashkanasy, 2002), but has begun to attract further research. In the past, the role of emotions in organisational settings had been traditionally ignored and considered unsuitable for valid and rigorous research (Ashkanasy, 2002; Ashford and Humphrey, 1995). From the late 1980s this view however began to change due to publications on commercialisation of human feelings (Hochschild, 1983) and emotions in organisational settings (Rafaelis and Sutton, 1989). A growing number of research publications over the last decade, in journals such as the Journal of Organisation Behaviour and Leadership Quarterly, echoed the growing multi-disciplinary interest in emotion and empathy in social settings (Ashkanasy, 2002).

Mayer and Salovey's (1997) research defined emotional intelligence in organisations as an ability to understand and to govern emotions in ones' self and in others. In exploring the effect of emotions in organisations, Ashkanasy (2002) proposed a multi-level theory recognising that emotions play a crucial role in five areas: within-person, individual, dyadic, group and organisational. The identification of these five levels highlights the complex and diverse range that emotions have within organisational settings. Brief and Weiss (2002) argue that the role of emotions in organisational settings had tended to focus on only positive and negative effects of moods, which may have been historically more fitting to the SLT perspective of pro-social behaviours. As a result, the effect of emotions in organisational settings had been previously narrowly confined and defined. It has been suggested that research needs to address process issues in OB defined as: "…the mechanisms whereby emotional expressions impinges on organisational performance" (Ashkanasy, 2001:16). Along these lines research has begun to explore how OB may evolve beyond the individuals in the organisation (Dutton et al., 2006). In engaging and recognising pro-social behaviour within the organisation as a whole, organisations themselves may begin to nurture the pro-social ethos from within. Empathy and related altruism emerge as key pro-social emotions and potential motivations in organisational settings requiring further investigation.

2.5. Altruism and empathy

Everyday definitions of empathy include *suspending judgement and biases* or *walking in another's shoes* (Pavlovich et al., 2012; Greason and Cashwell, 2009). At the core of most definitions of empathy, the concept is understood as blurring or sharing the boundaries between self and other (Pavlovich et al., 2012). In considering other-orientated motivations and actions it is important to also explore the concept of altruism. There are two main arguments that distinguish empathy from altruism. First, empathy is concerned with the collective good whereas it is suggested altruistic motivation transcends self-interest (Batson, Batson, Todd, Brummett, Shaw and Aldeguer, 1995). Whilst transcending self-interest appears to suggest a more selfless as opposed to selfish action, it also suggests an over-blurring of boundaries. To transcend self-interest and to act wholly for the benefit of another individual suggests a tipping of the balance towards an individual concern, which may be detrimental to the collective good. Research by Gerdes et al. (2010) suggests empathy can undermine the collective good if personal self-interest is replaced with other-interest as opposed to group-interest. For example, Habbershon, Williams and MacMillan (2006) suggested that family run businesses may exhibit a high level of empathy due to the relationship ties, obligations and ethics of care, but this empathy may become directed to self or family-interest rather than to the greater social or collective good. Habbershon et al.'s (2006) research is relevant to SE given that SE focus is on

adding social value as opposed to purely individual or economic value (Howorth and Parkinson, 2008).

Distinction between self and other is a key feature in empathy literature. A lack of empathy and self-other awareness suggests psychopathic-type tendencies (Blair, 1994). Alternatively, too much self-other merging to the point where other people's suffering becomes our own suggests stress and anxiety (Rogers, 1975). Anxiety caused by fully adopting other people's suffering as if it were one's own takes away from empathetic responses by overwhelming and distressing the individual (Hoffman, 1977). Hoffman (1975) and more recently de Waal (1996) argued that appreciation for self-other distinctiveness is the foundation to empathy as this enables one to distinguish between the particularity and uniqueness of another. The second distinction between empathy and altruism is that discussion of altruistic behaviour tends to lack a distinction between motivation and action (de Waal, 2008). Empathy is defined by emotional and cognitive factors, which are first experienced as a connection to another, then a motivation. By connecting with another, perspective taking and feeling empathy with another, one may be able to consider how to act and respond accordingly. Empathy itself is not a response but an experience (emotional or cognitive, or both) whereas altruism is an action; indeed, to act altruistically requires a core motivation or reason. Extensive literature suggests empathy may go hand-in-hand with altruism as motivation-to-action, which is more commonly known as the empathy-based altruism connection or hypothesis (de Waal, 2008). Evidence from more than twenty-five experiments support the empathy-altruism hypothesis (Batson, 1997; for a further discussion of this see: Cialdini et al., 1997; Batson, 1991); that emotional (affective) empathy prompts altruistic behaviour (Batson et al., 1995; see Batson 1991 for reviews). Empathy is therefore the potential origin of the altruistic act. The relevance of empathy as a motivation for collective orientated action is in fitting with SE as SEs seek to make contributions to their identified beneficiary category. Empathy and related empathy-altruism presents itself as an interesting and exciting area of study in the SE arena due to relationship between motivation and action (hence, *the social* and *the enterprise*).

Decety and Lamm (2006) suggest that altruistic-empathy conflicts with the Darwinian theory of natural selection or the idea that evolution is purely based on the survival of the fittest. A commonly cited experiment by Masserman, Wechkin and Terris (1964) demonstrated that altruistic-empathy manifests itself not only in humans but also in other primates. Masserman et al. (1964) produced an experiment where a monkey had to pull a chain in order to access food. Results showed that as soon as the monkey realised that in pulling the chain another same-species monkey received an electric shock, the monkey preferred not to receive food rather than allowing his mate to come to further harm. Results suggested the monkey preferred short-term starvation over causing harm to a fellow monkey (Pavlovich et al., 2012). Soosai-Nathan, Negri and Fave's (2013) research explored altruism

in two cultures. Their research identified that empathy motivated altruism was more than just a pro-social behaviour; that empathy-altruism was considered of great social and human value across cultures, most notably in improving relationships. Such experiments across cultures provide evidence that human beings, as well as other primates are programmed to relieve the suffering of others and to encourage well-being and preservation (Soosai-Nathan et al., 2013). SEs are directly linked to preserving and encouraging social well-being by seeking to alleviate social problems or ills (Mair and Marti, 2006). It therefore follows that empathetic ability to imagine another's experiences as if they were one's own, connects people and experiences. This connection has the ability to strengthen relationships and motivate action for the benefit of others.

Evidence suggests that some altruistic behaviour has built-in benefits for the giver, suggesting that altruistic action may not always originate from empathetic motivations (Carter, 2006). Research shows that oxytocin[1] is released when a mother bonds with her child or when the mother feeds her infant (Panksepp, 1998). Oxytocin is a powerful hormone that stimulates a feeling of intrinsic reward. Whilst primarily associated with offspring and relationships, a recent study by Zak, Stanton and Ahmadi (2007) suggest oxytocin may be triggered and felt between strangers resulting in generosity and altruistic action (Zak et al., 2007). What appears as altruistic action on the surface may in fact contain various motivations and rewards as studies of oxytocin have shown. As a result, empathy is a potential motivation of altruistic action but not necessarily the only motivation that ought to be taken into account. Furthermore, whilst altruism may emerge as an action from experiencing empathy, empathy is itself the core pro-social motivation. The concept of empathy requires further examination as a motivating factor in both SE motivation and start-up. As a result, the following section will explore empathy across various disciplines examining its crucial role in many aspects of human social interaction from infancy and beyond.

2.6. Empathy across disciplines

Empathy has fast developed into a topic of research and examination across various disciplines (Mason and Bartal, 2010). Whilst cross discipline debate continues as to the exact definition of empathy and related altruism and sympathy (Mason and Bartal, 2010), scholars from various disciplines including philosophy, biology, psychology and anthropology agree empathy plays a crucial role in much of human social interaction (Mason and Bartal, 2010; Belzung, 2014). Empathy has developed into a multidisciplinary field of research. Empathy is described as an ability experienced in social interactions that brings out the very best in people, whilst its absence defines some of the worst things in society (Mason and Bartal 2010; Cacioppo, 2010; Blair, 1994). Empathy

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[1] a neuromodulator linking attachment for offspring and other close bonding relationships (Zak et al., 2007)

is understood as being a strong motivation for pro-social action that ultimately enhances the welfare of others (Hourdequin, 2012; Mason and Bartak, 2010; Parkinson and Howorth, 2010). The multidisciplinary interest in empathy provides a rich and diverse perspective of the social identity and social significance of empathy and its potential relationship to SE (Mason and Bartak, 2010).

Hoffman (1975) was one of the first to suggest that empathetic concern involves differentiating between oneself and others. Research has found that underlying emotional contagion is a motivator of pro-social behaviour, indeed the sight of someone else in pain can induce similar feelings in the observer (Preston and de Waal, 2002). Along these lines, experiencing empathetic concern can then motivate pro-social behaviour (Keller and Chaudhary, 2010). Social cognitive skills such as empathy have been identified as crucial for social interactions, whereas a lack of empathy has been aligned with pathologies including psychopathic behaviours (Goldstein and Winner, 2012). Empathy has been shown as a key characteristic that psychopaths do not possess; in terms of feeling remorse or guilt (Blair, 2003). Research by Goldstein and Winner (2012) suggests role-playing may be a way of cultivating empathy by gaining valuable insight and perspective taking into other's beliefs and motivations.

Empathy appears to link various experiences and activities (Jensen and Moran, 2012), including most importantly for this thesis, social life and SE (Pavlovich et al., 2012). Evidence suggests that practitioner-to-client empathy is critical for effective social work and as a result exploration of empathy is essential for a foundation of all social theory and practice (Gerdes et al., 2010). Empathy emerges as vital for client-related social work however, empathy also has a crucial contribution to make in employer-to-employee interactions as well as SE-to-beneficiaries interactions (Kellet et al., 2006; Plutchik, 1987). Social work and SE are arguably some of the most organised displays of empathy given their concern with people and society, and as a result warrant empathy-related research (Gerdes et al., 2010). Studies demonstrate that pro-social motivation by way of empathy is crucial to moral development (Joliffe and Farringdon, 2006), for example, empathy is necessary for healthy parent-child relationships as well as other social relationships (Curtner-Smith, Culp, Scheib, Owen, Tilley and Coleman, 2006).

The importance of empathy has been recognised in social work practice (Gerdes et al. 2010). A growing need in social work practice is to define and measure empathy so it may be successfully employed among staff and their clients. Nordgren's (2011) research considered that social pain operates similarly to physical pain; suggesting that there may be empathy gaps that need addressing in social suffering. The shift from individual concern to collective concern has great implications for social organisations. Empathy is becoming identified as centrally located within a number of everyday

situations. Dutton, Worline, Frost and Lilius (2006) found that emotional empathy is crucial in triggering resources in a crisis situation. The unique ability to act fast in times of danger or crisis for instance, in generating relief packages when natural disasters occur, locates empathy as a pivotal motivation for promoting the survival of others. Empathy improves social bonds across cultures and the potential link between empathy and the social mission in terms of SE motivation has been largely overlooked in SE literature. Empathy has been suggested as a profound contributor in strengthening social interactions by way of motivating people to cooperate (de Vignemont and Singer, 2006). Strengthening societal bonds presents a clear potential link between empathy and SE, as SEs start up and operate with a clear focus on their social and/or environmental mission.

Gerdes and Segal (2011) found that social work practitioners should be encouraged to engage with their understanding of empathy. In doing so, it is suggested that research and knowledge of empathy can help with their social interactions. The area of social work and empathy research provides exciting possibilities as it suggests that empathy can be used to help professionals (social work practitioners) become more competent and adept at their social work in relating to others. Gerdes and Segal (2011) suggest that empathy acts as a key component in connecting social workers with clients. In many respects, parallels can be drawn between empathy related to social work practitioners and their clients, and empathy related to SE organisations (leadership, stakeholders and employees), their social mission and beneficiaries. Prior research investigating social work organisations and empathy has questioned whether individuals lacking in empathy can be taught to be empathetic. Results of former research also suggest that empathy is a socially constructed phenomenon and can be learned (Kaplan and Iacoboni, 2006; Gerdes and Segal, 2011).

In the field of neuroscience, Decety and Jackson (2004) embarked on experiments to test whether empathy can be observed in brain activity. Their results showed that certain neural mechanisms are affected by empathy (Rameson and Lieberman, 2009; Engen and Singer, 2013). Decety and Jackson (2004) argue that the study of empathy is an emerging social cognitive neuroscience. This assertion suggests that empathy is both a neurological and social phenomenon (Gerdes et al., 2010). Preston and de Waal (2002) suggest empathetic capacity is possible when the observer accesses the subjective state of the other through their own: "Neural and bodily representations" (de Waal, 2010:286). Electromyographic studies confirm muscle contractions in the human face when presented with other people's facial expressions even when the speed of the presented faces is so fast that it is not necessarily possible to consciously perceive the pictures before responding (de Waal, 2008; Dimberg, Thunberg and Elmehed, 2000). What electromyographic studies and facial mimicry show is increasing neuro-scientific evidence that the human brain is closely affected by empathetic responses through social connection (de Waal, 2008).

Further research in the field of neuroscience considers empathy as a: "…connectedness organising mechanism" (Pavlovich et al., 2012:131). Evidence is accumulating to suggest that the ability to engage with other people's empathetic emotions such as pain, happiness and suffering dissolves the barriers between people and leads them to cooperate. Pavlovich et al. (2012) labelled the ability to share emotions through empathy 'mirror neurons', meaning neurons mirror other peoples and therefore dissolve the barrier between one person and another (Pavlovich et al., 2012). The dissolution of barriers enables one to accurately engage with another's emotion that in turn promotes common ground building in social situations (Pavlovich et al., 2012). Sharing intentions and goal setting in SE is suggested as extremely important given the social and financial goals each SE seeks to fulfil.

In other related disciplines for example, in management literature, the role of empathetic leadership in organisations continues to receive attention. For example, Mills et al. (2013) suggest that emphasising the identity, culture and practices within organisations has significant impact in the workplace. Leadership behaviour is defined as interaction of leader (employer), follower (employee) and the environment (Ashkanasy, 2002; Fiedler 1967). As a result, the act of leadership requires a thoughtful understanding of interpersonal relations and how they interact in a certain environment. This level of awareness often itself demands a deeper understanding and ability to take another's perspective by way of empathy (Rozuel and Ketola; Pienaar, 2009). Prior research suggests managers should engage with their employees to improve emotional intelligence skills so that organisations participate in healthy emotional expressions at work (Ashkanasy, 2002). Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002:50) state that empathy is: "The fundamental competence of social awareness" in leadership. It is suggested that the relationship between emotional abilities particularly empathy, and leadership perceptions has been largely overlooked in leadership research (George, 2000) and may have potential contributions in SE related research. Research on empathy also appropriately maps on to recent emphasis on authentic leadership (Humphrey, 2002). Authentic leadership includes nurturing transparent relationships between leaders and followers. Humphrey (2004) argues empathy has an instrumental role to play in developing authentic relationships as empathetic feelings motivate ethically-orientated behaviours. In addition, it is suggested empathy plays a part in developing compassionate leadership (Cameron, Dutton and Quinn, 2003). The role of authentic leadership has interesting implications for SEs where the social mission and the way in which the social mission is understood among workers and beneficiaries remains significant (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). As a result the following section will consider links between empathy and effective SE leadership.

2.7. Empathy and effective leadership

Kellett et al.'s (2006) study found that emotional abilities, with specific reference to empathetic abilities, enabled effective leadership. Furthermore, the study suggested that not only does empathy help with identifying others' emotion and ability to express one's own emotions, but that empathy: "…helps explain a follower's sense of emotional support that in turn sparks creativity and performance in …organisations" (Kellett et al., 2006:158). Empathy is inextricably linked to emotional and cognitive abilities (Gerdes et al., 2010). The concept of emotional intelligence has been discussed by a number of practitioners and researchers (Mills et al., 2013). Kellett et al. (2006) suggest emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership as it requires the leader to consider various viewpoints thus strengthening trust relations (Kellett et al., 2006; Cameron et al., 2003). Furthermore, empathy not only contributes to effective leadership but also works in the opposite direction. The leaders' influence on the group affects the group's emotions and therefore responses. As a result, showing empathy from a leader's perspective can substantially affect job attitudes and performance (Kellett et al., 2006). It is suggested that empathy is not only important when directed towards SE beneficiaries, but nurturing empathy within an organisation also promotes better results, greater job satisfaction and communication within the organisation as a whole. Wolf et al. (2002) argue that empathy underlies the cognitive skills necessary for leadership. Empathy requires considering other people's feelings and perspective taking. This sharing of positive and negative emotions promotes a bond between individuals (Plutchik, 1987).

SE differs from traditional business in that SE shifts the focus more onto moral legitimacy (Suchman, 1995; Dart, 2004). SE is often defined as a response to environmental and social challenges faced by not purely profit-focused organisations (Dart, 2004; Dees, 2003; Emerson and Twersky, 1996). As a result, researchers empathise with the motivations of SE as more complex in addressing social needs (Dart, 2004; Grenier, 2002). A focus on value creation underpins SE catalysts such as the Ashoka foundation (http://uk.ashoka.org/) highlight the focus as innovation and impact and are not purely profit focused (Dart, 2004). Social entrepreneurship is rapidly developing especially in terms of a research focus (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Mair et al., 2006). Social entrepreneurship emerges both in research and mainstream media as: "…a source of explanation, prediction and delight" (Mair and Marti, 2006:36). The potential of SE contribution to society is presented as differentiated from other forms of entrepreneurship given its commitment to promoting both social and economic value (Mair and Marti, 2006). As a result, the motivation of SE leadership is of growing interest (Estay and Durrieu, 2013) and offers a potential link to empathy as a motivation for effective leadership.

Entrepreneurial motivation research is a pivotal feature in SE literature and presents itself as an area gaining legitimacy and attention (Carsrud and Brännback 2011). The social entrepreneur or Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and leadership team form a crucial aspect in the formation and potential development of SE, therefore investigation of leadership traits has remained a focus in entrepreneurial literature (Brockhaus 1982; Gartner 1985; McClelland 1961). In addition, what has begun to more recently emerge is an interest in leadership intentions and motivations (Kruger et al., 2000; Bird, 1988). Furthermore, growing interest within research has emerged regarding the personal characteristics of social entrepreneurs (Gartner, 1985) and related leadership teams, in terms of their connection and relationships with others, their social abilities, organisation and behaviour (Estay and Durrieu, 2013). Owing to the focus of entrepreneur and leadership motivations and intentions, SCT with its multidisciplinary approach to social behaviours as previously discussed, is deemed most appropriate in exploring the potential role of empathy in SE. Research by Steel and König (2006) demonstrates the crucial role of motivation proposing that motivation is based on individual's needs, values and goals as well as the related rewards they may entail involving both social and economic value creation (Grigore, 2012).

SEs present themselves as empathetically motivated by being socially innovative and motivated in regenerating communities (Maclean, Harvey, Gordon, 2012). For example, SEs pursue social objectives by definition of being socially orientated. Whilst these entrepreneurial activities produce some accumulation of wealth, SEs by choice and design invest in furthering social needs (Maclean et al., 2012; Shaw et al., 2012; Bishop and Green, 2008; Schervish et al., 2005), thus demonstrating an empathetic motivation and goal linked to society. The study of empathy as a motivating factor for SEs in their mission and ethos and how this potentially changes over time is not only of social importance, but also a topic which is multidisciplinary in nature (i.e. sociology, psychology, business). SE has been viewed as an area or sector increasing in legitimacy (Busenitz, West, Shepherd, Nelson, Chandler and Zacharakis, 2003). Whilst SE may have been viewed as a field of study originally stemming from the faculty of business and management, this appears to be changing. For example, Parkinson and Howorth's (2008) paper suggests a departure from the managerial and business-style language that has dominated the SE discourse is necessary. Its social objectives and the growing interest cross multidisciplinary agendas position SE and related leadership as a multi-faceted phenomena (Fletcher, 2006; Busenitz et al., 2003; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). As a result, SE leadership motivation in terms of development and sustainability is of significance if links between the enterprise, the society, the policies in place to support it and social funders are to work successfully (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). In seeking to explore why people participate in SE and in pursuing a greater understanding of the motivations of the social entrepreneur and leadership team, the current research aims to add to the definitional and conceptual challenges discussed in social

entrepreneurial research (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Howorth, Tempest and Coupland, 2005; Steyaert and Katz, 2004; Grant and Perren, 2002; Chell and Allman, 2001).

A SE cannot claim to be a SE unless the social mission and goal directly addresses a social problem (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Being simultaneously driven by social outcomes and financial sustainability, SEs are required to share and convey their social intentions (Mair and Noboa, 2006). In terms of SE leadership, a key consideration is the impact of social and financial sustainability upon empathy and motivation over time (Kellet et al., 2006). For example, do social motivations diminish within a SE organisation if financial considerations begin to dominate empathetic social aims? In such circumstances, how do the leadership team manage to maintain a level of empathy and yet remain financially stable? The link between the SE, policies, funders and social entrepreneur motivation is crucial (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Entrepreneurial activities have generally been seen to be aligned with profit and loss, yet the concept of SE adds a further complexity; the question of social and/or environmental benefit. SE presents itself as a multidisciplinary social movement (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008), one requiring a review of existing definitions. The current research therefore seeks to reveal and investigate difficulties faced by social entrepreneurs by asking: What are the challenges SE leadership teams face in terms of their pro-social motivations over time?

The emergence of empathy in SE and the way in which it could be potentially utilised by social entrepreneurs and leaders to drive social change appears to be a hugely influential process (Kellet et al., 2006; Goleman et al., 2002; Plutchik, 1987). Empathy is co-created within society and is a lived experience in social interaction. Furthermore, empathy has been found in prior research to have: "…deep evolutionary, biochemical and neurological underpinnings" (Decety and Svetlova, 2011:1). As a result, the role of empathy is significant in leadership. Research into social work organisations and empathy has demonstrated the positive effects of empathy between social workers and clients (Gerdes and Segal, 2011). The multidimensional perspective of empathy across disciplines discussed earlier defines empathy as an emotion and an intention (Hourdequin, 2012), as well as an ability to disconnect (Carre et al., 2013). Gerdes and Segal (2011) demonstrated that this three dimensional definition of empathy can be aligned with and better serve, social work practitioners. For example, affective sharing, self and other awareness as well as an awareness to avoid burn out align themselves with emotion, intention and the ability to disconnect.

Traditional business literature suggests enterprises have distinctive features based on whether they are established and run by a male or a female (Brush, 1992). Men are mainly characterised by a 'transactional' style of leadership (where results equal rewards thus exercising control); whereas women have been found to possess an ability in transformational leadership (Bruni et al., 2004).

Research suggests that the female attitude to management is to build trust by sharing power for collective ends rather than individual ends (Rosener, 1990), which is aligned with SE (linking individual and collective aims). The ability to work for collective ends suggests motivation stems from internal and external sources. This provides insight into women's attitudes and motivations; owing to the challenges women face accessing external finance and a bigger share of the entrepreneurial market (Marlow et al., 2009), women have been pushed to develop new strategies to work (Bruni et al., 2004). As a result, research suggests women's motivations to set up SE may be related to empathising and recognising an imbalance in society; a current imbalance women share with men in the entrepreneurial (and related financial) arena (Bruni et al., 2004). In entrepreneurial literature women are largely associated with the family and the caring spheres, suggesting their role as more socially rather than business orientated (Teasdale et al., 2011). Pro-social behaviour perceived as more naturally exhibited by women is much more in fitting with SE and related social success (Themudo, 2009). There is emerging interest into the diversity of women's experiences and perceived traditional feminine character traits exhibited potentially by both men and women that can be utilised in a SE setting (Patterson et al., 2012). As a result, a greater understanding can be gained regarding the rich diversity of motivations behind social entrepreneurs' activities. Whilst the topic of gender differences in social entrepreneurship is of current debate and importance, it falls outside of the scope of the current research, which examines the potential role of empathy as a motivation in SE.

It is suggested that in order for a SE to identify and address a social problem, the social entrepreneur may feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE (the ability to imagine someone else's situation as if it were one's own). This suggests that the SE engages with a complex range of motivations in order to achieve social and financial results. The link and influence of empathy in SE will be discussed further below.

2.8. Empathy and social enterprise

The two concepts of 'social' and 'enterprise' are often described as conflicting (Paton, 2003; Pearce 2003; Cho, 2006; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Members of the SE seek to fulfil a social mission by applying entrepreneurial skills in order to achieve financial sustainability for the SE (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman, 2009). Whilst the term 'social' adds complexity when trying to integrate the concepts of 'social' and 'entrepreneur', the concept of 'social' also provides the link between the role of empathy and SE. The reported conflict between the concepts of 'social' and 'enterprise' (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008) stems from the complex role that a SE must address in order to be successful. The current research suggests that in order for the SE to identify and address a social problem, the management and leadership team members of the SE must feel some level of

empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE. This proposition suggests a strong association between empathy as motivation and the SE mission. The current research suggests that in further defining and engaging with empathy, SEs can foster successful links with policy-makers, beneficiaries and workers. Empathy can affect job satisfaction and OB as well as helping to fulfil a social mission. In turn empathy promotes a new way of leadership as transparent and authentic. It is argued that engaging with further research on empathy improves the understanding of SE, which in turn helps build just and sustainable social structures and organisations (Gerdes et al., 2010). The current research will make an original contribution by exploring the idea that empathy is a pivotal and crucial concept in motivating individuals to collaborate in order to create welcomed social change within the beneficiary community.

The need to satisfy the 'double and/or triple bottom line' (financial, social and/or environmental) is characteristic of the SE sector as SEs seek to direct contributions towards the beneficiary category as well as maintaining financial viability (Gui, 1991). The current research suggests that empathy is related to SE because it is perceived as motivation to action (Hourdequin, 2012). Empathy is understood as a connecting mechanism that draws together collective aims and intentions whilst fostering trust relationships. For example, a key difference between a social entrepreneur and an entrepreneur is that a social entrepreneur aspires to reach financial sustainability in order to fulfil a social mission (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008*; please refer to chapter three for a detailed discussion defining SE). The social mission on the other hand, is the key motivation and purpose of a SE (Parkinson et al., 2008) and empathetic ability is shown to aid social cohesion. Schumpeter's (1934) early account of economic sociology provides support for SE motivation stemming from both individualistic and collective agendas. The relationship between the individual and the collective is perceived as a crucial element in his concept of economic change and the social entrepreneur is the leader of this change (Schumpeter, 1934; Festre and Garrouste, 2008). In contrast, an entrepreneur seeks profit for themselves and/or shareholders, and does not necessarily pursue any social mission (Jennings, Perren and Carter, 2005; Parkinson et al., 2008). SE adopts a collective approach to concern for society through its social mission rather than focusing upon the individual in society (Hall, Miller and Millar, 2012). Empathy emerges as inextricably linked to SE through its ability to motivate collective and social agendas.

It is the concern with the social mission that posits empathy as a potential key component and motivation in SE formation, sustainability and development. Consideration of various perspectives from the viewpoint of employees, trustees and beneficiaries is beneficial to SE success given that SEs need to successfully satisfy financial, social and/or environmental aims. The study of empathy offers valuable contribution into how organisations are managed, as the SE potential beneficiaries do not

only include those directly affected in their mission but the greater social and environmental impact is of concern (Pavlovich et al., 2012). Literature suggests empathy plays an instrumental role in making communities cooperative and sustainable as empathy enables people to connect with one another (Pavlovich et al., 2012). This notion of human connection has important contribution for SE success not only in the formation stage but also over time. It is argued that empathy with SE beneficiaries aids the development of SEs as human flourishing is promoted (Pavlovich et al., 2012). In sharing perspectives and striving for joint goals, the boundaries between self and other become blurred within SE to the extent that individual social problems become a collective problem.

SE is fast becoming a topic of great interest given its commitment to developing initiatives to address social problems. SE is also seen as key in helping regenerate deprived areas of the United Kingdom (UK) (Mair, 2006; Haugh, 2005; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). However 'SE' as a concept is not necessarily a completely new idea. SEs have always existed in one form or another, for example, Florence Nightingale who fought to better hospital conditions can be considered as an early social entrepreneur (Roberts and Woods, 2005; Bacq and Janssen, 2011). Prior research in the field of SE largely focused on the margins of income distribution as a differentiating factor between a SE and a non-SE. For example, if an organisation gave a certain amount of its income to social interest, then it could be labelled as a SE (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). More recently however, interest in a socially embedded understanding of SE and the 'social entrepreneur' is emerging (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008).

2.9. Summary

The term 'SE' has been associated with a host of proposed definitions from a charitable organisation concerned with supplying public/social services (Di Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009) to a business with a social conscience (Harding, 2010). What emerges is that a SE seeks to address social and/or environmental problems by either restoring social/environmental balance or resolving social/environmental ills (Smith and Stevens, 2010; Maclean, Harvey and Gordon, 2012). This chapter has explored the potential role of empathy in SE; its manifestation and its potential change over time. In so doing, the emergence of empathy across multi-disciplinary fields offers a strong link in enabling a social entrepreneur to establish that a social ill exists and needs addressing. Empathy is a deeply rooted social phenomenon, connected and experienced in everyday social life: "Empathy is one individual feeling the inner experience of another" (Gerdes et al., 2010:2328). The link of empathy to SE emerges as under-researched. Empathy surfaces as a highly interesting social phenomenon potentially linked to SE motivation subject to further enquiry.

3. Literature review: Social enterprise

3.1. Introduction

Schumpeter's (1934) early account of economic sociology provides support for SE motivation stemming from both individualistic and collective agendas. The relationship between the individual and the collective is perceived as a crucial element in his concept of economic change, and the social entrepreneur is the leader of this change (Schumpeter, 1934; Festre and Garrouste, 2008). In contrast, a commercial or traditional entrepreneur seeks profit for themselves and/or shareholders, and does not necessarily pursue any social mission (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). This has been the dominant perception and philosophy of entrepreneurship; that of capitalism and free market economics (Jennings, Perren and Carter, 2005; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). SE however, adopts a collective approach to concern for society through the significance of its social mission rather than focusing upon the individual gains (Hall, Miller and Millar, 2012). It is the importance of the social mission that differentiates a SE from a non-SE (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Haugh, 2006; Amin, Cameron and Hudson, 2002). Prior research also suggests SEs' impact changes over time (Maclean, Harvey, and Gordon, 2012). SE as an interdisciplinary field transpires as a complex organisation as it engages with both social and economic objectives.

This chapter will consider various assumptions and narratives, as well as the contested "new-ness" of SE (Dey and Steyaert, 2012:101) as an interdisciplinary field. The following sections within this chapter (on historical and European contexts, financing SE, management, leadership and ethics) all contribute to forming a clearer understanding of the SE narrative. This chapter highlights conceptual, definitional and political challenges facing SE discourse and research. The aforementioned sections will be examined in order to provide a strong rationale for researching SE motivation and the role of empathy which remains under-researched in SE. Finally, this chapter will end with a focus on highlighting the intended contribution of this research. It is argued that an examination of the role of empathy in SE will provide an opportunity to explore new possibilities within SE formation and operation not yet realised (Dey and Steyaert, 2010). The care for the collective social agenda or mission, by way of empathetic concern provides a link and a motivation, and offers a contribution to the understanding of SE stemming from individual and collective objectives.

3.2. Defining social enterprise

The term 'SE' has over the years attracted a range of proposed definitions from a voluntary organisation concerned with supplying public/social services (Di Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009) to a business with a social conscience (Harding, 2010). What emerges from these discourses is that SEs seek to address social problems by identifying and attending to social ills (Maclean, Harvey and Gordon, 2012; Smith and Stevens, 2010). Prior research suggests social entrepreneurship has to an extent, become reliant on assumptions relating to the nature of the social entrepreneur as a heroic or ideological figure (Dey and Steyaert, 2012). This perception of the social entrepreneur as 'heroic' highlights a risk that SE and related discourses pertaining to SE may become dependent on myths and unexamined premises (Cook, Dodds and Mitchell, 2003). This chapter on SE is used by the researcher to explore, examine and critique such assumptions, while suggesting the importance of a collective social awareness linked to empathy in SE. Within this section it is suggested that further research is needed to explore the relationship between the nature of SE (to include the social entrepreneur(s), external stakeholders, SE employees and beneficiaries) and reality, in terms of the day-to-day organisational operations of the SE.

An understanding of the term SE varies both conceptually and practically across countries and even geographically within the same country (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Kerlin, 2009; Defourny, 2001). In European countries, the development of SEs has frequently been linked to the progress of public policies (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). A country's socio-economic context is often reflected in the way SEs are financed, and this is a significant indicator of the very conception of a SE (Teasdale, 2011). The socio-economic context accounts for the various approaches to understanding and defining what SE is depending on the context within which SEs form and operate. The aims and objectives of SE activity also differ from country to country as SEs are set up to advance or cultivate social and/or environmental development (Defourny and Nyssens, 2006; Haugh, 2005). SE, social entrepreneurship and social innovation signify different meanings for different people across disciplines and countries (Galera and Borzaga, 2009). Social entrepreneurship is linked to social innovation as a way of fulfilling social objectives or goals and has *opportunity* as a core focus (Thompson, 2008). Social entrepreneurship refers to processes and actions taken to discover innovative ideas in order to recognise and drive a SE (Chell, Nicolopoulou, Karatas-Ozkan, 2010). In addition, many SEs pursue social innovation in order to maintain sustainable development (Luke and Chu, 2013). Social entrepreneurship is often understood as including a collaborative process that helps to maintain relationships in order to access sources of opportunity, pursue social innovation and funding (Chell et al., 2010; Di Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009). Given that social entrepreneurship and social innovation is often context and country specific, there is much conceptual

confusion surrounding SE literature as it embraces varying and often competing discourses (Luke and Chu, 2013; Kerlin, 2010). Even with growing interest in the SE field (Roper and Cheney, 2005; Peattie and Morley, 2008; Galera and Borzaga, 2009; Denny and Seddon, 2014), the practice of social entrepreneurship is ahead of the research needed to explain, define and conceptualise it (Howorth and Parkinson, 2008; Johnson, 2000).

The concept of SE is the subject of increasing discussion and analysis around the world (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; McBreaty, 2007; Robinson and Hockerts, 2006; Borzaga and Defourny, 2001). However, the concept of SE varies with some areas of higher understanding and other areas of limited understanding of SE (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Nicholls, 2006). In the European landscape, the term: SE emerged in the 1990s as it became acknowledged that: "Entrepreneurial dynamics (were) at the heart of the third sector" (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010:232; Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). With the primary aim of SE identified as a reaction to social and/or environmental needs not being sustained or met in some instances, SEs were seen as an answer to solving complex social problems. As a result, SE has become often described as a form of 'social economy' in European contexts (Evers and Laville, 2004; Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

The field of SE is of growing interest in academic research as well as at the practical level of policy-makers and field specialists (Teasdale, 2011). The commonly used phrases of "doing good" (i.e. social good) and "doing well" (i.e. financial success) are often linked to SE and underpin the associated notion of the multi-bottom line (Dey and Steyaert, 2010:91). Within SE literature, there are discourses relating to the social and economic spheres often emphasising the importance of one perspective over the other (social over economic and vice versa) (Adams, 2008; Edwards, 2008). Narratives surrounding SE include links to hybridity, double-bottom line and/or multi-bottom line all of which refer to SE as both an economic force and in support of social change (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Dey, 2006). This thesis shall refer to the challenges and interweaving of social and economic forces at play within SE as: 'multi-bottom line'. Whilst the concepts of "doing well" and "doing good" contribute to an understanding of the multi-bottom line, the narrative does not explain the surrounding tension in SE policy, research and practice (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). SE is generally understood as a business with an aim to alleviate social problems or to drive social change (Mair and Marti, 2006). However, as this chapter will explore, the meaning of SE varies as the assumed balance between the social and the economic may be more problematic upon further investigation (Herrieux, Gedajloric and Turcotte, 2010; Ball, 2008).

A form of "re-search" is suggested (Dey and Steyaert, 2010:101) to re-assess and re-examine what may have been missed within SE research, related literature and definition. The current research

suggests an examination of the role of empathy in SE as a motivation to action may present such an opportunity (to 're-search' SE). The researcher suggests it may be beneficial to re-visit definitions of SE to look again at the relationship between the social and the economic. Entrepreneurial abilities have been linked to the conception of SE however, there has been an over-reliance on business and management discourse where the term 'entrepreneur' and 'enterprise' originated (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Pearce, 2003). There is a lack of research into ideological, philosophical and social discourses that are arguably central to SE motivation, formation and overall mission (Cho, 2006; Perrini and Vurro, 2006). In addition, there has been a deficit of literature examining why social entrepreneurs engage with SE including their motivation around social change and how SE organisations manage economic and social tensions inherent to SE (Perrini and Vurro, 2006; Mair and Marti, 2006; Paton, 2003).

3.2.1 The context of social enterprise

The management of a SE and the context within which SE evolves are recognised as two important aspects of any organisation (Moreau and Mertens, 2013), and contribute to its focus and related definition. In assessing both the earned-income school of thought and social innovation perspective, the European research network EMES (Emergence des Entreprises Sociales, 2015) provides a more inductive research proposal of the conception of SE formation and definition (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). Earned-income school of thought refers to SE as mainly depending on market opportunities and resources through earned-income business activity in order to produce profit in support of its social mission (Defourney and Nyssens, 2010; Kerlin, 2006). However this conception of earned-income school of thought is not the only shared perspective. For example, the social innovation perspective emphasises that social innovation is at the centre of SE and innovative ideas are initiated and led by the social entrepreneur. The earned-income school of thought considers economic risk closely linked to SE activity (SE Alliance, 2015), whereas the social innovation perspective suggests the social mission is central to SE work. A research project financed by the European Commission that included researchers from fifteen countries and spanned five years (1996-2000), sought to identify illuminating features of SE and entrepreneurial activity within the social economy. Table 3.1 shows the four economic and entrepreneurial principles, and four social principles that emerged.

Table 3.1. Socio-economic rationale for SE (adapted from Defourny and Nyssens, 2010)

Economic or entrepreneurial principles	
1	Continuous activity to produce goods or support services
2	High degree of autonomy
3	A substantial amount of economic risk
4	Minimum amount of paid work
Social principles	
1	Explicit aim to benefit community
2	Enterprise created by citizens
3	Decision-making capability not centred on financial ownership
4	High level of participation and limited financial or profit allocation

The EMES study summarised in Table 3.1 above highlights the underlying socio-economic rationale for SE. Key findings of the EMES study demonstrate that SEs organise various resources (both market and non-market resources) in order to identify, initiate and sustain their social mission (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). Results from the study (as listed in Table 3.1) emphasise how SEs combine various principles; both economic and social, in an effective way to achieve social objectives and financial needs. The social aims and economic risks work in synchronisation rather than as competing forces (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Kerlin, 2010; Borzaga and Defourny, 2001). Given the complex ambition of SE in tackling both social and economic aims, the management of such an enterprise requires the innovative creation of resources to initiate both the economic and social specificities on an internal organisational level as well as on an external level (Moreau and Mertens, 2013; Davister, 2006). SE aims are complex within the entrepreneurial landscape (Moreau and Mertens, 2013). As a result, it is beneficial to look to the historical context of the emergence of SE and development over time.

3.2.2. Definitions from Civil Society

Academically, SE research and related literature has gained growing attention both in educational settings and among social entrepreneurs (O'Connor, 2006). Literature often portrays SE as a utopian ideal by suggesting that it emerged as a new phenomenon though it has been part of UK history for hundreds of years (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Yunus, 2006; Mair and Marti, 2006; Nicholls, 2006). However, as previously mentioned, a large amount of SEs emerged from and within civil society (Kerlin, 2010). In the UK SEs, charities and voluntary organisations are the responsibility of Office for Civil Society and Innovation (OCS) in the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) (The

National Council for Voluntary Organisations[NCVO], 2016). SE moved to the OCS from the Office of the Third Sector (OTS) in 2010 and it is the role of the OCS to support SEs and gain additional resources for the sector (Civil Society, 2015). It is suggested that SE emerged as a civil society response to unemployment and this response can be understood further given the various SE work-integration schemes that are in existence (Kerlin, 2010; Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014, Hazenberg, 2012). SE and social entrepreneurship are related to the dynamics of social innovation (Gawell, 2013) as SE organisations seek to resolve various challenges in society. The challenge for SE is to combine the individual and collective agenda, given that there is a focus on both innovation (individual actors and social entrepreneurship) as well as economic developments (Schumpeter, 1934) within civil society.

The commonly used UK government definition for SEs, or those businesses that consider themselves to be SEs is a: "Business with primarily social or environmental objectives, whose surpluses are principally re-invested for that purpose in the business or community, rather than mainly being paid to shareholders and owners" (NCVO, 2012). However, literature suggests government maintain a loose definition of SE in order to allow for a greater number of SE forms (Teasdale, 2011). As a result, SE as a field remains accommodating to various definitions and is not captured exclusively by a single actor (Teasdale, 2011; Department for Trade and Industry [DTI], 2002). As detailed in Figure 3.1, while broad definitions and conceptions exist, there is less agreement about how SE organisations identify with them. Figure 3.1 shows that a small number of SEs identify with the formal definition used by the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS) as a way of defining their activities. It is suggested that defining SE is problematic because it is difficult to review and measure SE organisational motivations, values and objectives. Whereas profit allocation is easier to measure (for further information see: the BIS Annual Survey of Small Business, 2012). The researcher suggests that definitions around SE values, missions and aims are more problematic given that SEs are often specific to context and place, and therefore the associated mission and motivation is often context-specific (Mair and Marti, 2006).

Figure 3.1. BIS Annual Survey Small Business, 2012 (NCVO, 2015)

While a loosely defined political construct of SE is presented and briefly discussed in order to provide an overview, definitional issues are not the purpose of this chapter or the thesis as a whole. In order to provide further context and definition of SE over time, the following section will consider the multi-bottom line in SE and will examine the debated notion of SE as an "emerging" or "new" field (Dey and Steyaert, 2010:86), by beginning with an exploration of SE through history.

3.3. Historical context of social enterprise development

SEs form to provide economic and social services to its membership body or to the intended beneficiaries. Such organisations that seek to help and drive social change from the bottom-up have existed in various forms throughout history (Fairbairn, 2001). Whilst SEs are involved in a wide variety of activities, their purpose is always linked to solving a social problem (Sastre-Castillo, Peris-Ortiz, Danvila-Del Valle, 2015) and/or creating social value (Dees, 2003; Dees, 1998). The focus of SE differs to traditional business with a greater focus on moral legitimacy given that SEs are pro-socially motivated and socially innovative (Dart, 2004; Grenier, 2002; Leadbeater, 1997). Whilst the term SE has come into popular use, historically co-operatives can be understood as the first forms of

SEs that formed in clusters as a result to economic concerns (Fairbairn, 2001). One of the more notable co-operative groups detailed in history was the Rochdale Pioneers in 1844. The Rochdale Pioneers consisted of twenty-eight workers who opened a small shop in order to share every day, necessary supplies with their local community (Fairbairn, 2001). During the nineteenth century, many workers were being forced into poverty due to the mechanisms of the Industrial Revolution (1760-1840). Many workers could not afford basic goods and as a result, the Rochdale Pioneers formed a co-operative offering basic but high quality goods (Holyoake, 1928). It is argued that the Rochdale co-operative success was based on their social and ideological motivation that stemmed from the bottom-up in terms of forming and making social impact possible from the grassroots level (Stephenson and Mace, 2009). In addition, their wealth of social capital (innovative ideas, relationships and practical hands-on experience) is suggested as pivotal to their noted success (Fairbairns, 2001).

Conceptually, the language surrounding SE is a challenge in academic discourse (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Kerlin, 2006) and on a more practical level, it is not clear how this is understood at the level of practice (Teasdale, 2011). On both sides of the Atlantic, academics began using the term 'SE' during the 1980s (Teasdale, 2011). While the term 'social' in 'SE' was used to define the type of enterprise itself, the term 'enterprise' appeared a more problematic term to unravel. In the United States (US), the term 'enterprise' was originally used as a verb denoting a form of action (Dees, 1998), whereas in Europe 'enterprise' was understood as a noun; as a name referring to the organisation itself (Spear, 2001). As a result, the term 'SE' conveys different meanings in different parts of the world. These conflicting meanings apply to the *act* of SE and also the related missions and aims. It is suggested that a non-definitional account of SE may be presented within the current research through an analytical framework centred on empathy, offering a reflective and open account of SE to emerge.

Based on the comparative analysis of the global emergence of SE research conducted by Kerlin (2009; 2010), a core theme emerged. A key motivating factor linked to the historical development of SE was identified as a reaction to either drained state social programmes or exhausted funding (Kerlin, 2010). The wavering economy of Western Europe also emerged as underpinning the emergence of SE; whilst in Eastern and Central Europe, the decline of communism and resulting space created by the state was seen as a key factor contributing to the emergence of SE (Kerlin, 2010). Within the UK, inadequate funding and public policy initiatives addressing problems faced by some social groups, provided the backdrop for new and emerging entrepreneurial forces in the 1980s and 1990s (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). SE arose as a response to the societal challenges being faced by the third sector during this time. This historical overview of the emergence of SE suggests a strong

link between motivation and social mission, with a focus on the 'social' aspects of the multi-bottom line. For example, Work Integration Social Enterprises (WISEs) that are common in Europe and also in the UK, emphasise integrating people into society and working life (Spear and Bidet, 2005; Teasdale, 2010; Hazenberg, 2012; Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014). Based on international differences, SE is understood as multi-disciplinary with multiple drivers and no agreed conception of it (Dart, 2004). In many ways, the development of social entrepreneurship has been considered at the economic or macro-level (socio-economic level; Schumpeter, 1934) and to some extent at the social and motivation level of social entrepreneurs (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014). However, little research has been dedicated to examine *how* and *why* social entrepreneurship emerges in terms of entrepreneurial motivation in theory (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2001), and how social and entrepreneurial factors are related in practice.

Historically, SEs and co-operatives have arisen in society where groups of people have been disregarded or excluded and as a result, a social mission needs addressing (Stephenson and Mace, 2009). It is suggested that SEs' mission can be empathised with within the context of the social setting and this can provide the motivation needed for action (Hourdequin, 2012). For example, the Rochdale Pioneers formed a co-operative as they were all workers who were affected by poor food standards and poverty as a result of the Industrial Revolution (Fairbairns, 2001; Teasdale, 2011; Kerlin, 2010). The emergence of SE from grassroots level (emerging from the beneficiaries themselves) suggests a strong link between SE mission and entrepreneurial motivation. As the Rochdale Pioneers were all in similar positions (addressing poverty and poor food quality), they came together as a co-operative with a shared social goal in mind that motivated their formation and ultimate success. This relationship between motivation and social mission has been largely overlooked in SE literature. Yet this connection appears crucial to both SE formation and potential success. Empathy has been found to be a pivotal feature in prompting resources in crisis situation (Dutton, Worline, Frost and Lilius, 2006) and a profound contributor to motivating people to cooperate (de Vignemont and Singer, 2006). The notion of an emotional response of empathy motivating action in SE has been neglected, yet the historical roots of SE emergence through co-operative social movements offers support for this concept.

3.3.1 The European context and varying approaches

As previously mentioned in the preceding section, the need to satisfy the 'multi-bottom line' (financial, social and/or environmental) is characteristic of the SE sector as SEs seek to direct contributions towards the beneficiary category, as well as maintaining financial viability (Gui, 1991). The social mission is the key motivation and purpose of a SE (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008), and

research demonstrates empathetic ability aids social cohesion (Gerdes and Segal, 2011). However, the relationship between the individual and the collective varies depending on the international context and consequently on entrepreneurial motivation, and therefore requires further enquiry.

With entrepreneurial dynamics recognised as key in the third sector (Defourny 2001; Defourny and Nyssens, 2010), the background and understanding of third sector economy varies between European contexts and as a result, so do the challenges that SEs face (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). Nicholls and Nyssens (2006) take strong account of the market in their conception of both *how* and *where* SEs are located in relation to government, civil society and local market dynamics (Kerlin, 2010). Esping-Anderson (1999) identified three different and key welfare states and this presents a good foundation by which to consider both the third sector and the beginnings of SE, entrepreneurial dynamics and difference (Salamon el at., 2004). Table 3.2 outlines three types of welfare state based on Esping-Anderson's (1999) typology.

Table 3.2. Three types of welfare states, adapted from Esping-Anderson, 1999 (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010)

Three types of welfare state	Further explanation	Countries with this tradition (some examples)
Liberal or Anglo-Saxon regime	The market is responsible for providing welfare services	UK economy
Socio-democratic regime	Wide spectrum of welfare services organised by the state on a universal basis	Sweden, Norway, Denmark
Conservative or Corporatist	Welfare states concerned with maintaining order and status	Belgium, France, Germany

Table 3.2 outlines different welfare states and offers a link between international context and SE development. As a result, the above figure shows how SE is represented and influenced, and supports the argument that SE as a sector has historical roots, and consequentially is not a completely new phenomenon (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Nicholls and Cho, 2006). SEs are commonly understood as organisations defined by high financial risk given that social entrepreneurship requires an innovative approach to resources needed to bring about social changes and stability (Dees, 1998; Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). It is along these lines that SEs are referred to as an 'enterprise' and less so as an 'organisation' due to the economic risks and third sector competition associated with the sector.

Scarlato (2012) argues that SE is at the centre of the essential issues related to welfare and development. As a result, this section suggests that the history of SE, social awareness and social motivation (welfare and development) are inextricably linked. Social entrepreneurship is defined as an entrepreneurial way of resolving collective social issues (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). This link to the collective social agenda suggests social entrepreneurs may also validate their social endeavours as driven by social need and moral duty (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Paton, 2003), as opposed to a purely economic/profit driven model. SEs have a greater focus on moral legitimacy given they are led by a pro-social agenda. This section on the historical context of SE development has sought to understand SE in the international and historical context arising from the welfare state. It has been argued that the relationship between motivation and SE formation and success can be traced back in history as stemming from the bottom up, and therefore can be seen to have been developed and led by the beneficiaries themselves. This suggests a strong empathetic link between SE and the community within which they operate. The following section will further build on understanding different approaches and schools of thought related to financing SE as another factor that influences the meanings associated with SE (Galera and Borzaga, 2009; Peredo and McLean, 2006).

3.4. Financing social enterprises

Prior research has suggested that SEs use different organisational structures (both in terms of practice and policy), as well as having different aims and values in comparison to private and third sector organisations (Seddon, Hazenberg and Denny, 2014; Dart, 2004). As previously discussed within the welfare dynamics, the European context provides an overview explanation and definition of SE as being central to the issues of welfare and development. However, the way in which SEs are financed also provides a background by which to understand various schools of thought on SE within a given economy. According to the definition of "earned income school" (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010), SEs are characterised as enterprises that work for social ends and therefore seek alternative sources of income (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Kerlin, 2006; as discussed in Section 3.2). As SEs operate within the third sector, they are defined as relying on market resources as a way of financing their enterprise activities in order to produce income to support their social mission (SE Alliance, 2015; Nicholls, 2006). Within the UK context, SEs are first and foremost understood as businesses (Defourny, 2001) however, the viewpoint that SEs are defined by economic risk is not shared by all schools of thought (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). Ashoka2 (2015) for example, argues that the social innovation movement is defined more by the outcomes of social impact and innovations rather than

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[2] Ashoka (www.ashoka.org) is a worldwide network of social entrepreneurs. Ashoka consists of approximately three thousand Ashoka Fellows in seventy countries worldwide and the network researches, supports and connects entrepreneurial ventures on a global scale. Ashoka is dedicated to helping solve social problems.

income (Dees, 1998). As a result, SEs within this context are seen to investigate various types of resources from grants to donations in order to continue and achieve their social missions.

The term 'SE' can also be understood from two different organisational activities; those that are non-profit and those that are for-profit (Teasdale, 2011). For example, in Europe for-profit organisations are defined as providing social goods and/or services and operating within the social sector (Dees, 1998). Whereas non-profit can be a misleading term, as profit is made and is re-invested into the organisational mission (Harding, 2010). Consequently, SEs can be characterised in two ways; as existing solely for a social purpose (non-profit), or by an obligation to generate profit (for social purposes) (Williams, 2007; Teasdale, 2011). Figure 3.2 below shows the influence of social and economic factors in SE organisations. As discussed, schools of thought surrounding SE discourse differ from *earned-income* to *social innovation* school of thought. The below diagram shows four overlapping categories of organisations and in practice each area applies to the organisational structure as well as the external structure and mission (Teasdale, 2010). This diagram also shows the tensions and challenges faced by SEs: that of individual versus collective agenda, and social versus economic pressures (the multi-bottom line).

Figure 3.2. Conceptualising SE organisational forms and discourses (Teasdale, 2010; 2011).
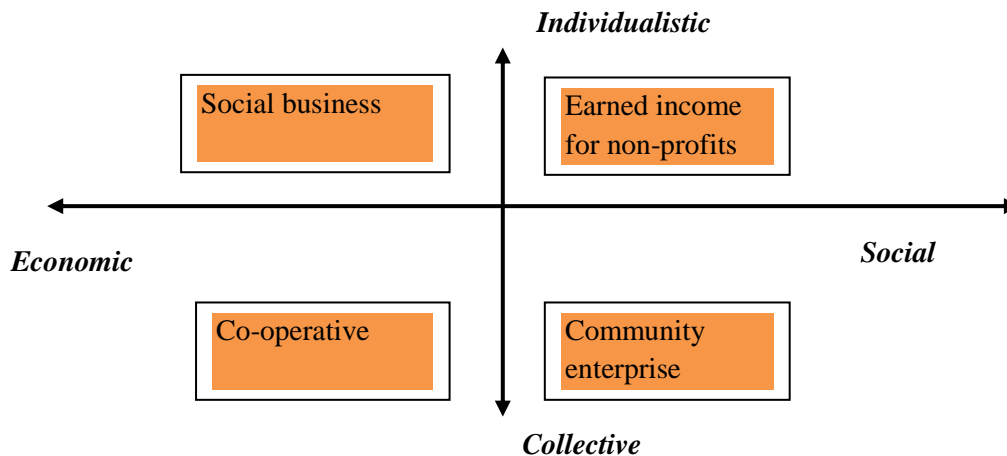
The researcher suggests that in collaborating with all stakeholders the SE nurtures empathy necessary for pursuing the needs of the beneficiaries as well as potentially identifying with them in the first place (Hourdequin, 2012). This multi-stakeholder approach allows SEs to access multiple income streams that include those based in the public, private and third sectors (Campi et al., 2006). With this in mind, the following section shall explore social entrepreneurship and management in order to examine the challenges faced.

3.5. Social enterprise management and leadership

Moreau and Mertens (2013) explore how leadership and management focus needs to be tailored and adaptive in nature, to the individual enterprise context (Schmid, 2006; Mintzberg 1989). Whether considered from an earned-income school of thought, social innovation school of thought, or indeed a more inductive approach as provided by EMES research, for SEs, 'doing business' is different compared to classic private business (Moreau and Mertens, 2013). The difference between SE and traditional business is characterised by the fact that SEs seek to make contributions to social goals whilst maintaining economic viability (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). SEs follow social objectives, fair governance and remain active in varied sectors in order to support their trading activities (Kerlin, 2010). This creates a conflict at the core of the SE's mission by bringing together social goals and fulfilling economic obligations (Moreau and Mertens, 2013; Alter, 2006). This proposes that the nature of SE management is complicated due to the balancing of economic and social obligations.

Referring to scientific management, Taylor (1911:14) suggested: "Better contact with his workmen only comes from a genuine and kindly interest in the welfare of those under him". Various studies in OB have highlighted the significance of the influence of human factors and emotions on worker's productivity (Borkowski, 2009), which in turn are linked to the collective social mission. During the 1930s research into OB gained further recognition, as research by Mills, Fleck and Kozikowski (2013) found positive psychological principles not only helped promote a greater understanding of the motivations of workers, but also linked to organisational success. Management literature has also engaged with positive psychological principles in the workplace, and has associated empathy with a basic social awareness (Goleman et al., 2002). It has been identified that social entrepreneurs work in environments that are liable to change (Baron, 2008) due to social and economic pressures. As a result, the role of social entrepreneurs is multifaceted given that they need to manage the organisation whilst remaining connected to the SE beneficiaries, employees and stakeholders to maximise social impact and overall success. Indeed research suggests that in connecting emotionally with the workforce, leaders can be more successful at managing the wellbeing of their staff (Pescosolido, 2002). This has important implications for SE as they can benefit from emotionally connecting not only with their employees, but also with their intended beneficiaries in order to promote greater social impact and overall success.

SE management holds various challenges, the first being that the term: 'Social Enterprise' is understood by various defining terms internationally and even locally, within a given country (as previously discussed in Section 3.2). For that reason, a challenge for SE leadership and management is to be able to convey the social objective/s in concrete terms against a fast developing sector

(Moreau and Mertens, 2013; Backman et al., 2001). Research conducted by Moreau and Mertens (2013) which included knowledge from ten field experts as well as data from two SE manager interviews, highlighted the tensions inherent within SE. Figure 3.3 developed by Moreau and Mertens (2013) identifies the challenges facing SEs given the multiple goals, resources and stakeholders that SEs engage with.

Figure 3.3. The competence model for the management of SE (Moreau and Mertens, 2013:172)
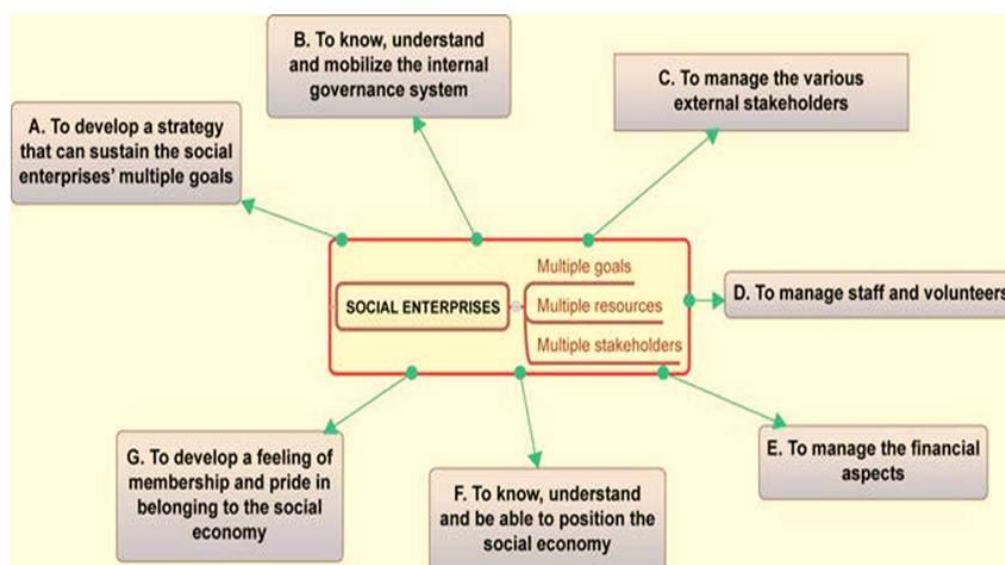
Figure 3.3 above is separated at the centre into three key areas of SE management: goals, resources and stakeholders. The goals of the SE refer to mobilising governance systems, managing the economic and social mission of SE. Resources in the above model include knowledge of the SEs' position within the political and social economy. Finally, the stakeholders group includes developing a sense of membership and managing relationships within the organisation. The multiple goals SEs have to competently manage highlight the strong link SEs need to have with the social mission as well as the wider community in order to develop and maintain relationships. Points C (to manage the various external stakeholders), D (to manage staff and volunteers), and G (to develop a feeling of membership and pride in belonging to the social economy), in the above figure offer a strong link between management goals and emotional connection by way of empathy. The interlinked points in Moreau and Merten's (2013) competence model suggest that inter-personal relationships both inside

and outside of the organisation need to be managed. Kellett, Humphrey and Sleeth's (2006) study found that emotional abilities, with specific reference to empathic abilities, enabled effective leadership. Furthermore, Kellett et al.'s., (2006) study suggested that not only does empathy help with identifying others' emotion and ability to express one's own emotions, but that empathy: "…helps explain a follower's sense of emotional support that in turn sparks creativity and performance in organisations" (Kellett et al., 2006:158). Kellet et al.'s., (2006) research on empathy and leadership provides a direct link between key points in Moreau and Merten's (2013) management of SE model in relation to working with others.

Williams and Nadin's (2011) research found that social entrepreneurs provide two reasons for their activity: social or individualistic. Individual reasons included: starting a new occupation or greater responsibility, and social reasons included helping others. Given the multi-bottom line social entrepreneurs and SE leadership face, the traits of social entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurship are of growing research interest. Van Ryzin, Grossman, DiPadova-Stocks and Bergrund (2009) and Koe Hwee Nga and Shamugananthan (2010) found that social entrepreneurial traits included: collaborative traits, openness and kindness. Furthermore, concern for others and openness to other people's ideas and routines were linked to entrepreneurial traits and were found to be characteristic of those people who share a concern for others and adapt their behaviours accordingly (Sastre-Castillo et al., 2015; Koe Hwee Nga and Shamuganathan 2010; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990). Sastre-Castillo et al.'s., (2015) research on the profile of social entrepreneurs suggest further work could be undertaken to study not only social entrepreneurial intentions in themselves, but also the personal characteristic traits and challenges over time. It is indeed the purpose of this research to examine the social entrepreneurial motivations and leadership within the context of the SE and how these may impact the social mission and the wider community.

Social entrepreneurial traits of openness, concern for others and adaptive natures (Koe Hwee Nga et al., 2010) provide a basis for understanding the roots of SE motivation as stemming from socially-orientated motivation. This conception of SE and related leadership suggests SE formation and development may be guided by the social mission and moral obligation (thus providing a link to moral legitimacy). Thus positioning SE much more socially orientated rather than stemming from managerial and capitalist language (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Social entrepreneurs need to manage and convey the SE mission to various stakeholders and manage relationships, as understanding the surrounding environment is seen as an important skill (Moreau and Mertens, 2013; Sadoul, 2003). Empathy as a leadership quality, along with creativity and opportunism emerge as important in achieving SE goals (Vladek, 1988). The researcher asserts that exploration into the potential role of empathy within SE may add a clearer understanding within the field (of SE) that

endeavours to bring together both the social and the economic aspects of business for both the 'leader' and 'the follower' (Haugh and Kitson, 2007).

With a clear examination of SE definitions, the historical and European context and links to civil society, as well as the role of empathy within management and leadership; the remaining section of this chapter will be used to explore SE and entrepreneurship in relation to empathy. Having provided both theory and explanation for interest in the under-researched area of empathy in SE, the later part of this chapter shall be used to focus on empathy in social entrepreneurship, the importance of relationships within SE and related ethics of social justice

3.6. Social Entrepreneurship

Research defines social entrepreneurship as having an underlying concern for society's wellbeing rather than being purely driven by financial reward (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Thompson, Alvy and Lees, 2000). This suggests economic reward is not the only focus of social entrepreneurial motivation (Santos, 2012). Exploring the role of empathy in SE can offer a reflective account of the field by exploring the notion that in SE: "The consistency between your discourse and your practice has to be stronger" (Moreau and Mertens, 2013:175). This suggests the need for research that remains true to its etymology (Dey and Steyaert, 2010). The two concepts of 'social' and 'enterprise' are often described as conflicting for the social entrepreneur (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Paton, 2003; Pearce 2003; Cho, 2006). It is suggested that the current research can mediate this conflict by exploring the role of empathy as a basic competence of social awareness and a potential motivation towards others in SE (Goleman et al., 2002).

The social entrepreneur seeks to fulfil a social mission by applying entrepreneurial skills in order to achieve financial sustainability for the SE (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman, 2009). Whilst the term 'social' adds complexity when trying to integrate the concepts of 'social' and 'entrepreneur', the concept of 'social' also provides the potential link between the role of empathy and SE. The reported conflict between the concepts of 'social' and 'enterprise' (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008) stems from the multifaceted role that a social entrepreneur must address in order to be successful and the current research suggests that empathy is the concept that mediates this conflict. It is suggested that the entrepreneurial link shared between the leadership team and the beneficiaries can be perceived as a form of social justice and moral duty (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Paton, 2003). This is owing to the notion that the motivations of social entrepreneurs and the leadership team in SE not only potentially affect the intended beneficiaries but also seek to support and improve society as a whole (Dey and Steyaert, 2010; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008).

Huybrechts and Nicholls (2012) identify four drivers of social entrepreneurship. Firstly, they identify that a motivating factor in the growth of social entrepreneurship is due to increased global awareness. For example, due to advancements in technologies, communication enables people to become increasingly aware of both local and international issues. Secondly, another motivator of social entrepreneurship is linked to the aforementioned point in that civil society is more conscious of social and/or environmental needs due to fast developing information technologies. Thirdly, in the remit of new public management, there has been a re-evaluation of definitions of the purpose of the state in supporting private or individual actions for the public good, which has acted as a driver for social entrepreneurship. Lastly, due to the various social and environmental causes that people are increasingly aware of, various organisations pursuing a social mission are forced to seek alternative and new ways of increasing income (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014). Alternative sources of funding and partnerships have also contributed to driving social entrepreneurship and arguably, social innovation (Dart, 2004). Stemming from the human development approach, it is suggested that there may be cross-over between Sen's (1993) work on human capabilities and social entrepreneurial motivation. Capabilities refer to choices made by individuals related to them achieving lives that they value and associate dignity with (Nussbaum, 2003; Sen, 1993). The link between human capabilities and SE suggests a notion of collective capabilities that links collective (or shared) mission as a motivation to action (Hourdequin, 2012).

The adoption of social goals and a social purpose within a business setting highlights a different way of doing business that is inherent to SEs. Engaging with business approaches and market resources to deliver social good, suggests appealing to a different ethical framework, rather than one purely based in financial reward (Moreau and Mertens, 2013). The skills needed to foster cooperative and successful environments require a 'hybridisation' of resources (Henry, 2010) that combine a consistency between discourse and practice of the social and economic aims (Vladek, 1998). This suggests a link to an ethical framework appealing to a greater sense of social justice, as SEs seek to support the development of social structures and socially innovative ideas (Kerlin, 2010). In order for the SE to identify and address a social problem, the current research suggests the social entrepreneur must feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE. This proposition suggests a strong association between empathy as motivation and the SE mission. The current research suggests that in further defining and engaging with empathy, SEs can foster successful links with policy-makers, beneficiaries and workers. Empathy can affect job satisfaction as well as helping to fulfil a social mission (Hourdequin, 2012). In turn empathy promotes a new way of leadership as transparent and authentic (Kellet et al., 2006). It is argued that engaging with further research on empathy improves the understanding of SE, which helps build just and sustainable social structures (Gerdes et al., 2010).

3.7. Social ethics in social enterprise

A concept of justice is understood as an individuals' perception of right and wrong in relation to how they identify themselves within the world and in relation to others (Gorman, 2003; Rachels 2003). Two approaches to social justice have been identified in research; these are a rights-based approach and a care-led approach (Gilligan, 1993; Gorman, 2003). A care-based approach to moral reasoning and related social justice is defined as seeing people inter-connected by complex relationships in a social world. Whereas a rights-based approach to moral reasoning and related social justice is concerned with is what is owed and deserved. A consideration of a rights-based approach is the central focus of 'whose right?'3 (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights [OHCHR], 2006). Ethics of care is a theoretical approach to considering what makes actions and related behaviours right or wrong. Ethics of care does not consider obligation as a key feature in social moral theory, but in contrast ethics of care has a conception of social and moral life that is intricately linked to relationships with significant others. Indeed, as Rachels (2003:168) states: "The ethics of care confirms the priority that we naturally give to our family and friends, and so it seems a more plausible moral conception". Ethics of care and the notion of putting others ahead of our own gain can also be linked to altruism. As discussed previously (in chapter two on empathy) empathy is concerned with the collective good and it is suggested altruistic motivation transcends self-interest (Batson, Batson, Todd, Brummett, Shaw and Aldeguer, 1995) (please see chapter two for a further discussion of empathy and altruism). While other ethical theories emphasise universal standards and impartiality, ethics of care emphasises the importance of local and community relationships.

Social justice for Gilligan (1993:139) is seen as: "…arising from the interplay between self and others, reduced to dependence on others and equated with responsibility to care for them". An ethics of care which is defined by responsibility merges the lines between the individual self and the significant or insignificant other through dependence and obligation (Gorman, 2003). In order for a SE to maintain success it needs to fulfil both 'social' and 'financial' objectives (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). It is suggested that in order for the SE to identify and address a social problem, the social entrepreneur must feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE (the ability to imagine someone else's situation 'as if' it were one's own). This suggests that the successful social entrepreneur engages with a complex range of motivations and ethical considerations linked to empathy (in terms of perspective taking) in order to achieve social and financial results.

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[3] The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (www.ohchr.org) works to extend knowledge and support to human rights monitoring mechanisms within the United Nations system.

Employing Gilligan's (1993) theory, social justice can be viewed in the context of being a series of relationships and networks which are all valuable and interconnected in the world. Gilligan's care-based justice system provides a valuable window of human possibilities (or capabilities) (Sen, 1993). However, what happens to the idea of social justice or SE when our private and public demands conflict? Moreover, in the context of this research: What happens when the SEs' social mission and the economic obligations conflict? Social justice is different to 'justice' because it has a responsibility to social inclusiveness and equality (Gorman, 2003). Therefore, social justice can only be attained and justified on a moral level if the guiding principle is looking at the collective agenda. This provides a link for empathy which is needed to acknowledge the collective agenda in SE (Hourdequin, 2012; Gilligan 1993), and merges the lines between the individual self and the other in civil society. SEs have a strong emphasis on the common or collective good within their social mission. This suggests that achieving the social mission can go in-hand with economic efficiency (Ridley-Duff, 2008), given that SE produce social value (Dufays and Huybrechts, 2014; Di Domenico et al., 2010).

A suggested 'worldview' of humans is that we have physical and emotional needs (Ridley-Duff, 2008; Habermas, 1974). Physically, humans need economic benefits and emotionally, humans need social relationships and a sense of belonging, depending on individual interests and interpretations (Habermas, 1974). Depending on the nature of the enterprise, SEs strengthen their social impact when they integrate socially excluded persons back into society for example, through work integration schemes (Seddon, Hazenberg and Denny, 2014). As a result, they strengthen society as a whole (Cheney, 1999). As Ridley-Duff (2008:302) states: "For a community to survive it has to reproduce itself". Thus SE as a sector emerges as a response to human need. The potential mutual benefits shared between SE work and the related society remains an important area of study (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). It is this reciprocal benefit that comes from striving for collective social goals that suggests empathy plays a pivotal role in motivating SE.

3.8. Conclusion

Empathy is suggested as related to SE because it is perceived as motivation to working with/for others and motivation to create social change (Hourdequin, 2012). Strengthening societal bonds presents a clear link between empathy and SE, as SEs operate with a clear focus on their social and/or environmental mission/s set within a local or wider community. Through an examination of interdisciplinary literature, the review provided within this chapter has established empathetic concern as offering a link and motivation between individual and collective agendas. The researcher has suggested that exploring empathy in SE provides a 're-search' of fundamental concepts and definitions relating to SE. Furthermore, in providing a link between the management of SE and

empathy (as motivating work) the literature review within this chapter has provided a rationale for and highlighted the importance of, researching the role of empathy within SE.

SE is fast becoming a topic of international interest given its commitment to developing initiatives to address social problems. SE is also seen as key in helping regenerate deprived areas of the UK (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008; Mair et al., 2006). However, 'SE' as a concept is not necessarily a completely new idea (Dey and Steyaert, 2012; Dey and Steyaert, 2010) as SEs have historically existed in one form or another (Bacq and Janssen, 2011; Roberts and Woods, 2005; Holyoake, 1928). Prior research in the field of SE largely focused on the margins of income distribution as a differentiating factor between a SE and a non-SE. For example, if an organisation gave an amount of its income to social interest, then it could be labelled as a SE (Bacq and Janssen, 2011), which provided a limited and inaccurate view of SE. More recently however, interest in a socially embedded understanding of SE and the 'social entrepreneur' is emerging (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). Within SE literature 're-search' is appealed to in order to investigate what may have been omitted within the field in order to avoid myths and self-evidences (Dey and Steyaert, 2010). While it can be argued that SE has been socially constructed by various practitioners (Teasdale, 2011); SE definition still remains unattained and instead remains defined by a wide-range of organisational actors (Teasdale, 2011; Simmons, 2008).

In the current research, the researcher has engaged with exploring the motivations of SE (including the social entrepreneur, external stakeholders, beneficiaries and employees) as part of an ethnographic piece of research (that will be discussed in detail in the following chapter). The proposed research aims to contribute to socially orientated policies between the SE, the funders and the structures in place to support socially enterprising work. The current research also aims to contribute to a more natural and socially embedded conception of SE stemming from the notion of 'collective good'. This is proposed by beginning with the conception of SE as a practice encouraged by the objective of solving social and or environmental problems (Brown, 2014) and re-searching this definition through the lens of empathetic enquiry. The current research suggests that when the various stakeholder groups work together and overlap, then transformative social change occurs. This is necessary to the success of the SE and empathy may be crucial to this social phenomenon. It is the role of the current research to investigate the potential role of empathy in SE.

4. Methodology, Ontology and Epistemology

4.1. Introduction

The following chapter will begin with an overview of ontology and epistemology given that how a researcher makes sense of the world fundamentally underpins the chosen research methodology and on-going research focus. Critical Realism (CR) is identified as the most suitable epistemological approach for the current research given that the researcher asserts that while a real world exists, our knowledge and interpretation of it is socially constructed (Bygstad and Munkvold, 2011; Bhaskar, 1998; Archer, 1995). In order to engage with observing, recording and reflecting on the nature of empathy in SE, the researcher conducts a meta-analysis of key words 'empathy' and 'social entrepreneurship' to identify patterns and the most appropriate way to conduct research in the field. A qualitative approach is adopted, with ethnographic research identified as the appropriate method for data collection. Uses and challenges of ethnography are discussed, along with a discussion of empathy measures used in empathy studies to date. The research focus, aims and objectives are considered and are outlined in the methodological overview, and the case study organisation is introduced. Finally, related ethical considerations in the current research are explored in the context of minimising risk or harm to both the researcher and the research participants.

4.2. Ontology and Epistemology

Ontology questions 'what is' in terms of what constitutes reality whereas epistemology considers the forms of knowledge by asking: "What it means to know" as opposed to a mere belief (Gregory, 1987:226). How one understands reality and therefore how one comes to knowledge of it, is inherent in any research. Perception of reality shapes what one pursues as a worthy investigative cause and how one engages with knowing affects a researcher's methodology (Goertz and Mahoney, 2012). Whether the researcher adopts an empirical approach to research claiming for example, that a table is a table because one can see it, touch it. Or, whether the researcher understands the world as constructed and interpreted by shared language and meaning frames the research aim, method and arguably the findings. Research is built upon various foundations containing differing views of reality and knowledge. These views go on to underpin a particular research approach and ultimately a research project. Beliefs about knowledge have at the core different assumptions (paradigms) about the nature of reality and our experience of the world.

Empathy requires another consciousness; the experience of empathy is a concept that we share, one cannot for example, empathise without another person and this can be defined as responsiveness to

another's emotion (Hourdequin, 2012). In light of these considerations, exploration of the various epistemological and ontological perspectives is necessary in order to ascertain which approach is most relevant and valid. In evaluating objective and constructed approaches (and their variants) as a way of understanding and gaining knowledge, this section will consider the role of language in defining and understanding the term 'empathy'. With empathy identified as an emotion, an intention (Hourdequin, 2012), a cognitive awareness through perspective-taking (Carre et al., 2013) and also as a way of connecting people through the process of sharing neuro-pathways (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2011), this section will explore to what extent the world influences the mind and to what extent the world might be the mind's construct (McGinn, 1999). The concept of empathy supports and expands the bottom-up and top-down approach in that empathy can be considered both affective and cognitive (Carre, Stefaniak, D'Ambrosio, Bensalah and Besche-Richard, 2013).

Knowledge stemming from Western philosophy has traditionally been based on three components: a (1) belief that is (2) justified and (3) true (Meeker, 2004). Whilst there is debate around approaches to knowledge depending on the discipline in question and one's personal beliefs, traditionally there has been agreement among epistemologists that two conditions exist while the third pertaining to actual justified knowledge is the more questionable (Meeker, 2004). The two conditions that epistemologists agree upon are: belief and truth, for example: 'Bob believes the bus will be on time tomorrow'. Belief in the bus being on time is the first part of Bob's claim to knowledge and belief in general is considered a necessary pre-condition to knowledge (Moser, Mulder and Trout, 1998). If indeed the bus is on time as Bob anticipates, then this is the truth aspect in the knowledge claim. Based on the components necessary for knowledge, one could conclude Bob had knowledge on the matter. However as one might suspect, the controversial aspect of this example is whether one could really conclude that Bob had true knowledge or whether it was a hopeful guess. In this way, a third condition relating to justification of knowledge is required in order to provide an explanation as to how we make sense of our true beliefs, and ultimately how we claim knowledge (Turri, 2010).

The terms *a priori* and *a posteriori* come from the Latin language and distinguish statements of knowledge. Something that can be known without experience of it is 'a priori', whereas anything that relates to experience is 'a posteriori' (Blackburn, 1996:21). An a priori statement might be 'all dogs are animals'. This statement does not require the researcher to go and find out the answer but one can know it to be true. To say 'all dogs are happy' however requires some investigation and further experience in the world and hence 'all dogs are happy' is an a posteriori statement. The a priori statement 'all dogs are animals' supposes a shared meaning of language of the word: *dog* and *animal* (McGinn, 2004). When it comes to language, considerations in literature arise in terms of meaning and understanding. When using the term 'empathy', how can the accuracy of the shared meaning both

in language and in experience be conveyed and justified? Furthermore, can anything really be known without previous a priori experience of it? Ascertaining where knowledge starts requires exploration beginning with what can be known and believed to be true in the world and whether this is dependent or independent of our consciousness of it.

A concept of truth can be approached in two ways: absolute truth and relative truth. Relative truth is relative to the knower and therefore interpretation of truth may differ from person to person. When speaking of truth in terms of how it relates to knowledge, there are two assumptions at opposite ends of the scale: the dogmatic approach and the sceptical approach. A dogmatic approach to knowledge is one that asserts in reality there are certain things that are known and in this way our concept of truth can be absolute (Sosa and Kim, 2002). Whereas the opposite: 'scepticism' is a view that maintains nothing can really be known and as a result, scepticism dismisses any concept of absolute truth. At most, a sceptic may concede that what constitutes truth is relative to the interpretation of an individual as nothing can actually be known for sure. Along these lines knowledge in terms of a shared knowledge would be considered impossible by a sceptic (Sosa and Kim, 2002). This section has briefly considered truth from one side of the spectrum to the other showing how very different two approaches can be and how our concept of what we can know to be true impacts what we perceive as knowledge.

The critical paradigm maintains realities are socially constructed and that reality is under constant influence (i.e. language is one way that human beings construct reality). The critical paradigm considers that knowledge is not objective but that knowledge is: "…culturally derived, historically situated and influenced by political ideology" (Goertz and Mahoney, 2012:206). In viewing consciousness and potential for knowledge in a social context, the critical paradigm considers an interlinked reality which appears more compatible with the multidimensional aspects of empathy. Empathy is defined in language terms and cannot be pointed to like a table or a chair, therefore a discussion of empathy would not be suited to a purely empirical or objective approach, but requires a consideration of perspective, motivation and sense-making. Realism offers a way of measuring empathy by asserting that empathy is experienced at various levels even if one is not consciously aware of it. Considered in this light, a discussion of empathy would also be suited to a critical approach because language is a construct with meaning built-in, which is always evolving.

4.2.1. Critical Realism

Critical Realism (CR) is identified by the researcher as the suitable epistemological approach for measuring empathy in SE. Empathy is a more complex concept than just a constructed word; its existence is not purely in language form but prior literature explores the notion that empathy is experienced as an emotion, a shared intention (Hourdequin, 2012), a cognitive awareness (Carre et al., 2013) and it aids the conscious feeling of connectedness by reducing barriers between one consciousness and another (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2011). A necessary consideration for a researcher adopting the critical perspective would be that in the task of discovering meaning and reality, the researcher should be careful not to overpower any findings by their own cultural or historical beliefs.

CR does not seek to uncover new laws or structures, but aims to make sense of underpinning mechanisms (Bygstad and Munkvold, 2011). As Figure 4.1 below shows, CR does not investigate the events separate from social structures or mechanism.

Figure 4.1. The layered ontology of Critical Realism and research strategies (Sayer, 1992).
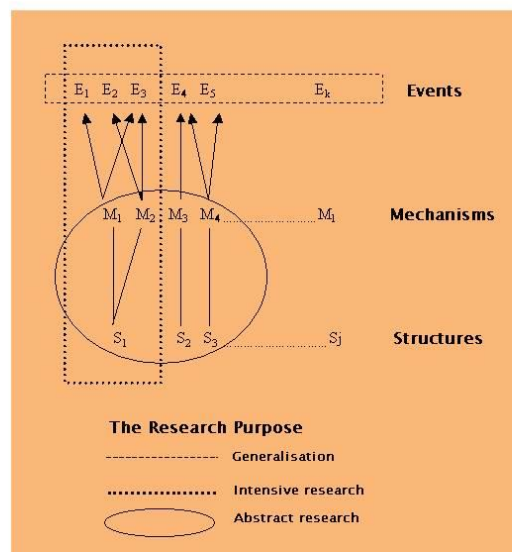
In relation to Figure 4.1 and the current research, the 'events' are labelled as the SE's social mission, the 'mechanisms' are identified as empathy, and the 'structures' are the social structure of the SE, in other words, the various stakeholders. Table 4.1 below outlines this is diagrammatic form.

Table 4.1. Researcher's adaptation of Sayer's (1992) The layered ontology of critical realism and research strategies.

Events	Social Mission
	⬆
Mechanisms	Empathy
	⬆
Structures	SE stakeholders (external stakeholders, leadership, employees and beneficiaries including local community).

The Research Purpose:

‑ ‑ ‑ ‑ ‑ ‑ ‑ = **Research focus**
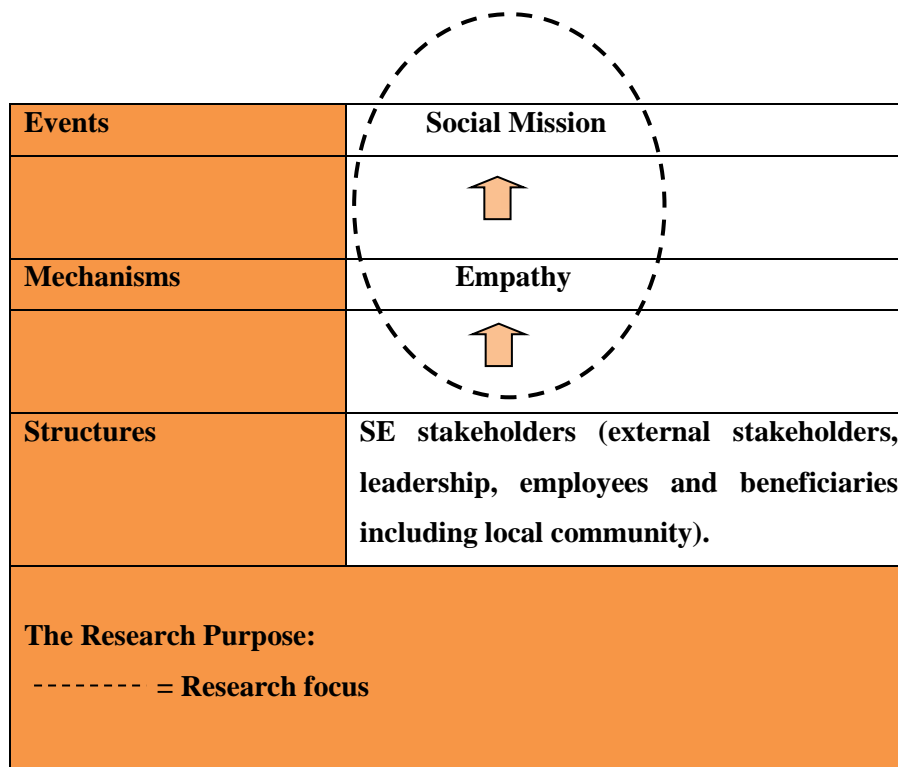
CR arises as an alternative approach to positivist and interpretivist research (Bygstad and Munkvold, 2011; Dobson, 2002). CR combines a positivist or realist approach to the ontological question of 'what is' or 'what exists' in acknowledging that a real world exists. Whilst at the same time suggesting that our knowledge of the real world is socially constructed and open to change (Bygstad and Munkvold, 2011). The underlying assumption of CR is that the world is real and exists autonomous from our knowledge of it being there (Bhaskar, 1998). In terms of the relationship to the current research, the researcher asserts that empathy exists (as supported by cross-disciplinary research; see chapter two for further information). Prior literature suggests empathy with beneficiaries or those in need can help stimulate action (Pavlovich et al., 2012) which could aid the development of SEs. However, the experience of empathy is socially, culturally and historically constructed and as a result, empathy in SE is identified as a noteworthy research gap. CR has been identified as suitable for ethnographic study as centrally, CR emphasises the existence of underlying structures (Rees and Gatenby, 2014; Bhaskar, 1998). Human behaviour is considered as both enabled and limited by social structures (Leca and Naccache 2006). CR is chosen as an appropriate approach for identifying emerging mechanisms that influence human behaviours and shape social relations that in turn produce and transform social structures (Reed 2005; Rees and Gatenby, 2014).

4.3. Research methodologies in empathy and social enterprise

Table 4.2 summarises a meta-analysis of seventy-three journal articles on empathy. The purpose of the meta-analysis is to identify patterns and measures used in empathy research that may be suitable for the current research. The results were obtained from a journal search of Northampton Electronic Library Search ONline (NELSON) under the search term 'empathy'.[4]

Table 4.2. Meta-analysis: 'Empathy' (see Appendix K for full list)

Methodology	Number of journals	Research methods undertaken
Qualitative	3	Video clips, Vignettes.
Quantitative	46	Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI), Classic Game Theory, Questionnaires, Multi-faceted Empathy Test (MET), Visions of Morality Scale (VMS), Basic Empathy Scale (BES).
Mixed Method	10	Video sequencing, observation, interview, journal analysis, semi-structured play session.
Theoretical	12	Review of existing literature, model building.
N/A	2	Non-accessible articles.

The results from the journal meta-analysis highlight that quantitative methods are the most widely used method for measuring empathy (forty-six out of seventy-three journal articles identified chose this method for data collection; please see Appendix P for further discussion of quantitative research methods). The meta-analysis also documents that due to the multi-dimensional nature of empathy (both cognitive and affective) different characteristics of empathy can be assessed by different methods (Yu and Kirk, 2009). As a result, in the majority of the journal articles several empathy measures were used. For example; personality measures, social desirability scale, sympathy taking questionnaire (Jolliffe and Farringdon, 2006) as these engaged with both cognitive and affective aspects of empathy. Jolliffe and Farrington (2006) developed and validated the Basic Empathy Scale (BES) which includes forty items that measure both affective and cognitive empathy. The BES also has validity and application alongside measures such as social desirability, personality and socio-economic status. However, as Jolliffe and Farrington's (2006) research identifies, further research in the form of a longitudinal study is recommended in order to fully examine the validity of the empathy

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[4] This search was further defined by the following search categories: Measuring empathy in Peer Reviewed Journal articles (20,022) / Articles (19,350) / Empathy (7069) / Humans (898) / Social Behaviour (73).

alongside other factors (for example, social, cultural and institutional). As a meta-analysis of empathy highlights, empathy can be measured quantitatively. However, what emerges as crucial for the current research is that the meta-analysis on the search term 'empathy' revealed that where a quantitative approach was used in empathy studies, it was done primarily to compare and contrast data. It is considered that comparing or contrasting data is not the primary aim of the current research, as the topic of empathy in SE is under-researched and therefore the purpose of the research is to highlight significant and interesting data and develop theory on new phenomenon. What the meta-analysis of 'empathy' has highlighted is that prior research suggests further qualitative research on empathy is needed (Jolliffe and Farringdon's, 2006; Gerdes et al., 2010). In the following section, the researcher explores a suitable research method for researching empathy in SE.

Table 4.3 outlines the findings from a meta-analysis of the search term 'Social Enterprise'.5 The researchers' focus during the meta-analysis was to investigate and document the commonly used methodological approach in SE research.

Table 4.3. Meta-analysis: 'Social Enterprise' (see Appendix L for full list)

Methods	Number of Journals	Research methods undertaken
Qualitative	31	Interview (in-depth, semi-structured), rbservation, document analysis, reflection, case study, focus group, ethnography.
Quantitative	9	Questionnaire, model analysis.
Mixed Method	17	Case study and interview, questionnaire and quantitative survey, telephone survey and semi-structured interview.
Theoretical	83	Critical literature review, narratives, identifying research gaps, conceptual framework, critique, review.
N/A	28	Non-accessible articles (abstract not available).

The majority of journal articles identified were purely theoretical. However, out of the one hundred and sixty-eight journal articles identified above, thirty-one engaged with qualitative methods of data collection and a further seventeen used a mixed-method approach. Brown (2014:4) states: "There is no commonly agreed definition of SE, but I provisionally define it as a practice which is motivated by

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5 The search term was further defined by the following search categories: SE in Peer Reviewed Journal articles (28,635), Articles (27,219) / Social Entrepreneurship, SE and Social Entrepreneur (446) / SE (168).

the objective of solving social and/or environmental problems". SE is distinguished from other enterprises due to its focus on social business; for example social entrepreneurship, cooperatives, social franchising and philanthropy (Brown, 2014; please see chapter three for further discussion of SE). Given this focus, research on SE has tended to be inductive in nature, not designed to proving or disproving a theory. As a result, SE fieldwork is recommended as a research approach in order to extract a wide perspective (Hibbert, Hogg and Quinn, 2005).

Given cross-discipline interest in empathy and in SE, a vast range of opportunities have arisen through which to observe, report and analyse both concepts (Gerdes et al., 2010; Hibbert et al., 2005). Multiple constructs or abilities cannot be effectively observed without constant monitoring of an individual phenomenon over longer periods of time (DeVellis, 2003). Therefore the research proposes a longitudinal approach to measuring motivations and behaviour in SE.

4.4. Rationale for a qualitative research method

The current research focuses on exploring the under-researched role of empathy in SE. The research aim is to explore the phenomenon of empathy in a social setting; therefore the methodology needs to involve a suitable measure for observing potential empathy in its various forms (cognitive as well as emotional). In the current research, the methods need to reflect the numerous ways empathy is displayed (see chapter two on empathy for further information) and how empathy may influence and affect how people behave and interact with each other at work (Wealleans, 2003). Empathy is defined as both affective and cognitive as a result, the methods need to take into account people's behaviours and feelings, and how these impact on others in SE. The role of the researcher is to research and recognise what forms meaningful analysis. Behaviours may also be linked in part to hierarchies and given the current research setting in a SE, the researcher needs to pay attention to the bigger picture and external pressures (Wealleans, 2013). When one engages with methods and measurement in everyday life, for example measuring the size of a fence, one knows what methods to engage with and one has a fair idea of the results (i.e. that they will be presented in some comparative, numerical format). In contrast to this, the current research seeks to explore the under-researched phenomenon of empathy in relation to motivations and organisational life in SE and as a result, the methods connected with measuring human behaviour and experience are more complex.

Purely quantitative methods, for example questionnaires, surveys, and laboratory experiments, focus on measuring an outcome or testing a hypothesis. However, the focus of the current research is more exploratory given the under-researched subject area to date. The current research will incorporate a longitudinal approach employing purely qualitative methods. As discussed in section 4.2 the

ontological and epistemological stance will be one of CR. As a result, the current research will consider empathy as socially constructed and under social influence and will therefore explore the potential changing role of empathy in a SE setting over time. Ethnography is the study of people and the method is intended to be used to investigate social and cultural phenomena (Warming, 2011). The following section will carefully consider and evaluate ethnography as a suitable research method.

4.4.1. Introduction to ethnography

Ethnography is the observation and analysis of people and cultures and is linked to social science research (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2006). Ethnography is used to discover and explore cultural phenomena with the aim of understanding the point of view of the research participants from the researcher's standpoint. The term 'ethnography' dates back to the nineteenth century and emerged from the field of anthropology. It is defined as enabling a descriptive and illustrative account of the society and culture to be researched (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2006). For this reason ethnographic research has been used in hard-to-reach places where the ethnographer wants to give a voice to an unrepresented social group, for example children's experiences (Warming, 2011; Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008). The challenge in conducting ethnographic research lies in the researcher observing and accurately reporting on social phenomena, as while proposing their position as unbiased, the researcher is unavoidably involved in the social setting itself (Evans, 2006). Permission for the researcher to conduct ethnographic research is granted by the research participants by allowing the researcher to be present in their field. Yet the validity of the ethnographic research lies with the researcher who is tasked to explore social relations and emergent phenomena in the field, and to participate in a way that allows the most accurate data to emerge (Evans, 2006). The following section will explore ethnography; its uses and challenges, before critically analysing ethnography as a methodological approach by which to measure empathy.

4.4.2. Ethnography: Uses and challenges

Ethnographic study has been categorised by Kirschner (1987) as broadly falling within two fields; the interpretive field and the subjectivist field (Henry, 2012). The interpretivist position acknowledges the social constructed nature of meaning; that in ethnographic study the researcher is the interpreter of the phenomena. The subjectivist position explores the potential of the research participants' emotional accounts, suggesting that knowledge is gained via participants' emotional responses (Henry, 2012) and as a result, is more subjective. Current literature portrays two further and related types of ethnographic researchers; the constructivist: the one who interprets the social phenomena, and the empathiser: the one: "…pursuing good translations" (Beatty, 2005:22). In terms of the current

research, the position of the interpretivist and empathiser seems most suited to exploring affective and cognitive empathy in SE given that empathy is socially constructed and subject to various interpretations. Therefore it is the role of the ethnographer to both accurately interpret the phenomena, aiming to achieve careful translation of the phenomena through rigorous analysis.

One of the challenges an ethnographer faces is the responsible task of making sense of others and maintaining transparency in their analysis. This challenge has been interestingly portrayed by Evans (2006) who suggests that the ethnographer is a novice in a setting where the participants are the cultural and potential social apprentices. The researcher needs to be constantly aware of both cause and effect, whilst continuously reflecting on their position in the social setting. Reflexivity has been identified as an instrumental skill that ethnographers need to possess (Maclean, 2012; Cant and Sharma, 1998). Engaging with reflexive practice is closely related to empathy, which at its core is defined as an interpersonal process and a social skill whereby we consider another person's perspective (Gerdes, Segal and Lietz, 2010). Empathy and reflexivity relate to close relationships and both require the individual to reflect and consider their role among others in a social world. Engaging with reflexivity allows the ethnographic researcher to make sense of the participation required on their behalf in relation to the context of their participants. There are two further related challenges (i.e. trust and power) alongside maintaining reflexivity that can also challenge an ethnographer in the field and they closely relate to how an ethnographer interprets a social phenomenon.

The issue of trust and power is both an ethical and a practical challenge for the ethnographic researcher who pursues an honest account of people and cultures. The dilemma that faces ethnographers is one relating to trust among their participants. For example, how can a researcher learn about people, cultures and perspectives in an accurate and perceptive way, without creating some form of relationship with the participants (Warming, 2011)? This has and continues to challenge researchers that try and ethically portray others' perspectives (Maclean, 2012; Evans, 2006). It is here that the skills of empathy and reflexivity are emphasised (Hollan and Throop, 2011; see section: 4.8 for a further discussion of reflexivity). Given the researcher's need to pursue an accurate account of social phenomena, the role of the ethnographic researcher is to firstly assert their position and empathetic relationship to others. Secondly, the researcher must in a reflexive way determine and continually reflect on their impact on causes and effects on the social phenomena (Warming, 2011; Evans, 2006). In this way, an ethnographic researcher can attempt to gain accurate as opposed to mere staged or desired representation of a social phenomenon by the participants (Warming 2011). Prior literature suggests that the more time that is spent with participants, the more their relationships change. By spending time alongside the research group, prior studies indicate that the participants begin to define and shape the role of the ethnographer (Warming, 2011; Cosaro, 1985). Indeed, as

Maclean (2012:576) states: "Intimacy is a general possibility of human face-to-face relationships, the more so as they are sustained over time".

In order to overcome the challenges facing ethnographers (namely the challenge to make sense of others, to gain participant trust and also to recognise the impact of power relationships in the social setting), the ethnographic researcher can take advantage of several methodological concepts. Concepts such as 'listening', 'giving voice to' and 'participative research' (Warming, 2011:39) enable the researcher to accurately read and represent the social phenomena. As prior research highlights, ethnographic studies take a number of forms and generally involve if not one, then several of the following research tools: participant observation, documentary study, interviews, video-taping and photography (Warming, 2011). This combined with the concepts of accurate representation provides a basis for new and emergent data.

Table 4.5. Meta-analysis: 'Ethnography'.7 (see Appendix N for full list)

Research methods utilised	**Number of journals using the research methods** (Please note, most of the studies utilised more than one type of method per study)
Case study	12 (average number case studies = 14)
Focus group	6
Document analysis	8
Interview	39 (average number of participants interviewed per study = 54)
Observation	41
Field Notes/reflective diary	42
Video/photography	4
Survey	4

The above meta-analysis of fifty-two ethnographic studies provides the researcher with a good overview and understanding of methodological research methods undertaken in ethnographic study. Data extracted from the ethnographic studies listed above identified that the average number of research methods utilised within ethnographic studies is three. Researchers who employed ethnography as part of their qualitative methodology found that ethnography is complemented by various methods including interviews and focus groups (Fahey, 2014). Fahey's (2014) research on

[7] The search term was further defined by the following search categories: Ethnography in Journal Articles (30013)/ Peer reviewed journal articles (19974)/ Ethnography (9024)/ Ethnographic Research (515)/ UK (52).

constructions of femininity found that interviews and focus groups complemented ethnographic data including observations over long periods of time (three weeks of observations at a time). Observation and field notes gained from being in the field and among research participants were used in the majority of studies identified in Table 4.5. As a consequence of being in the field of the research data, researchers report this unique position as beneficial to the overall data collection (Creese and Blackwell, 2012). In addition, ethnographic study allows the researcher to examine linkages and themes in research investigation which may otherwise be more difficult to access. For example, Creese and Blackwell's (2012) ethnographic research on linguistic practices and identities in England highlighted the importance of working with multiple perspectives in the field that deal with sometimes competing points of view.

Research data collected from a sample of ethnographic case studies demonstrates that the length of time over which an ethnographic study takes place varies, ranging from one week (Dixon-Woods, Suokas, Pitchford and Tarrant, 2009) to three or more years (McKenzie, 2013; Medina, Ralphs and Aldridge, 2012). Often ethnographic research is measured by observation hours (Granter, Hyde, Hassard and Mccann, 2013) or data is collected at two different points in time to compare changes in attitudes and working (Hashiguchi, 2010). Multi-site ethnographic research has on occasion been utilised to explore cultural differences across different spaces (Medina, Ralphs, and Aldridge, 2012; Punch, Mcintosh, Emond, 2012; Scamell and Alaszewski, 2012). What multi-site ethnography has highlighted is the importance of location and place when researching inequality and relationships, especially intercultural relationships (McKenzie, 2013). However, the predominant emphasis found within ethnographic research is a focus on utilising various methods of collecting data to support observation hours and field notes (Granter, Hyde, Hassard and Mccann, 2013; Griggs, 2009). Engaging with a number of research methods enables the researcher to consider the wide-range of relationships between narratives, as well as cultural and social meaning production (Gareth, 2010). Awareness between cultural and social forces of influence has particular importance when researching and observing a multi-dimensional term such as empathy, given that people may interpret and understand the term in different ways.

4.4.3. Ethnography and empathy

The concept of empathy in ethnographic research is of growing interest and review in both anthropology and other field-based research disciplines (Henry, 2012). Understanding others' emotional states forms the basis of several ethnographic studies (Henry, 2012; Evans, 2006). The notion of empathy continues to attract discussion given its inextricable link to ethnography and as a result, provides interesting insights into social behaviours (Henry, 2012; Hollan and Throop, 2011).

Responsivity to the experiences of others is crucial in social research especially in ethnography, where the researcher provides a voice to the social phenomenon (Davis, 1980). Empathy defined as enabling people to suspend judgement and in turn creating more interactive and cooperative environments (Pavlovich and Kranhke, 2012) is an essential component in ethnographic research (Henry, 2012). However, whilst empathetic capabilities have been found to be crucial in ethnography, whether the study of empathy itself is suitable to ethnographic research is yet to be fully determined. The below section will explore the use of ethnography in researching empathy in SE.

The problem of empathy in ethnography is linked to the ethnographer's position of being closely linked to the participants; in their surroundings and everyday practices. Empathy may emerge between researcher and participant as research by Pavlovich and Krahnke (2012) documents; empathy dissolves the space between self and others. The ethnographer's level of empathy may potentially surfaces at two levels; firstly, as naturally occurring due to the social situation; and secondly, out of reflexivity and sensitivity in wanting to produce accurate data. This may lead the ethnographer to feel conflicted as to what is best to do (Evans, 2006; see section 4.8 on reflexivity for further information). The problem of empathy however, does not apply only to researching empathy itself, but to all forms of ethnographic research undertaken. Henry (2012) suggests a solution to this problem, stating that the ethnographer may prefer to apply their research to practices and contexts, to avoid becoming unnecessarily conflicted about shared states of mind and subjective emotional recognition. For example, it is recommended ethnographers focus on actual practice (i.e. observable actions or recorded words) and context (i.e. the situation, environment). rather than becoming overwhelmed by the validity of "shared interior states" or "the subjective element of emotions" (Henry, 2012:531). With a focus on practice and context within a SE, the current research suggests ethnography as an effective methodological research tool by which to investigate the potential phenomenon of empathy in SE.

4.5. Research methodology

The current research investigated the potential role of empathy in SE, which has been identified as an under-researched area (see chapter two on empathy and chapter three on SE for further information). The study examined whether or not empathy is experienced and shared by social entrepreneurs, (any) external stakeholders, SE employees and beneficiaries. Furthermore, the current research explored whether empathetic values change over time; due to financial and social pressures on SEs as they pursue a successful 'double' and/or 'triple bottom line' (please see chapter three on SE for further discussion of the 'double' and 'triple bottom line').

The current research is concerned with the SE's social mission but more importantly, with how this social mission is empathised with within the organisation as a whole. Due to this central focus, the researcher's aim was to explore the impact of the social mission and the potential empathy various stakeholders may have related to the social mission, given that empathy is affective and cognitive and also a means of connecting individuals and sharing common goals (Hourdequin, 2012). The identified groups affected by the SEs' social mission were: the senior team including the social entrepreneur, (any) external stakeholders, the employees and the beneficiaries (including the wider community) of the SE. Figure 4.7 outlines the various stakeholder groups and the overlap the social mission may have on diverse groups. The current research suggests that when the various stakeholder groups work together and overlap, then transformative social change occurs that is necessary to the success of the SE, and that empathy may be crucial to this social phenomenon. It is the role of the current research to investigate the potential role of empathy and whether indeed it positively impacts SE success and communication.

Figure 4.2. Focus area of current research
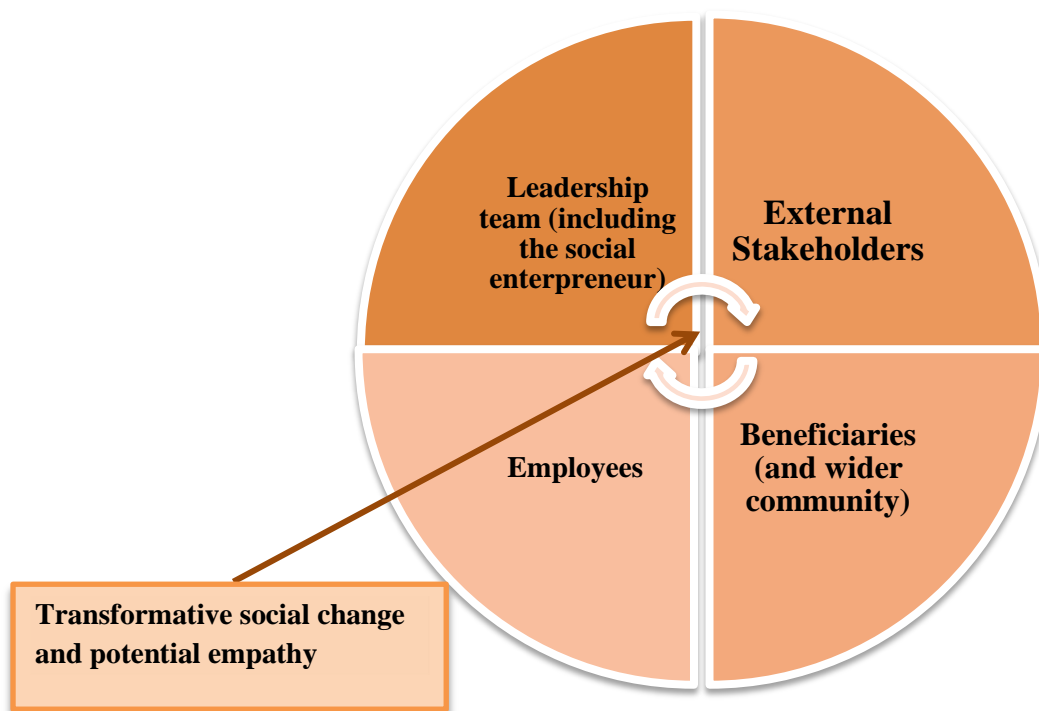
Given that the focus area of the current research is multi-dimensional as it examines relationships, the prior literature review and meta-analysis of SE and empathy provide justification for ethnography as the chosen methodology for the current SE research (see section 4.5 for further information). Meta-analysis of the term 'SE' indicated that qualitative methods are utilised in SE research moreover than

purely quantitative methods (see Figure 4.4 for further information). A meta-analysis of the term 'empathy' illustrated that the majority of research on empathy has favoured quantitative measures for mainly comparison reasons (see Figure 4.4. for further information) and comparisons within the current research are not sought in the first instance (it is suggested future research could seek to compare results from the current study). As a result of prior research review and analysis, the researcher employed a purely cultural , qualitative research approach to the current research. The below section outlines the methods and follows with a breakdown of the research tools used and a rationale for this use.

4.5.1. Methodological overview

Figure 4.3. Methodological Overview
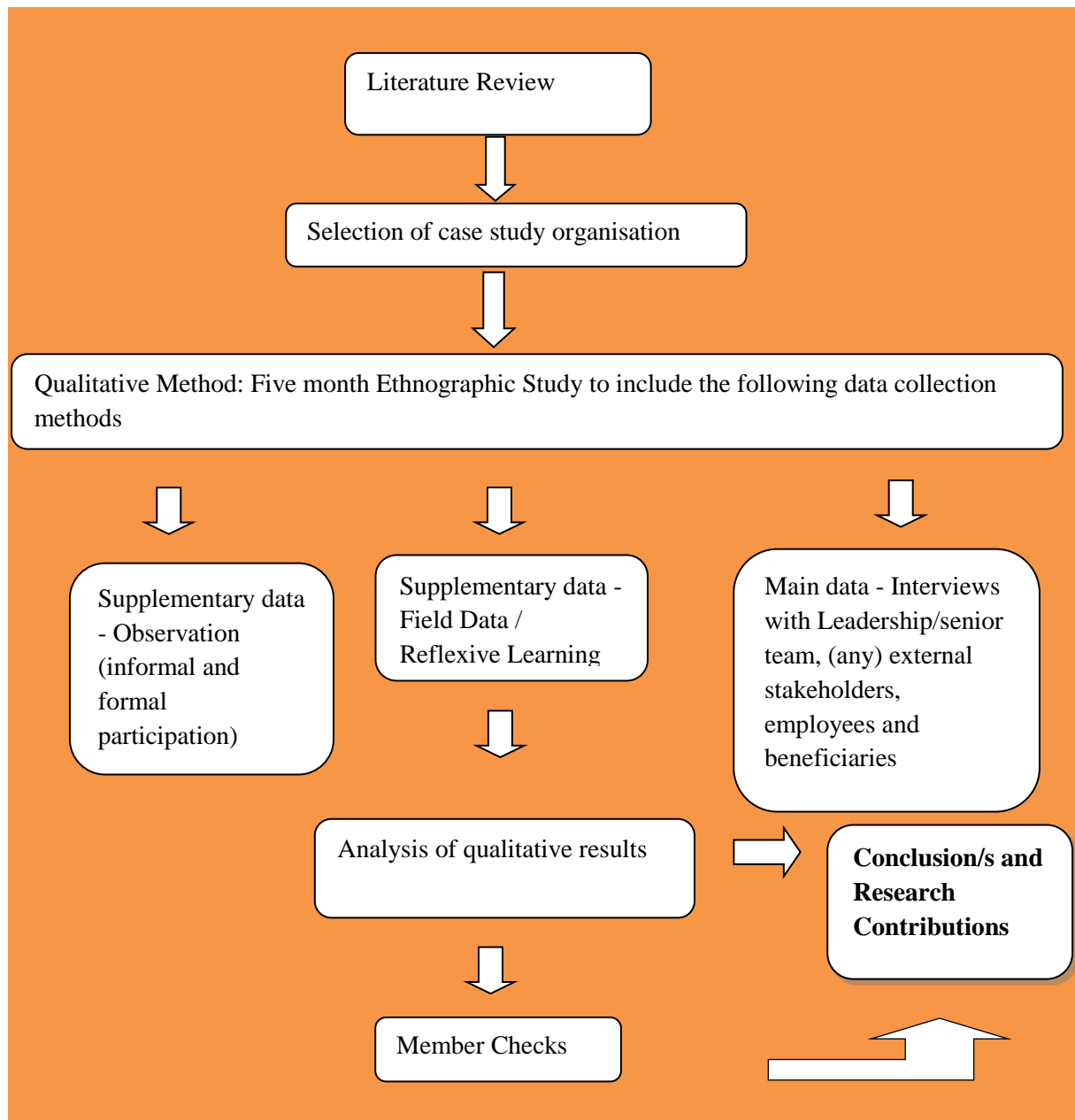
Figure 4.3 represents an overview of the methods chosen for the current research. Given that the focus area (of potential empathy and SE) had been identified as under-researched, the current research began with spending time and selecting a suitable SE as the case study organisation. In collaboration with the chosen SE depending on size, location and social mission, the researcher spent time to determine the most appropriate research tools and method for the longer ethnographic study. The case study selection period also involved close collaboration with the chosen case study organisation before commencing with the field. This involved the researcher becoming familiar with the SE

mission and organisation structure in general. The researcher was based at the Head Office of the chosen SE in order to be become acquainted with the organisational structure. In addition, the researcher conducted several interviews in the first week with various departments for example, the Human Resources, Finance, Logistics, Senior management to gain a greater understanding of the size of the organisation, make contacts and to learn about possible competing bottom lines (for example, it is suggested that those in finance may have a stronger focus of the financial bottom line compared to those recruiting individuals to the organisations or those working at the frontline with beneficiaries). The interviews (see Appendix D: Interview Sheet for further information) were audio recorded and permission for the recording was sought from each interviewee before proceeding. The rationale for recording the interviews was to enable the transcription of the data that then allowed detailed analysis to be undertaken. The researcher also maintained a daily Research Journal (RJ) throughout the fieldwork and reflective notes were written up at the end of each day to ensure accuracy. The interview data is the main data set and the observation and reflexive journal data is supplementary data. At the end of the fieldwork, the qualitative research data was analysed and member checks[8] were made to ensure the transcribed data and any direct quotations used from the interviews were accurate.

Owing to the subjective nature of interpreting other people's thoughts, feelings and actions within an organisational setting, the researcher acknowledged that the analysis must remain thorough and robust. For this reason, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) was chosen as a research method by which to analyse the emergent research data. Discourse is prevalent in organisations; from everyday office talk, board meetings, and written texts (for example, documents, reports, marketing brochures etc.) (Alvesson and Karreman, 2011). As a result, discourse in organisations is seen as an important area of study, with the assumption being: "Language constructs organisational reality, rather than simply reflects it" (Hardy, Lawrence and Grant, 2005:60). As a result, CDA begins with the following assumptions: first, that language is used in various ways and therefore has a variety of consequences; second, that language is constructive and constructed; third, that owing to the first two points, the same phenomenon can be perceived and described in several different ways; fourth, that as a result there will be various versions of accounts. Fifth, that there is no fool-proof way of recognising which account is 'literal' or 'accurate' (this is where the problem of variation faces the researcher but also where Member Checks form a pivotal role); and finally (sixth), the constructive and malleable ways language is used ought to remain a central subject of study (Alvesson and Karreman, 2011; Potter and Wetherell, 1987).

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[8] Member checks involve the researcher feeding back their analysed data to the research participants to check for accuracy, validity and transparency. Member checks in qualitative research are particularly important in order to avoid the subjectivity/bias of the researcher dominating the research data and analysis.

Mid-way through the fieldwork period, the researcher uploaded all individual data sets gathered so far (interview, observations and reflexive learning journal data) into NVIVO (a qualitative data analysis computer software package used for analysing complex and detailed text-based data). The data was then coded into emergent themes using Grounded Theory (GT). GT is an inductive method (as opposed to deductive); where the theory is determined from the data. Developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), GT includes initial open coding of data and Constant Comparative Analysis (CCA) and continued reflexive sensitivity (Connelly, 2013). Used together CDA and GT can emphasise different outcomes and can therefore tackle various research questions (Burck, 2005). Research by Burck (2005) found that using both research methodologies (CDA and GT) together provided rich data and potentially significant contributions. Concurrent data collection and analysis forms the foundation of GT (Connelly, 2013), as this leads to informed questions for later participants, suggestions for alternative participants and ultimately, informs the researcher when saturation[9] has been reached. The rationale for analysing the data collected at the mid-way point (after two months) enabled the researcher to code and analyse emergent findings and themes and also allowed the researcher to reflect on the progress so far. Analysing data mid-way and also on completion of the fieldwork supported the researcher to remain reflective and sensitive to the changing dynamics inherent in ethnography; those of trust, power and the notion of sharing space over time and how that affected the researcher and also the researched.

During the five month, full time fieldwork period, the researcher immersed herself in qualitative research. From the meta-analysis conducted by the researcher prior to beginning fieldwork, the time range for fieldwork in ethnographic studies varies from one week to over three years (please see section 4.5. 'Ethnography: uses and challenges' for further information). As a result, the researcher felt that a period of five months (with the option of ceasing fieldwork should saturation10 be reached) was sufficient time in which to gather research data and gain an adequate understanding of the organisations' mission. During the fieldwork period the researcher participated in the SE organisation for an average of four, and often five days per week. The researcher engaged with the following three methods of data collection: one, observation; the researcher engaged with observation, both formal and informal throughout the fieldwork. Observations ranged from conversations and discussions in meetings, spending time with volunteers and the community informal discussions and behaviours following meetings, as well as the everyday nature of work. The observations were not restricted given that the researcher was engaged with the SE for the five month period, and therefore access to various meetings and social events occurred naturally across several departments. In addition, the

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[9] Saturation is understood as the point where the collection of new data does not shed any further light on the research focus (Glazer and Strauss, 1967).

[10] Qualitative research is on the whole concerned with meaning and not generalisations, therefore as with any research area a diverse participant sample provides diverse opinions and diverse research data (Crouch and Mckenzie, 2006)

current research did not posit a hypothesis; therefore the researcher remained open to numerous observations and interpretations in the field. Two, the researcher collected field data in the form of a reflexive research journal and the field notes were written up at the end of each day. This reflexive Research ournal (RJ) included a written account of the researcher's process of reflexivity (see section 4.8 'Reflexivity' for a further discussion) with a consideration of trust and power dynamics. Third, the researcher conducted in-depth, semi-structured interviews with numerous SE member to include (any) external stakeholders, senior leadership team including the social entrepreneur, the employees, a sample group of beneficiaries and the local community (only a sample of beneficiaries will be interviewed owing to the large number of beneficiaries within the SE). Following completion of the ethnographic study, data from the qualitative methods were analysed and Member Checks were undertaken for confirmatory purposes. The interview data remained the main data set and the reflexive journal and observations were supplementary data sets.

4.5.2. Sampling and participants

The chosen case study organisation had grown from a community charity and handful of volunteers in the early 1980s, to a large scale organisation employing approximately one thousand people. The organisations' aim is to support local people in the community, especially those who are vulnerable and/or with disability, to enable them to travel and engage in/with their local communities. In the early 1990s, the case study organisation began to change as local community contracts were being reduced. As a result, the organisation became a SE and began to compete for commercial contracts in the transport industry in order to continue serving local communities. By becoming a SE, the organisation was able to continue providing vital community transport services in the areas they worked. In 2014/15, the SE's turnover surpassed forty millions pounds. In addition to serving local communities by means of transport (exceeding twenty million passenger trips per year), the organisation also delivers training and educational courses. A focus for the SE is to create community value, not profit for shareholders. The SE's social model does this in three ways: one, profits are reinvested into the local communities to help the most disadvantages; two, the SE strives to create employment and education opportunities for the unemployed; and three, in creating employment opportunities for the long term unemployed, the SE aims to positively impact local economies and strengthen communites. As an organisation, the SE continues to expand by winning commercial contracts, moving into new areas and working on new projects, all to increase their community impact.

The group structure has developed over the last three decades and has merged with other organisations in order to emphasise the importance of communities. The organisation has developed

trading subsidiary companies in order to complete for contracts. Furthermore, the SE often works with other SEs on common projects and they have introduced their SE model in other communities. As a result of their developing group structure and working both in business and in partnership with others while maintaining community driven, the group incorporate a range of legal forms. In terms of governance, the group have an elected board that consists of a maximum of eleven members (all of whom are on a three-year membership). The board members encompass a range of skills from a range of sectors. The organisations' funders are commercial customers, social investors as well as grants-makers. As a result, the group is externally accountable by means of performance monitoring, social impact reporting and delivering operational activity. The organisation's Head Office is in London and they have several offices based in and around London, Yorkshire, the Southwest and the Channel Islands where various services are delivered. The researcher spent time at several locations in and around London and the Southwest over the course of the fieldwork.

Based on the results of a meta-analysis of ethnographic research undertaken prior to beginning fieldwork, the current research included only one SE for the duration of the ethnographic study. As discussed in section 4.5 (Rationale for a qualitative research method), multi-site ethnographic research has on occasion been utilised to explore cultural differences (Medina, Ralphs, and Aldridge, 2012; Punch, Mcintosh, Emond, 2012; Scamell and Alaszewski, 2012). Ethnographic studies that focused on more than one organisation or worked from multiple sites tended to gather data relating to programmes or policies being run at multiple sites. For example, Simmons and Thompson's (2011) research investigated sixteen to eighteen years olds who were working on the Entry to Employment (E2E) programme. Similarly, Troman, Jeffery and Raggl's (2007) study investigated the effects of a single education policy at several primary schools. However, as the current research aimed to explore the role of empathy in SE, the researcher felt that comparison across various other organisations was not necessary. As this current research was an exploratory ethnographic piece of research and did not begin with a hypothesis, multi-site ethnographic study was deemed unnecessary.11 The SE organisation was however, split across various departments and locations therefore this was taken into account in the final analysis. Expanding the scope of the research to include multiple sites and comparing several SE organisations could be a focus of post-doctoral research in this area.

A focus of the current research was the role of empathy in SE, therefore a representation of every member of the SE (the leadership team including the social entrepreneur, (any) external stakeholders, employees and beneficiaries including the local community) were interviewed during the duration of the study. The 'SE: Market Trends' research published by the Cabinet Office (2013) shows that the

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11 The researcher acknowledges that multi-site ethnography exploring the role of empathy in SE (and comparisons to a non-SE) may present interesting findings, however this does not fall within the remit of the current research.

average number of staff employed by a Small and Medium-sized Enterprise (SME) in 2012 was ten. As a result, the number of interviews that took place was twenty-three given that the study included the social entrepreneur, external stakeholders and the local community.

Table 4.6 outlines the four stakeholder groups that the current research will focus on. Throughout the fieldwork the below considerations were taken into account when researching the role of empathy in SE.

Table 4.6. Focus area: Participants' relationship to the organisation

Stakeholder Groups identified	How might empathy be affected?	Overall considerations
1.Leadership Team including the Social Entrepreneur (In the case of the case study organisation the social entrepreneur was acknowledged by many as 'the CEO')	Pressures of the multi-bottom line.	Motivation, the notion of 'spokesperson' of the organisation in interview settings, power, trust, personality, culture, age, socio-economic background, power, ethnicity, commitment to SE, gender.
2.External stakeholders (This would include external funders)	Invested interest.	
3.Employees (This includes the people working part time, on contract and voluntary employees)	Is empathy with the social mission of the SE a motivational factor? Understanding of SE aims and objectives.	
4.Beneficiaries (This includes anyone in the beneficiary category including the local community)	Shared intentions, goals and values.	

4.6. Ethnography in the field

"You arrive, tape recorder in hand, with a grin rigidly planted on your face. You probably realise that you have no idea how your grin is being interpreted, so you stop and nervously attempt a relaxed pose. Then you realise you have no idea how that is being interpreted. Soon you work yourself into the paralysis of the psychiatrist in the strip joint - she knows she can't react, but she knows she can't not react" (Agar 1980:133).

Ethnography takes a mixture of forms depending on the setting and on the focus area/s however, the leading principle of ethnography is the researcher's extended engagement and time spent in the field. Immersion of the researcher in the research setting together with their chosen methods for example interviews, observation and reflexivity for data collection encompasses the richer data that defines the nature of ethnographic practice. There is a growing emphasis on the 'reflexive' aspects of *doing* ethnography given that the experience of the researcher, their culture, motivations and attitudes influence their perception of the setting itself. The position of *the empathiser* emerges as most suited to exploring empathy in SE in the pursuit of "good translations" (Beatty, 2005:22). Ethnographic practices do not test hypotheses or create pre-existing frameworks to be examined in the field but focus on the features of everyday life in order to discover themes and ideas (Hammersley, 1992). Exploring the natural setting in this way enables the researcher to portray the subtleties of organisational culture and motivations and to: "…allow people to see events in new ways (and) to be judged by others in terms of how useful they are" (Hammersley, 1992:15).

The everyday nature of ethnography and the task of the ethnographer is to immerse themselves in the research setting and engage in listening to others whilst displaying themselves as trustworthy, reliable and without judgement. Everyday activities in the field might present themselves as commonplace and routine to others yet the ethnographer's role is to remain aware, considerate and attentive as these events unfold and take place (Hughes and Sharrock, 2002). This immersion in the everydayness of the setting enables a detailed account to emerge, an account that includes a more empathetic understanding of subtle details due to the time spent in the field. Characteristics of ethnographic work include understanding how people work and organise themselves in the day to day (Anderson, Hughes and Sharrock, 1989).

The researcher's experience and understanding of the setting developed over time due to the immersed nature of ethnography. Working alongside participants a minimum of four days a week, for five months during the core office hours (nine am to five pm) meant data was collected gradually both in interview and observation formats, supplemented by a daily reflexive journal. Having worked in

various offices in a diverse range of sectors, the researcher had experience of office dynamics and OB. Furthermore in researching the SE sector there was awareness and consideration on behalf of the researcher about unique challenges that SE organisations might face. However, there were many aspects of how SEs 'work' that was of interest and needed to be explored. Over the course of the fieldwork the researcher attained a more cognisant understanding of SE work, motivations and culture.

Field notes are narrative writings that have been created either in or close to the field therefore field notes are themselves a manner of representation (Atkinson et al., 2002). As a result, field notes themselves are not an inclusive record but a supplementary record of activities observed in the field. Field work has been described as: "…a long process of coming to terms with a culture" (Atkinson et al., 2002:355). As a consequence, most field notes collected during ethnographic work are not readily readable to others, and as Jackson (1990:20) describes field notes are: "…something that can't be readily comprehended by another person". Incorporating field notes into the research writing does to an extent require the researcher to move away from the field setting and towards the field of research, academia and writing. Three ethnographic writing styles have been identified by Van Maanen (1988) as a way to portray field work experiences: realist tales, confessional tales and impressionist tales. Van Maanen (1988) suggests that the completed ethnographic work should to an extent blend and interact with all these writing styles.

> "Brown (1978) argues that explanation relies on interpretative devices such as metaphor and irony. It is through these devices that we attain the 'empathetic understanding' that Weber (1968) sought. Thus a meta-ethnography must seek to translate the images as well as the phenomena" (Noblit and Hare, 1983:11).

Ethnography involves a close collaboration between the researcher and the researched and as a result has been related to being: "…an empathetic research strategy" (Thomas and McDonagh, 2013). Whilst data is collected in the field the researcher's experience and knowledge of the setting grows as well as their empathetic understanding of others. However, as the nature of ethnography requires that the researcher engages and makes connections in the field, the researcher becomes linked and a member of the research setting itself. This creates an additional layer in the research analysis; while analysing the research data the researcher needs to examine their own focus, power and trust concerns.

4.7. Critical Discourse Analysis and Narrative Inquiry

Discourse Analysis (DA) or discourse studies, is a method used to analyse primary or secondary text, sign language and any other methods of meaningful communication. DA focuses on language rooted in its social and cultural context (Coulthard, 1977; Brown and Yule, 1983; van Dijk, 1985). On a practical note, DA considers the various influences in communication with other people. In utilising the approach of DA it is suggested that the researcher should be observant of communication forms, relationships, emotions, norms and roles in the moment of the stated communication (Hymes, 1972). Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a form of analysis that explores the further - often underlying power and trust issues how these are reproduced and used in narrative and discourse. As a result, CDA is more suited to ethnography given the extended time spent in the field whereby observation of power and trust is possible. CDA emerged from the 'Critical linguistics' that were largely based in the UK and Australia towards the latter part of the 1970s (Fowler et al., 1979; Mey, 1985). CDA has also taken from sociolinguistics, including psychology and the social sciences (Birnbaum, 1971; Ibanez and Iniguez, 1997; and Wodak, 1996). CDA has been selected as an appropriate analysis method to combine the real 'voice' of the participants from the transcribed interview recordings and detailed field notes.

Narrative Inquiry (NI) uses field notes such as reflexive journals, diaries, autobiographies and letters as another element of analysis to better understand people and culture and how they create meaning-making in their lives. When analysing narrative, context and setting needs to be taken into account as well as the motivation and purpose of the writer as these build the meaning making for the writer. Atkinson et al. (2002:385) suggests four main reasons for engaging with narrative inquiry as part of ethnography: "Concern with the meaning of experience, voice, human qualities on personal and professional dimensions and research as a story". Given that the researcher's reflexive journal forms part of the data collection methods and provides motivation and meaning-making on behalf of the writer, the researcher selects NI as a form of analysis to take context, setting, motivation and purpose into account on a personal level.

4.8. Ethical Considerations

4.8.1. Permission, Consent and Anonymity

During the course of the fieldwork the researcher had all necessary documentation to identify herself. Given the opportunities for interviews, observations and participation in meetings for example, occurred throughout the fieldwork it was beneficial for the researcher to be alert and available as unplanned occasions presented themselves. Before undertaking the current research permission from the University Ethics Committee was be sought along with permission from the SE, to conduct ethnographic research. Each participant voluntarily decided whether to take part in the research or not, and a lack of participation on behalf of any of the participants was not disclosed to anyone associated with the SE (this was done to ensure that participants did not feel compelled to participate by management or colleagues within the SE). No coercion was used and participants were informed that they may withdraw at any time during the five month fieldwork and following the completion of the fieldwork, participants were emailed individually to thank them for their participation and to notify them of their final right to withdraw. The safety of the researcher and the participant was kept in mind at all times and permission and consent was gained from each participant through a signed consent form at the start of the current research and prior to one-to-one interviews.

A Participant Information Sheet was provided along with a Consent Form; the information sheet provided was written and presented in a format which the participants could understand and the researcher made every effort to ensure the participants felt able to ask questions and seek any clarifications (for example, the researcher allowed time both directly before and after interviews, and gave out her professional email address for any follow up questions). The researcher worked from a hot desk during her time in the field and also travelled to various locations and events, therefore by working/researching alongside her participants the situation provided many opportunities for the researcher to answer any of the participant's questions. A signed copy of consent was required and was kept on file, and at least twenty-four hours was given between providing the information sheet and obtaining consent. Permission was gained from each participant before proceeding with the audio recordings of interviews to ensure they were comfortable with being recorded. The researcher notified the interviewees that they could request a copy of the audio recording and interview transcription for their reference at any time during the fieldwork. Participant information was only seen by the researcher and researchers' Supervisory Team before being anonymised to observe the confidentiality and security of both the individual and the SE organisation.

4.8.2. Care of Participants

The greatest of care was taken whenever interacting and communicating with participants to limit any potential offence or distress (please see section 4.8 for further information on reflexivity). The most appropriate method of collecting data was carefully considered at every stage. For example, when communicating with vulnerable beneficiaries in the local community it was considered more appropriate to make notes rather than request a formal interview, as this would not have been a usual setting for the beneficiary in relation with the SE. The data collection method was agreed in close collaboration with the Supervisory Team, the SE organisation and the Ethics Committee within the researchers' University. The age of the participants was considered and any necessary provisions were made for example, all recruited participants were recruited voluntarily and were over the age of 18. In addition, the researcher undertook a Disclosure and Barring Service Check (DBS, https://www.gov.uk/disclosure-barring-service-check/overview) which enabled the researcher to spend time with the beneficiaries and undertake voluntary work within the SE.

The most appropriate way of approaching the participants was selected in close collaboration with the Supervisory Team and SE organisation. The researcher undertook all interviews and where appropriate, the researcher had an option to request a second researcher to observe proceedings. Audio recordings of the interviews were transcribed by the researcher and the transcriptions were checked and shown to participants for approval, in order to ensure that there was no misinterpretation. Any discrepancies in interpretation were dealt with between the researcher and participant and if any arose, this could be recorded in the researchers' research diary for discussion with the Supervisory Team. Throughout the research no discrepancies arose. The researcher offered her contact details at the start of the current research should any of the participants wish to withdraw or to contact the researcher during the course of the study. A summary of the research along with researcher contact details were provided to all participants at the end of the fieldwork.

4.8.3. Health and Safety

Risk assessment was carried out in the SE organisation, considering any possible repercussions. The physical as well as mental health and safety of the participants was of paramount importance during and after the current research and any necessary provisions were in place to offer support and assistance where needed. For example, follow-up meetings with participants were offered should any questions arise. Vulnerable participants were taken account of, including those with disabilities, and participants' dignity and privacy was preserved given that the utmost care was taken not to disclose any personal details unrelated to the research. The researcher familiarised herself with the physical

premises of the SE, taking her health and safety into account. The chosen premises for interviews were accessible to both participant and researcher. The agreed premises offered a confidential environment, for example, the room used for interviews was not in a busy location where there was risk that information may be overheard. The value and purpose of the research was clearly communicated to the participants.

4.8.4. Data Protection and Storage

Data obtained in hard copy format was stored in a locked cabinet in a locked room at the University. Copies were scanned and emailed directly to the researcher's email address as a back-up. The researcher also offered to make additional copies for any participants should they require copies of their own consent forms. All data obtained in electronic format was stored securely on a University owned, password protected computer and the researchers' password protected portable storage device. Backed up data for example, reflexive daily journal, observation data, transcriptions as well as any audio recordings were stored on a secure password protected hard drive. Data Protection Act (1998) was observed at all times.

4.9. Reflexivity

The researcher acknowledges that reflexivity is a central dimension of ethnographic research (Creese et al., 2012). Volosinov (1973) claimed that reported speech is always a relaying of messages and not objective, value-free and neutral but that speech is "…an active relation of one message to another" (Volosinov, 1973:116). Researchers engaging with ethnographic research and interviews need to remain reflexive and aware that there are lively and sometimes unaccountable dynamics between conversations and context. Various power dynamics and tensions lie within social interactions (Creese et al., 2012; Volosinov, 1973). Owing to potential dynamics and tensions of the ethnographic researcher entering a SE setting, reflexivity on behalf of the researcher is crucial to the research. Central to ethnographic research is the notion of a critical friend to encourage greater reflexivity when undertaking research into sensitive, personal and potentially dynamic-filled areas of work (Brewer and Sparkes, 2011). The researcher maintained a reflexive research journal and sought advice and assistance from the Supervisory Team at regular intervals in the context of a critical friend to ensure the research remained transparent and reflexive. The researcher was also in contact with an external critical friend unrelated to both the SE and the university. The external critical friend was available for consulton should an issue arise for the researcher during the duration of the study; no identifiable information regarding the participants was disclosed at any time. In addition, the maintaining of a

reflexive learning journal enabled the researcher to remain vigilant against any potential biases emerging in terms of misinterpretations (Brewer and Sparkes, 2011).

The importance of a reflexive research journal is of particular importance during the current research given that the researcher was exploring the role of empathy, as empathy itself is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. Ethnographic research by Brewer and Sparkes (2011) suggests that maintaining a reflexive research journal enables researchers to focus on their research interest and allows the researcher to recognise their own changing and growing knowledge on the focus and aim. Keeping a research journal has been compared to the researcher keeping a dialogue with themselves (Valentine, 2007). Brewer and Sparkes (2011) further report that keeping a reflexive research journal throughout the research raises self-awareness, expectation and ultimately shapes communication.

The key role of an ethnographer is to understand others and to ascertain a sense of how the participants are making sense, whilst always reflecting and being aware of one's own social position (Warming, 2011). The challenge in ethnographic research involves on the one part portraying a sense of how the participants are making sense, and how the participants' positions relate to the researcher's own viewpoint. It is the duty of the ethnographer to capture a reflexive and empathetic account and to give voice to the participant group (Warming, 2011; Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008). Inevitably, some accommodation has to be made due to the nature of data collection and analysis in ethnographic research. There has to be as Evans (2006) outlines, a physical as well as emotional consideration: "Knowledge and emotion are inseparably related through complex processes of learning" (Evans, 2006:248). The ethnographer faces a challenge in providing an accurate account of their observation of people and cultures whilst being part of that same group. In this way, an ethnographer may at times be limited in their participation in a social setting (Evans, 2006). The below section will explore reflexivity in the context of the current research and the researchers' motivation.

4.9.1. Research motivation

Empathy has fast developed into a topic of research and examination across various disciplines (Mason and Bartal, 2010). Empathy links various experiences and activities (Jensen and Moran, 2012), including most importantly many aspects of social life (Pavlovich et al., 2012). Evidence suggests that in places of work where people work closely together and rely on that engaged relationship for example, practitioner-to-client work (such as counselling or social work), empathy is critical for effective social work and as a result exploration of empathy is essential for a foundation of all social theory and practice (Gerdes et al., 2010). The researchers' motivation supports the notion that empathy also has a crucial contribution to make in employer-to-employee interactions (Kellet et

al., 2006; Plutchik, 1987) and more importantly for the current research, potentially SE-to-beneficiaries interactions. Social work and socially orientated organisations are arguably some of the most organised displays of empathy given their connection to the communities they work with and their need for social collaboration and as a result, warrant empathy-related research (Gerdes et al., 2010). The importance of empathy has also been recognised in social work practice (Gerdes et al. 2010). Nordgren's (2011) research considered that social pain operates similarly to physical pain suggesting that there may be empathy gaps that need tackling in social suffering. This links empathy to SE given that SEs often work in challenging environments with a goal of bringing about positive social change. The shift from individual concern to collective concern has great implications for social organisations and SE. The research motivation centres on the notion that empathy is becoming identified as centrally located within a number of everyday situations.

4.9.2. Research considerations

Given the researcher's motivation, reflexivity needs to remain of paramount importance throughout the research. Prior research has highlighted the potential research gaps of empathy in SE and its possible contributions: "Social entrepreneurs are seen as operating literally in a different world of meaning, driven by discourses of social meaning and moral duty" (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008:305). However, given the under-researched area of SE and empathy, the researcher needed to maintain a sense of objectivity towards the research to ensure that the researchers' empathy and knowledge of prior research did not overshadow actual research data and analysis. With this in mind, the researcher undertook various steps in the methodological design to ensure that reflexivity and transparency remained at the core of the research. The initial meeting, selection and collaboration with the chosen case study organisation enabled the researcher to explore observation methods and design, as well as the overall focus and positioning of the ethnographic researcher within a SE setting. Throughout the fieldwork the researcher reflected on the qualitative semi-structured interviews to determine their best use throughout the research. The maintaining of a research journal throughout the research process aided the researchers' reflexivity and transparency. It enabled the researcher to reflect on her own views and any potential misinterpretations of others. Support from the Supervisory Team was sought at regular intervals to ensure the use of a critical friend was utilised which added to the research's validity and transparency. All interview data was recorded which provided an audit trail. The interviews were audio recorded given that empathy is both cognitive and affective and the researcher acknowledged that empathy emerged in social interactions and may as a result emerge between the researcher and interviewee. The recordings were only available to the researcher and Supervisory Team in order to support and verify the overall research findings.

4.9.3. A reflection on the first day of fieldwork

I remember the first day I started my fieldwork very clearly. Prior to that first day, several planning meetings had taken place and many emails had gone back and forth with the SE about the logistics of a researcher (me) conducting ethnographic study. My introduction into the organisation was much like any induction into a new workplace that I had experienced in the past. I had met several members of staff beforehand and I was allocated a 'go-to' person in case I had any questions or concerns. The first day in the field felt strangely exciting and familiar like starting a new 'job'. As I was welcomed into Head Office I began to get my bearings and introductions were made; it was clear that most people at Head Office had been expecting me. Later that day I was handed a copy of the email that had been sent out to managers introducing who I was. That first day I was surrounded by approximately twenty people in the open plan office and I had an allocated desk. I had been warmly welcomed into the office and as I was left to settle in I realised that I was a strange new person in that office. For the first time in a new 'work' setting I was not part of anyone's department, team or workload. As much as that seemed odd for me, I wondered how that was odd for them (the SE). As the fieldwork commenced over several months connections were made by spending time alongside participants and as literature supports: relationships form the more they are sustained over time (Maclean, 2012). Over the course of the fieldwork those initial feelings of hesitancy and unfamiliarity faded.

In a chance conversation after a month in the field I had a useful reminder: *"I think some people might still be unsure of what you are actually doing here [laugh] but they all seem to like having you around and you've fitted in"* (RJ, 18.11.15). While I was accepted as a researcher in that setting I was always going to be a person with a slightly odd and undefined role in the field. I reflected on the challenge ethnographers faces in the field; the privileged position of being invited to observe and take part whilst always necessarily being on the outside. This challenge has been interestingly portrayed by Evans (2006) who suggests that the ethnographer is a novice in a setting where the participants are the cultural and potential social apprentices.

> *"It is (a) colleague used to say: you have to keep feeding it (SE), it needs to do stuff and new things and there is something about that here. There is an entrepreneurial culture among people here for social good. ... It is a funny thing SE, it gets under your skin – be careful [laughs]"* (participant 4.18).

4.10. Summary

This chapter has reviewed various ontological and epistemological approaches and selected CR as an appropriate approach for researching the potential role of empathy in SE. A meta-analysis of one hundred and sixty-eight SE journal articles and seventy-three empathy journal articles provided rich data and identified that while SE research favours a qualitative approach, empathy research is primarily quantitative in method when comparisons are sought. Given that the current research focus was identified as under-researched, the researcher recognised that a purely qualitative approach was appropriate in order to provide contextual and meaningful data (Crouch and Mckenzie, 2006). Ethnographic study was critically selected as a suitable method that enabled the research to explore empathy as a social phenomenon. Ethical considerations were taken into account both before and during the fieldwork given the current research involved a close collaboration between the researcher and the researched. Reflexivity and transparency was deemed as crucial especially to ethnographic research, due to the power dynamics and tensions that may be present (Creese et al., 2012; Volosinov, 1973). The methodological chapter has identified that ethnographic study is a significant method for exploring empathy. The use of GT and CDA as research methodologies was selected to provide rich data by which to understand human motivations in terms of cause and effect (Henry, 2012) within a SE.

Table 4.7. Summary of chosen research methodology

Methodology	Chosen Approach
Epistemological stance	Critical realism (CR)
Research design	Qualitative
Research approach	Exploratory - the empathiser (Beatty, 2005)
Research method	Ethnography
Research Tools: Main study	Observation, field data/learning journal and semi-structured interviews
Research Aims	To explore the role of empathy in SE
Research analysis method and tools	Grounded Theory (GT), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Narrative Inquiry (NI), NVIVO software
Research and ethical considerations	Reflexivity, Care of Participants, Health and Safety, Permission, Consent and Anonymity

5. Data analysis and results

5.1. Introduction

The data and discussion presented in this chapter includes a combination of the field work notes (observations and reflexive journal) and transcribed audio recordings of the interviews. Ethnography has been employed in this research in order to examine motivations, attitudes and behaviours in everyday SE (SE). This chapter includes the detail and context surrounding the transcribed interview data and it is complimented by five months of observations and reflexive journal entries from time spent in the field.

It is suggested that CDA was best suited to analyse the transcribed interview data as the real 'voice' of the research and the observation and reflexive journal will provide the empathetic understanding. Research has shown that many ethnographic researchers: "…rely on interviews as a context in which to gather stories" (Atkinson et al., 2002:289).

> *"The concern to balance detailed documentation of events with insights into the meaning of those events is the enduring hallmark of ethnography"* (Fielding 1994:154).

This chapter will explore the notion of empathy in relation to SE. The subsequent sections will first describe what 'success' means for SE and then the discussion will expand on the idea that empathy with the beneficiaries occurs at various levels within the organisation. Firstly, it is suggested that among frontline employees and volunteers empathy is experienced as emotional connection. The ability to be affected by another highlights the emotional connection shared among humans. This connectedness begins early in life as dependency forms part of survival (de Waal, 2008). In addition, emotional understanding enables one to imagine one's own feelings as representational of how others may also feel (Harris, 1989). Secondly, it is proposed that at senior leadership, management and trustee level (termed the 'senior team' in this chapter); empathy with beneficiaries emerges as cognitive empathy. Cognitive empathy, whilst critically tied to the complete definition of empathy, is a consequent occurrence to an emotional feeling or response. Cognitive empathy is understood as sharing or more accurately the understanding of the mental states of others (Carre et al., 2013). Social comparison and perspective taking is a fundamental aspect of self-knowledge and a way of organising the social world (Goldstein and Winner, 2012; Durkin, 1995). Thirdly and finally, it is suggested that empathy plays an instrumental role in making communities cooperative and sustainable as it enables people to be able to connect with one another (Pavlovich et al., 2012).

The emerging idea that empathy is like a 'currency' or 'exchange' between the community/beneficiaries and the SE has begun to be explored in this chapter. The relationship the SE has with the community and the beneficiaries (to include employees, stakeholders etc.) emerges as a two-way exchange. The community and the wider beneficiaries are as reliant on the SE as the SE is on them to develop and deliver their social impact. It is in working together that results are achieved and maintained. Furthermore, in working together the potential for achieving greater impact and social value is heightened: *"I genuinely believe that they (SEs) have a predilection for seriously listening to their service users, it is potentially a source of sustainable competitive advantage"* (participant 4.05).

5.2. Analysis

During her time in the field, the researcher organised interviews with staff and transcribed them while in the field. This provided the opportunity for the researcher to go back and check any misinterpretations. The majority of the interviews with senior staff took place in the first month due to the availability of staff. The researcher involved herself with any opportunity to conduct interviews; often travelling to interviewees' place of work and/or conducting interviews over the telephone. During the first week of fieldwork, the researcher was invited to several events including office celebrations, management meetings and functions. Invitations to events and to shadow staff and training sessions continued over the course of the fieldwork. Often the researcher was able to make notes during the meetings in the form of taking minutes or the researcher wrote her observational notes up at the end of the day. From the first day of fieldwork, the researcher allocated at least thirty minutes at the end of each day to write a reflective journal entry. Typically, the journal entries would comprise of five reflections on the day, from informal discussions with people, to office dynamics and behaviours. Mid-way through the fieldwork the researcher took the opportunity to analyse all data collected thus far (interview, observation and reflexive journal data). Interview data, observation and reflexive journal data was saved as individual files and was analysed using Nvivo. The researcher created three separate analysis folders and treated each data set as separate; this was done to consider different emergent data. The rationale for analysing data mid-way through the fieldwork was to take account of changes over time and to acknowledge that ethnography is a long process of getting to know people/an organisation.

During the analysis process each individual file, for example: an interview transcript, a specific observation or a single reflexive journal entry was coded using Grounded Theory (GT). These codes were labelled 'units of analysis'. Once all individual files for each data set were coded, the research reflected whether there were common categories emerging and if so, she clustered them into groups

(the researcher labeled these 'categories'). Finally, using Constant Comparative Method (CCM) the researcher reflected on emergent 'themes' in each individual data set, these are listed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1. Emergent themes from data analysis

	Semi-structured interview data – main data set	Observations data – supplementary data	Reflexive Journal data – supplementary data
Theme 1	Business strategy	Business strategy	Research method: Ethnography
Theme 2	Challenges	Challenges	Challenges
Theme 3	Community	Community	Connecting with others
Theme 4	Empathy	Empathy	
Theme 5	Innovation and Impact	Innovation	
Theme 6		Ambition	

During the initial analysis of field data, 'themes' began to emerge from the individual data sets (the observations, the semi-structured interviews and the reflexive journal; please see Appendix G: Interview analysis, Appendix H: Observation Analysis and Appendix I: Reflexive Journal Analysis for further information). As a result of similar themes emerging from the field data, "reciprocal translations" are possible as a proposed path of synthesis from the individual data sets (Noblit and Hare, 1988:38; Lee, Hart, Watson and Rapley, 2015). Reciprocal translations are possible when it emerges that the studies are talking about similar things and therefore it is possible to translate different accounts and ideas into one another. While each data set was individually analysed on separate days, it emerged that the data sets support each other to tell a story about empathy (both individual and shared) and the nature of social enterprise, perspective-taking and the relationship between various stakeholders. The process of analysing the data sets separately had two main advantages: one, this meant that the raw data from each individual study remained available and secondly, meaning-in-context was not lost. Rantala and Wellstrom (2001:88) propose that re-analysing data sets can be problematic because in coming back to the data after some time, the researcher might understand the data differently. Table 5.2 provides an overview of the data analysis process.

Table 5.2. Process of analysis based on Noblit and Hare's 'Meta-ethnography' (1988)

Phase	Explanation of Noblit and Hare's 'Meta-ethnography' (1988)	Explanation - specific to current research
1	**Getting started:** Identifying interest that qualitative research might inform.	Literature review, methodology and over-arching topic of interest: *Exploring the potential role of empathy in social enterprise.*
2	**Confirming Interest:** Describing what is relevant to initial interest. A search for relevant accounts can be undertaken followed by selection of research relevant to the topic of interest.	Initial data analysis keeping each data set (interviews, reflexive journal etc.) separate at this stage. The researcher analysed the collected data at two stages: mid-way during the fieldwork and the end in order to observe changes and knowledge developing over the course of the fieldwork.
3	**Reading studies and extracting data:** Reading the analyses - repeated reading and noting emergent themes, metaphors, and concepts is required and continues as the synthesis develops.	The researchers engaged with the various data sets (interview, observation and reflexive journal data). Analysing the data using GT, coding emerging ideas and using CCM to develop themes.
4	**Determining how the studies are related:** The task of putting together the studies requires creating a list of key metaphors, phrases, ideas or themes (and their relations) used in each account, and juxtaposing them. This leads to initial assumptions about relations between studies.	Using CCM to consider emergent relationships between the various data sets.

4A	There following path of synthesis are possible:
	
	    i. Reciprocal translations are synthesised "when studies are about similar things". Therefore it is possible to translate different accounts into one another.
	    ii. Refutational synthesis "when studies refute each other". Therefore conflicting accounts emerge.
	    iii. Line-of-argument synthesis "when studies successfully build a line of argument". Therefore it is possible to develop an over-arching interpretation.
	(Noblit and Hare, 1988:38)
		Reciprocal translations were identified across the various data sets (interview, observation and reflexive journal data).

5	**Translating the studies into one another:** The metaphors and/or concepts in each account and their interactions are compared with the metaphors and/or concepts and their interactions in other accounts.	The researcher dentified the interview data as "the voice" of the research, and utlised the observation and reflexive journal data to contextualise and situate the interview data.
6	**Synthesizing translations:** Various translations can be compared with one another to determine if there are types of translation or if some metaphors/concepts are able to encompass those of other accounts.	Analysing various translations and comparing them with one another enabled an over-arching new interpretation to emerge: The notion of empathy as a currency.
7	**Expressing the synthesis:** For the proposed synthesis to be communicated effectively it needs to be expressed in a medium that takes account of the intended audience's own culture and so uses concepts and language they can understand.	Reflecting on prior literature enabled the researcher to explore the emergent themes for further analysis and discussion. The researcher presented the data to participants in the form of Member Checks.

5.3. Theme One: Defining success

What emerged as a crucial motivator for the organisation quite early on in the fieldwork was the organisation's ambition and determination for success. Taking into account any traditional business this apparent drive to succeed was not surprising given that the researcher in the first few months was based in Head Office where decisions, action plans and success stories were gathered. What did surface as interesting within the first week of fieldwork was the organisation's definition of 'success' itself. As a researcher entering the field of SE there was a strong theoretical awareness that SEs have to tackle a multi-bottom line in order to achieve sustainability. However, how the relationship between financial and social pressures actually worked in daily operations needed to be explored. Within the organisation at senior level there was a strong connection between the social impact and the financial viability: *"We can't be a good social enterprise unless we are a good enterprise"* (participant 10.01). The organisation's underlying social mission: *to create value and make positive social impact* defined everyday decisions including ensuring profit was achieved so that the SE could succeed and socially re-invest. Re-investing profit into social impact was a definition and a driver of success for the organisation: *"The better the commercial contracts do the more we can do on the ground"* (participant 10.22).

What emerged as vital to the organisation was the ability to deliver a valuable and sustainable service that was strong and at the forefront of the industry. Furthermore what became apparent over time was that the staff were motivated by being part of a sustainable organisation that challenged what 'success' in the business world meant. As a consequence of successfully managing a multi-bottom line, the organisation was developing the sector they worked in.

> *"There is an element of running a good business; our service needs to be good, the quality of the service needs to be as good as any commercial level service to compete. It is easy sometimes to write off SE to let them off not having good business quality and acumen because of the greater cause, but if you are not good at what you are supposed to be doing then you are not going to win those contracts anyway"* (participant 1.08).

Interestingly, the SE chose to work with commissioners and funders whose values and mission aligned with their own, putting emphasis on working with the investors to set up funding structures to see how the programmes will be run in advance. It was acknowledged that the ability to approach investors was a unique and beneficial position and one that they had nurtured over time: *"We have contracts in place for a long duration of time. It puts you in a totally different position"* (participant 4.02). Suggesting that contracts had been in place for some time emphasised awareness that through hard work and over time, the SE had gained a positive reputation and an advantageous position. In

time it emerged that even when it came to business and external investments there were moral choices being made; the organisation was not prepared to accept funding or contracts from lenders who did not share the same vision or required them to alter theirs.

> *"So we run the contracts for the commissioners, we make profit from them but they really fall within our remit of expertise anyway. So that is quite nice"* (participant 12.28).

5.4. Theme Two: Employee perspective

Employees often credited the success of the business to the community stating that the local community and users of their services were their most accurate and reliable informers and customers. Listening to the community was considered a great advantage point: *"The whole issue of community is massively important"* (participant 4.02). Whilst in the field the researcher witnessed a strong sense of social responsibility spread among all departments. This was not only present in the strategic management of this organisation, but also among various people in the many departments and offices who had day to day contact with the beneficiaries. The link between the social and the financial was evident to many employees and they talked openly about those challenges: *"If we're not providing services in a way that service users want them or in a way that is sustainable ...then we can't continue to be successful"* (participant 1.08). These findings support prior research that has suggested empathy is a profound contributor in strengthening social interactions by way of motivating people to cooperate (de Vignemont and Singer, 2006).

There was a strong expression among many staff that 'success' meant delivering what the community wanted and needed. Often the link between community and success seemed much more immediate and emotional with the staff that worked more closely with the beneficiaries given that they were seeing changes and positive outcomes at grassroots level: *"You may sit at the top of the tree but you still need to know what is going on down below and in the wider ether"* (participant 10.22). The SE had both a commercial and a social presence in the community therefore they operated a (at times conflicting) double or triple-bottom line: they had an advantageous position from where to explore what the community wanted, and a challenge and responsibility to deliver it. As a result, multi-tasking was common.

> *"My responsibility is to make sure those (the financial and social) both dove-tails and whoever is leading the business understands that the reason we are here is to have social impact and the mechanism by which is deliver funding is through our commercial contracts"* (participant 10.30).

Over time the researcher was able to build rapport and connections with various stakeholder groups. It was interesting for the researcher to imagine herself through the eyes of various stakeholders as the senior teams were both supportive and engaged in exploring the nature of SE alongside the researcher. However, those further from Head Office and much closer to the frontline and everyday contact with the community were less engaged with the research agenda and more grateful for an extra pair of hands around the office. In response to a senior networking event where food and drinks were served, a frontline employee remarked: *"Well, there seems to be money for that!"* (RJ, 09.12.2015), while they struggled to get the photocopier to work for the tenth time that morning in a busy office. Whilst the efforts of the senior networking events were valuable for the community and SE as a whole, it emerged that these events were not always well communicated across the organisation. As a result some of those working with the community on a daily basis missed the success stories that were being celebrated by the SE and this caused a sense of disjointedness between the SE aims and the SE success. 'Taylorism' (1911) came to the mind of the researcher in such circumstances in relation to scientific management "…manager(s) must give special incentives to their workforce". For example: "…better contact with his workmen that comes only from a genuine and kindly interest in the welfare of those under him" (Taylor, 1911:14). Consequently, some of the frontline employees lacked a connection between the SE ends and the SE means and their motivation to the social mission wavered.

Empathy is related to work as it is perceived as motivation to action (Hourdequin, 2012) and while some of the frontline employees lacked an empathy with the senior management their empathy towards the beneficiaries was evident. The office they worked in was always busy, the phones were ringing regularly and there were always people from the community popping by for advice. In addition the photocopier was a constant source of complaint and always seemed to get stuck at the busiest of times. Despite all these distractions the staff at the frontline connected with the beneficiaries and the beneficiaries always came first: *"My connection to the SE beneficiaries is I am passionate about giving a chance to [beneficiaries] who might be lonely, unemployed, out of work, isolated"* (participant 18.07). The frontline employees were not always able to put into words their motivation and connection to the social mission, but the emotional and immediate connection to beneficiaries for many seemed second nature. The researcher reflected on an event where an elderly beneficiary referred to an employee that she saw on a weekly basis as being: *"like my sister"* (participant X). The employee helped the beneficiary get dressed on a weekly basis, move about and connected her to events in the community. Besides an obvious amount of care needed to fulfil such a position of responsibility, the employee's relationship with the beneficiary went above any job specification; there was a genuine interest and understanding in their shared communication (both verbal and non-verbal). Pro-social studies explore empathy as the awareness of someone else's

emotional state or condition as an inbuilt reaction (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989) and it emerged that for a large number of employees and volunteers, connecting with beneficiaries was much like a natural and innate response.

Literature surrounding the notion of *imitation* (Iacoboni and Dapretto, 2007) found that reading others peoples' body language - verbal and non-verbal gestures is vital in improving social skills. Furthermore, imitation of others enables development in terms of understanding aims and meaning of others. Due to the advancement of research in the field of neural mechanisms of imitation (Iacoboni and Dapretto, 2007; Pavlovich and Kranhke, 2012), the crucial role of imitation in social understanding and learning has grown. Imitative actions have been shown to be central in human development (Meltzoff and Prinz, 2002; Meltzoff, 1970). Indeed, it is common that humans (as well as mammals) imitate actions and behaviours when in social situations; this experience has been labelled the 'Chameleon effect' (Hatfield, Cacioppo, Rapson; 1994; Iacoboni and Dapretto, 2007). Chartrand and Bargh's (1999) research on perception-behaviour link and social interaction discovered that the more one imitated another, the more they tended to be empathetic. This supported the nurturing relationships the researcher witnessed between staff and beneficiaries that developed over time. Interestingly, in the later 1960's an early definition of the term *empathy* was 'objective motor mimicry' (Allport, 1968). Only in the late twentieth century was the term empathy understood as multi-dimensional: affective, cognitive and an ability to disconnect (Hourdequin, 2012; Joliffe and Farringdon, 2006; Carre et al., 2013).

5.4.1. Challenges

For many of the employees their job included multi-tasking and often in interviews some participants found it hard to define their role: *"A bit ambiguous as to what exactly that is [my job role]"* (participant 20.01). Some front line staff expressed a sense of being over-worked and losing sight of the organisational mission as a result. Managing a varied role emerged as reflective of the SE in general; as multi-tasking both the commercial and social aspects to achieve success seemed to be within everyone's concern to an extent. Only after considerable time in the field was the researcher able to reflect and consider that for many staff multi-tasking was often a feature of their work, as they had to keep in mind the financial targets in order to deliver social impact (and vice versa). For those closer to the strategic planning and management this link somehow seemed more apparent and motivational. However, in departments located at various sites away from the Head Office where the shared vision had been lost or not re-enforced, multi-tasking led to a greater misunderstanding.

"It is a very varied role and I am still learning ...I'm still trying to crack it" (participant 3.28).

Participants expressed awareness that not all employees understood the 'social' side of the SE business: *"What I suspect you'd find is a lot of people are not engaged with the SE side of it at all because they (work on the commercial side) we still have a huge way to go"* (participant 6.05). There were differing views on how understanding and engaging with this 'social' link could enhance success, personal enjoyment and connection to work. Overall, participants suggested that it could make the SE more successful if everyone in the organisation understood the link between *what* they do and *why* they do it. This link of *what* and *why* re-surfaced throughout the researcher's time in the field as research participants often expressed concerns that not everyone shared the vision of the company's mission. The researcher reflected on the idea that when participants talked about 'connection to work' and the popular use of the word 'engaged', were they referring to empathy?

Engaging and connecting with others can be linked to empathy given that a crucial component in social interactions is the capacity to understand the cognitive states of others (Iacoboni and Dapretto, 2007). Conceiving how another is feeling in different situations requires perspective-taking (Lamm, Batson and Decety, 2007; Batson, Early and Salvarini, 1997) as varying emotions require altered responses. As research by Iacoboni and Dapretto (2007) showed, the more time people spend with other people the more they are likely to imitate them (given the link of imitation and development behaviour by Meltzoff and Prinz, 2002) and as a result, they are more disposed to be empathetic. Gerdes and Segal (2011) found that in social work practitioners were encouraged to engage with their understanding of empathy. In doing so, it was suggested that research and knowledge of empathy helped with their social interactions. The area of social work and empathy research enables parallels to be drawn as it suggests that empathy can be used to help professionals become more competent and adept at their social work. Gerdes and Segal (2011) suggest that empathy acts as a key component in connecting social workers with clients. In many respects, similarities can be drawn between empathy related to social work practitioners and their clients, and empathy related to the social mission.

"Although many staff know they are working for a SE, it isn't always clear what this means in reality. We could be better in communicating this to all our staff team more clearly" (participant 10.01).

There were steps identified in the business strategy to promote a stronger link to the social mission. This strategy included inviting a small selection of staff including those primarily engaged with the commercial activity to learn more about the SE sector and as a result, to learn more about the SEs'

mission and beneficiaries. Staff who had taken part in the programme talked passionately about how their motivation and connection to the SE developed. In one case, a member of frontline staff working at the commercial side of the business expressed a clear link between his job and the beneficiaries. The staff member was adamant not to be a 'mouth-piece' for the SE, but was genuinely motivated by learning more about SE. He stated that now after learning more about SE, he understood his job as meaningful as he recognised the link between what he does at the frontline level and how that impacts others further down the line. More specifically, the employee felt a connection between his job and the benefit of him doing his job well given the impact it had on beneficiaries.

During a social event the frontline employee (who had taken part in the SE programme) met a beneficiary whose life he positively impacted by doing his job. Following the SE programme, the employee gained a greater understanding of the SE sector and more importantly, he had connected with some of the beneficiaries. As a result, the employee achieved a cognitive link between his work and social impact, he stated: *"It [the course[12] and subsequent knowledge of SE] has changed my approach to work… it helps me get out of bed in the morning"* (RJ, 22.10.2015). The employees' sense of pride and achievement in his job had grown as he no longer saw his job as an isolated task but talked about seeing the 'bigger picture' and connecting with others. Empathy is understood as a connecting mechanism that draws together collective aims and intentions (Pavlovich et al., 2012). It emerged that the programme was successful in facilitating frontline staff to emotionally and cognitively connect with the beneficiaries. The researcher pondered whether one of the (intended or un-intended) results of the programme was to teach empathy. The researcher reflected that in creating a shared space and in sharing stories between staff and beneficiaries, connections were made possible. It was not necessarily the question of being 'taught' empathy but the employees' new connection (to work and wider beneficiaries) supports research related to pro-social behaviour highlighting empathy as a natural and inbuilt response to other people (Sagi and Hoffman, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989). Research has indeed linked empathy to organisational success, suggesting that given the opportunity empathetic individuals are more likely to recognise and share each other's successes and difficulties (Gable, Reis, Impett and Asher, 2004). The employee experienced both an emotional link to the wider beneficiaries as an 'automatic' reaction and a cognitive 'controlled' reaction (Lamm, Batson and Decety, 2007). Emotionally and automatically, the employee felt a sense of responsibility in his work having connected with some of the beneficiaries; the difference was now the beneficiaries had a face, he also voiced a sense of pride. Cognitively and controlled, the employee experienced a sense of purpose and a tangible link between his work and the social impact. As a result, the

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[12] The course is designed to help people learn about SE and the benefits SE can bring to society and local communities. Staff are invited from various parts of the organisation (for example, frontline employees, office staff, volunteers) to join the course, visit SEs, meet beneficiaries and ask questions. Course members visit social enterprises and beneficiaries related to the organisation they work with, as well as others.

employees' experience of connecting with beneficiaries transpired both as bottom-up and top-down which is necessary for the experience of empathy (Lamm, Batson and Decety, 2007; Durkin, 1995).

For some employees the strong feelings around the need for a connection, empathy and greater understanding of the overall vision was crucial in their daily work. The empathy towards the beneficiaries and the wider community was mentioned by some employees as being vital as they had seen people come and go in the organisation due to this missing link.

> *"You've got to have that personal interaction with what you are doing and the beneficiary groups otherwise it does not quite click and work. I have seen people come and go over the years and if they are not understanding it or tucked into the communities, they don't tend to last long. ...As in SE, you have to go that extra mile and not say 'that's not in my job description'. You have to be prepared to go just that little bit further and look outside the box. There is a definite link between staff that are engaged and staff that are not engaged"* (participant 10.22).

Whilst innovative strides were being taken by the SE, many staff both at senior and at frontline positions felt that if the link between the financial and social was better understood then this would aid the overall success of the organisation. There was an underlying feeling that more could be done to reinforce the social mission throughout the organisation.

> *"I would say that it is not that really strong link now, but it should be and maybe a little more investing in making that link. I know this is hard in this industry and a lot of people are just going to work, doing their work and going home"* (participant 22.07).

> *"I would not say we are there yet (in terms of connection with social mission), this is a cultural shift and we have a long way to go yet. The managers get it, some get it (but) we need to do more work. There is a real requirement people understand: why would you work for this organisation as opposed to another and it is about trying to get them to come into this business because they identify. We still have a way to go…"* (participant 10.30).

After time spent in the field it became increasingly evident to the researcher that staff, management, volunteers and external stakeholders were aware of a large challenge facing the organisation: the challenge of embedding the social mission throughout departments. As research by Young et al. (2012) suggests managing both the commercial and the social aims and giving both even

consideration can be challenging. However the organisation was facing unique challenges in tackling this task:

- The size of the organisation (approximately one thousand staff) meant there were several departments in different areas with their own distinctive community needs where a 'one size fits all' approach could not be applied;
- The organisation had a large commercial staff team, as well as many volunteers, who did not engage with the SE vision because to them coming to work was 'just a job'. For some staff their part-time roles meant they did not engage fully with the organisation or ever come into contact with the beneficiaries;
- The SE had grown from a charity and community led business and it had grown rapidly. As a result, the organisation was trying to align the commercial strategy and the shared social vision across all departments.

> *"For us, because we have grown so rapidly, this might come out in your research, it has been quite hard to get the values of the organisation right through the organisation because actually you haven't got enough time sometimes because we keep bolting bits on"* (participant 4.18.)

Whilst in the field some participants explained that they did not share any personal links or connections with the SE beneficiaries but that they liked the SE model. Often the researcher sensed a feeling of guilt or confession when participants stated that they did not feel a personal link to the SE, nor to the beneficiaries. Over time however it was interesting for some of the other detail to emerge as to what meaningful work meant for individuals. For many employees, the draw to the SE was the SE sector in general: the notion of making money for social good. Some participants found that often their connection to the social mission developed and grew over time. This gradual connection to the SE over time emerged as no great surprise given that success in any organisation is an exercise in: "…creating and maintenance of meaning" (Lodahl and Mitchell, 1980:186; Cornforth, 2014). Furthermore, Aiken (2006) suggests that the task of maintaining values and meaning in SE falls to the leaders of the SE and the longer-standing employees whose role it is to represent the values of the SE as: "value carriers" (Cornforth, 2014: 13). Research by Cornforth (2014) supports the current research findings given that senior staff were well engaged with the social mission and SE values. More specifically, a finding from the interviews with senior staff was that in many cases senior staff were long-standing members and they upheld the SE mission and values and conveyed them to new recruits (Cornforth, 2014; Aiken, 2006). Indeed, research suggests that the emotional capabilities of

managers play a part in the development of emotional contagion (Bono and Ilies, 2006) which is an identified aspect of empathy (Carre et al., 2013; Joliffe and Farrington, 2006).

The researcher reflected whether she herself was going to be affected by the notion of senior staff acting as: "value carriers" (Cornforth, 2014: 13) who transmit the values of the SE to newer members. Given the amount of time the researcher was going to spend in the field and the embedded nature of the research, was she going to be treated as a *new member*? The below section expands on the researcher's time and experience in the field with the senior team.

5.5. Theme Three: Senior Leadership, management and trustees ('senior team')

The senior team regularly reflected in interviews that the SE's success and growth was a 'group effort' often meaning the wider community as a whole: *"That is what it is all about at the end of the day. All the cogs need to work together: the community, the team, the staff, the boards, our investors – all of us [need to] come together"* (participant 4.02). The notion of 'shared success' and 'team work' sounded very positive yet coming from the senior team, the researcher remained open-minded as to what this translated to. The researcher reflected that the role of senior leadership in any organisation involves the embodiment and the communication of, the mission and an element of 'spokesperson' (Watson, 2010). The majority of the interviews with the senior team were scheduled at their convenience early on in the fieldwork. This was both a positive and negative; on the positive side completing numerous interviews in the first few weeks meant the researcher could learn about the SE quickly and make connections. On the negative side, the researcher did not feel as able to question answers given by interviewees as the researcher was still building an understanding of how things actually worked. As a result, relationships were not yet established and often it was during the interview process that rapport was built. A sense of trust and power was still being established during those first few weeks and participants often took the opportunity to enquire over tea in the kitchen, as to what the research interests were. More surprisingly towards the end of one interview a member of the senior team asked: *"Did I do ok?"* and *"Was my interview about the right length compared to others?"* (RJ, 06.10.2015). Moments like these where participants showed a sense of vulnerability reminded the researcher about the need to display sensitivity given the various power dynamics and tensions that underlie social interactions (Creese and Blackledge 2012; Volosinov, 1973) especially in ethnography.

At the end of the researcher's time in the field, the researcher was invited to give a presentation on her time spent at the SE. The presentation was going to be given to the senior team at Head Office and the researcher was requested to: *"...just say a few words"* (RJ, 02.02.2016). The researcher took the

opportunity to present an overview of her work so far; providing a summary of where she had spent her time and what type of data she was collecting (interview data, observation data and reflexive journal data). Also, the researcher wanted to give a brief outline of how such data would be analysed, in so doing the researcher was trying to breakdown the power dynamics of 'the researcher' and 'the researched' (Creese et al., 2012; Volosinov, 1973). The majority of the information the researcher shared with the SE regarding research motivation had been listed on the 'Information Sheet' given out to all participants at the start of the fieldwork. As the researcher began her Power Point presentation on the last day of her fieldwork, she noticed the senior team perched on the edge of their chairs giving the researcher their full attention. The researcher remembers thinking: *"...they are actually really interested in this [the research]"* (RJ, 19.02.2016). Furthermore, at the end of the presentation those present were curious about prior literature and how various data sets could be analysed. There also seemed to be a strong focus on learning from the research findings. Collectively the senior team showed a strong awareness that inherent in SE is the need to manage often conflicting institutional logics (Cooney, 2006; Battilana and Dorado, 2010; Gidron and Hasenfield, 2012; Cornforth, 2014).

The structure of the interviews began with the interviewer asking about participants' 'role' and 'motivations for working in the SE'. At the start of any interview that took place the researcher made a concerted effort to say that the format was semi-structured. The researcher felt that audio recording the interviews whilst necessary, also added a sense of formality and pressure for the interviewees. As a result, the researcher reassured the interviewees that the audio was only for her purposes and explained exactly how the audio would be transcribed and prepared for analysis. The researcher felt that interviews were an opportunity to connect on a one-to-one basis with participants and to glance into their world; therefore efforts were made to breakdown any mysticism and potential barriers in relation to the research. For this reason the researcher welcomed questions and additional conversation both during and after the interview.

The researcher found that often the most interesting data emerged when participants relaxed and were supported to explore ideas they found interesting; for example, their connection with the community. The researcher was well aware that the interview direction and data was created and maintained by two actors – the interviewee and interviewer. The researcher reflected that it was also possible that present in the interview room with senior members of staff was a further constraint; an element of 'spokesperson' of behalf of the SE organisation (Watson, 2010). Agar (1977) suggests qualitative research should be founded on creating complementary relationships with participants. Consequently the interviews became a balancing act of the interviewer being well-prepared in terms of information and anonymity towards other participants, whilst creating a safe space for participants to share their experiences, perspectives and motivations. Given that the researcher was to be involved in the setting

for many months, efforts were made to assure participants that the research was less of an investigation and more of an exploratory research into SE motivations and culture. As a result, many participants were interested themselves in the wider discourse surrounding SE culture and engaged positively: *"This is the first time I have ever been asked – I mean people have interviewed me, but it has been more about 'what is it like working for SE' and 'what advice do you have', but I like those [your] questions – the way they are framed"* (participant 12.28). Literature suggests that the more time the researcher spends with participants, the more their relationship changes. By spending time alongside the researched group, literature indicates that the participants begin to define and shape the role of the ethnographer (Warming, 2011; Cosaro, 1985). The researcher suggests that there were benefits in the participants being engaged in the research. Over time the participants not only used the researcher as a sounding board over lunch and tea breaks - discussing SE tensions across various sectors, but also the senior team would often share various internal information with the researcher; from internal staff surveys to promotional videos, stating: *"...this might be useful for your research"* (RJ, 18.11.2015).

5.5.1. Shadowing

Engaging with the SE full time presented many opportunities including the prospect of shadowing participants who were also interviewees. From the very first week onwards this provided an interesting viewpoint into what people *said* and what people *did*. The researcher was invited to join a director of the team on a visit to a frontline office. The opportunity to go off-site enabled the researcher to ask questions, to be introduced to several staff members and also in return enabled the participant to provide a better perspective of their work outside of Head Office. Crucially, the off-site trip allowed the researcher to gain a better insight into the relationship this director had with frontline staff. This extract from the researcher's reflective journal for that day explored such working dynamics: *"People wear different hats such as 'director' hat and 'personal' hat (and many more). Do my participants face this 'hat-trouble' when they talk to me? Do they have trouble choosing how to answer my questions, given that there will almost always be an element of spokesperson for many of the senior staff"* (RJ, 05.10.15)? It was interesting for the researcher to observe the interviewee on that first field visit interacting with various members of staff. The interviewee was both in a senior and well-respected position and it was surprising to watch them interact with employees off-site with a level of humility. The opportunity to go off-site and explore first-hand the relationship between what people *said* and *did* was particularly important. This member of senior staff held their colleagues in high regard as the experts of their own jobs. The dynamics were interesting to observe and something the interviewee had mentioned early in the day came to mind:

"We don't think about in terms of the perspective of employees and beneficiaries what we think about is all stakeholders… So the moment we … start really embracing the stakeholder model, that is when opportunities to start building a more holistic, a more appropriate, more effective organisation" (participant 4.05).

SE need to manage and convey the SE mission to various stakeholders and manage relationships as understanding the surrounding environment is understood as an important skill in SE (Cornforth, 2014; Moreau and Mertens, 2013; Sadoul, 2003). In collaborating with all stakeholders it is suggested the SE nurtures empathy necessary for pursuing the needs of the beneficiaries and employees as well as potentially identifying with them in the first place (Hourdequin, 2012). Empathy as a leadership quality among the senior team, along with perspective-taking emerge as important in achieving SE goals (Vladek, 1988).

During the off-site visit it occurred to the researcher how large the SE was and it enabled the researcher to grasp the senior team's perspective when they talked about the challenges of engaging everyone in the social mission. During that first off-site visit the scale of the challenge of sharing their social mission and addressing social impact emerged, given that many of the staff who the researcher met that day worked predominantly on commercial contracts. The unique position the SE held was interesting; the commercial profit was a key source and a driver enabling the SE to deliver their social impact through reinvestment into local communities. Yet often those at the commercial frontline were not the ones in contact with the SE beneficiaries which caused a sense of disconnection. The researcher reflected on the very first conversation she had had with a participant that day. The researcher had engaged in a conversation with the participant about defining a 'typical' SE. The participant had gone on to say that from their experience SEs were often bound in definition to the sector within which they operated, given that different working environments had distinctive working ethos and cultures.

"We are trying to build a lot around value programmes and identification of our values and trying to build up that understanding. It is work in progress right now – we are working hard on that initiative and it is a key initiative for us really" (participant 4.02.1).

There was a strong mindfulness from the senior team that financial success was necessary in order to continue delivering social good. Awareness regarding the link between social and financial success seemed most prevalent in the senior teams. Over time it became more apparent that there were specific job roles put in place in the organisation to govern and lead on doing business well. For example, there had been a recent move to put both social and commercial structures under one

management to ensure the two aspects of the SE worked side by side. Put another way, there was a strong connection observed between making profit and re-investment into social impact: *"I believe the two (social and financial) have to co-exist together for example, if you don't have any commercial contracts you don't have funding to deliver on the social impact and if you have just social impact, how do you make it sustainable"* (participant 10.22). The feeling that financial and social success were inextricably linked was present throughout various aspects of the SE. While the level of understanding of financial and social pressures varied across the organisation it was very clearly present in the senior teams.

> *"It's helped tremendously since we won it (a contract)… making sure the operations runs smoothly but also that we can make a profit so we can do our social re-investment"* (participant 11.10).

Whilst economic theory emphasises the need for organisations to be efficient, effective and economical, this research supports the notion that SEs are also shaped by "cultural elements" of the local environment and the: "…taken for granted beliefs and widely shared rules that serve as templates for organising" (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991: 26-27; Cornforth, 2014). Certainly at senior level the team had a strong sense of identity and this awareness enabled the senior team to be clear on their social mission (Chew, 2010). As a result, the senior team were able to articulate their strong community focused social mission with commercial growth and sustainability.

5.5.2. Growth

As the SE had continued to grow successfully over the years there was awareness that often the growth came quickly, as a result the requirements of the business had changed.

> *"So as we have grown, the management information requirements have also grown and changed so making the change in requirements of the business and getting them out on time …We need to structure the organisation and we do structure the organisation such that people know what they have got to deliver"* (participant 10.06).

For many participants especially at senior level, the challenge between commercial and social pressures in SE was a motivation for them to join the SE: *"I was very far from the classroom, very far from the frontline and I just thought: I need something a bit more frontline … so I wanted something that was out and out SE rather than a charity that traded essentially with a gun to its head"* (participant 4.05). Furthermore, for many participants their previous work experience was often

rooted in the commercial and private sectors and this mixed well with their passion to 'do good' in SE. In both interview and informal settings, participants discussed the idea that SE offered a great mixture of commercial and social activities to grow and deliver social good. Some described the charity as an old 'cap-in-hand' idea that suggested it was unsustainable due to over-reliance on external financial sources.

> *"I was always aware of this SE, vaguely aware, and then this role came up and I thought what a perfect way for me to be able to use all the skills I have picked up in the commercial (world), apply them (and) make an even greater profit to keep them sustainable and be able to invest more into communities"* (participant 12.28).

> *"Charity's cap in hand is a very old model, especially in times of austerity because all of a sudden, local authorities are not giving you any money, central government won't give you any money and then just sniffing round these smaller pots. We go to investors because we have contracts in place (for a long duration of time). It puts you in a totally different (position)"* (participant 4.02).

Participants talked about the importance of being financially successful both in terms of it being necessary for SE growth and also because SE can apply business practice in new and innovative ways. It emerged over time that SEs are well positioned to communicate with their local communities, which results in being community led in terms of ideas.

> *"How much better building a brand, [and] doing it with the community, I'm trying to do some social good and completely change the way we think about brand development. I seriously consider that only a SE can really do this because of that appetite to say: ok, the business practice I am about to apply is coercive and I want to do something community led … it worked like a charm"* (participant 6.05).

Some participants reflected how in many ways the SE might not be so very different to a traditional commercial business structure. This was a significant finding in interview settings as it showed a level of reflexivity and honesty. The interview where this was discussed took place much later in the fieldwork, in comparison to interviews with other members of the senior team and supported the idea that relationships and trust was being formed over time (Warming, 2011). In various field settings staff evaluated how the employees across the organisation might relate to the social mission better. This emerged as a significant aim of the organisation (to keep asking: How can we share the social mission?). Often in informal settings the senior team reflected that the missing link to the shared

vision across the organisation could be due to the fact the organisation had grown quickly and sometimes underlying connections were not made. Relating to the social mission emerged as a key challenge for the organisation as a whole, along with a strong awareness that this was an area they needed to improve on.

> *"We're not yet organisationally/structurally we're not of a qualitative difference of a different nature to traditional capitalist businesses. People are still doing jobs in a very similar way, we're still structured in a very similar way, we may have slightly nicer managers and slightly nicer things that we are doing but we haven't at all moved forward to the next level of we could be"* (participant 10.07).

5.5.3. External pressures

It emerged that the pressures of managing both financial and social outcomes were not only felt internally by the senior team but that there were external pressures too. For example, the commercial sector within which this SE operated did not always engage well or understand their mission and the need to achieve a multi-bottom line (as opposed to a purely financial bottom line). Perhaps more surprisingly it emerged that the charity sector likewise to the commercial sector often misunderstood the SE.

> *"People in the company didn't want the idea of the transfer to a SE, because some of our charitable people look at our commercial activity and think: we shouldn't really be doing this and then we have our competitors in the commercial world thinking: we shouldn't be in this zone because of the charitable part. So we get kicked from every angle going"* (participant 4.02).

This finding of tension between stakeholders supports research conducted by Battilana and Dorado (2010) which compared recruitment type and the development of two SEs. Battilana and Dorado's (2010) research found that whilst hiring new recent graduates without previous experience called the 'Apprenticeship strategy' took longer to implement; the SE was more successful in linking competing agendas in the long run. Whereas staff who had been recruited for their skills and commitment to the social mission called the 'Integration strategy' were quicker to engage with the SE but failed in the longer term as conflicts developed between various departments (for example, between Finance and Human Resources). Crucially, the recruitment process with staff hired through the 'Apprenticeship strategy' focused not so much on prior skills but on means-orientated training taking into account social and commercial challenges that the SE may face. As a result, they were easier to socialise and

the recruited staff were able to gain a sense of identity that incorporated the multi-bottom line challenges and avoided conflict between competing agendas. Within the SE, some of the stakeholders in both the charitable and the commercial world were long standing members with key skills interests as a result, as the organisation changed and developed conflicts arose. "One problem …is where [organisational] members act as if they are delegates for the particular stakeholder group they come from rather than act as a team in the best interests of the organisation as a whole" (Cornforth, 2014: 11). This also supports research by Lodahl and Mitchell (1980) that found that appropriate recruitment and socialisation of the workforce were key influences in maintaining a successful organisational mission and a commitment to the organisational goal/s.

Participants in the current research often talked about an element of 'playing ball' with the commercial industry and the need to portray a certain outward appearance. In an informal setting, a senior team member stated that from an early point in the organisation's history they decided to make the dress code for work formal as they wanted to portray a strong sense of business and professionalism outwardly. There was awareness and drive to be successful and applying strong business strategies was one element of this.

'Putting different clothes on' (participant 4.02) emerged as an apt metaphor from one interviewee to describe the challenges SE face. The interviewee went on to add that whilst as a SE they are clear on their social mission, sometimes when doing business in the commercial and social sectors they had to 'put different clothes on' in order to fit in. Indeed research has found that leaders of SE often have to manage several roles and: "Managers of SE so often have to be multilingual …capable of moving between very diverse worlds of meaning" (Paton, 2003: 167; Reid and Griffith, 2006).

> *"We have got to be around to do it: so it might mean we have had to put different clothes on and we are a SE and we do work in the commercial world but that does not make us bad, because I am doing this because I want to keep having that (service) running there and that child do that training programme there"* (participant 4.02).

When this metaphor 'of putting different clothes on' emerged the researcher was careful to observe how this fully played out over time given the literature on the 'dark side of entrepreneurship' (Williams and K'nife, 2012). Research has shown that motivation for some SE especially in developing communities is not necessarily to deliver social good, but to maintain authority and influence over these communities. 'Putting different clothes on' was both a seemingly honest portrayal of trying to fit in but it also suggested an emphasis on appearances. What emerged over time was that the SE was neither trying to fit in necessarily or maintain an appearance, but was actually

breaking the mould in terms of the sector and industry within which it sat. The commercial side of the SE was defined by pressure on margins and stiff competition: *"[The commercial industry we work in is] Fiercely competitive almost to the point of it being counterproductive"* (participant 6.05). The SE considered the commercial business as a crucial community service and therefore felt responsibility to contribute to the advancement of the industry whilst at the same time being socially innovative. *"By applying the principle of listening to your beneficiaries and being led by beneficiaries for example in brand development, you can create something that is super normally effective in business terms"* (participant 6.05). 'Putting different clothes on' transpired as a way of navigating challenges faced by the SE to combine collective agenda, given that SEs focus on both innovation (individual actors and social entrepreneurship) as well as economic developments (Schumpeter, 1934) within civil society. The senior team shared a vision that commercial activity could enhance and benefit the social mission in helping the disadvantaged.

> *"I think you need a broad church of skills to make the organisation successful"* (participant 10.06).

The senior team often talked about the challenges of a SE trading in the commercial world. Some participants felt the need to mention that 'profit' was not a dirty word and that doing business in the commercial sector was not 'bad'. Whilst this was what they said, it actually seemed that there was still some guilt in the SE to be associated with 'profit' and the 'commercial world'. The researcher pondered whether this was a legacy left over from when the SE changed from a charity to a SE? Institutional theory proposes two challenges that SEs face from the wider environment; firstly, economic and financial demands from the sector within which the SE operates and secondly, the social and community level demands that expect the SE to work and develop in specific ways (Cornforth, 2014; DiMaggio and Powell, 1991). The following quotation summed up the unique position of the SE within the community and the challenges they face in achieving success.

> *"I genuinely believe you have to run the social impact and deliver like a business but you have to run them with a different set of rules. In business if something is losing money you immediately cut the service, that's what you do. With our business you have to consider the impact and it's not purely financial, it is very different. You have to understand that to work here and if you don't you'll just make decisions based on money and then we're just like any other organisation, which we don't want to be"* (participant 10.30).

5.5.4. Limited knowledge of social enterprise

After just a few weeks in the field it became apparent that a large number of senior staff joined with little or no knowledge of the SE sector. For the researcher this begged the question: What was their motivation for joining and was there any link to the SE's mission? The senior team often described their reason for working in SE as one of 'chance'. The idea that many members of staff ended up working for the SE by accident became an interesting finding and gave rise to the question: Through what channels were people being recruited to work in SE? The challenges of the multi-bottom line that is characteristic of the SE sector appeared to affect many aspects of the organisation:

- Internally, in terms of organisation identity and being able to successfully share the vision with all employees across the organisation;
- Externally, in terms of the difficulties the SE sector faced and the need to 'put different clothes on' in order to do business;
- Recruitment, staff often described joining the SE 'by chance' and in many cases the new job came as an unexpected yet welcomed move from commercial to SE.

> *"I never would have sought this area out to be honest unless I would have ended up here by chance"* (participant 10.30).

> *"Then the agency found me, actually it was serendipity…So I did not seek out SE, I did not even know what SE was, never even heard of (this place). However I started looking into it and thought: 'oh look, I can do good and I can make a profit actually and in a lot of ways that can be a much more efficient way of generating impact – this makes sense"* (participant 20.01).

For certain members of the senior team, their job was initially a stop gap in their career or a welcomed change but after spending a bit of time with the SE and making connections with the SE mission something seemed to change.

"When I came here I didn't really understand what I was here for, I knew they kind of did good, but I didn't really understand it. Over time you get to understand the nuts and bolts of it and you go out and meet the people you've had an effect on, it becomes very evident that it was very different than I anticipated. I only know that because I spend a lot of time out of here, which is where I prefer to be because then I am very lucky sometimes I see recipients of the service… I felt strongly that I did have a link to what some of what we're doing… I feel I have a connection" (participant 10.30).

The extract above supports the literature that empathy with SE beneficiaries aids the development of SE as human success is promoted (Gerdes et al., 2010). In sharing perspectives and striving for joint goals, the boundaries between self and other become connected within SE to the extent that individual social problems become a collective problem. Pavlovich et al. (2012) labelled the ability to share emotions by way of empathy 'mirror neurons', meaning neurons dissolve the barrier between one person and another. It is further suggested that the findings support the notion that the dissolution of barriers between people enable them to engage with another that in turn promotes common ground building in social situations (Pavlovich et al., 2012).

The researcher remembered an emotionally powerful interview in which the interviewee was a senior manager, but with direct daily contact with the community. The emotional drive and connection with the beneficiaries was similar to that connection between a daughter and an elderly relative, and the lengths the interviewee was prepared to go to in order to fulfil the unmet need in the community was inspiring. The interview was emotional as it was driven by the interviewee's deep desire to help other people. The interviewee was in a senior, privileged position to affect necessary changes: *"I kind of felt this is the vocation for me as I care deeply and passionately about what we do, how we do it and what the end result is for the customer/client. You can see the end result from the grass roots level"* (participant 10.22).

Within research literature empathy is sometimes referred to as a quality (Levenson and Reug 1992). The three qualities of empathy are identified as: feeling (emotional); knowing (cognitive) and, responding compassionately (action). An act of compassion requires both emotional regulation to avoid distress and emotional disconnection in order to be able to consider what is best and appropriate as a response. The interviewee displayed such qualities: the interviewee did not just know the vast number of beneficiaries by name; they also remembered touching and emotional stories when the SE had changed people's lives and these success stories were a motivation for them. The interviewee's emotional connection to the beneficiaries was strong and motivated their action: *"You've got to have that personal interaction with what you are doing and the beneficiary groups otherwise it does not*

quite click and work" (participant 10.22). This display of perspective taking, emotional connection and motivation for action provided evidence of empathy. Empathy being as understood as a strong motivation for pro-social actions that ultimately enhances the welfare of others (Hourdequin, 2012; Mason and Bartak, 2010). Pavlovich and Krahnke's (2012) research highlights that in feeling the suffering of another person, we connect in a shared reality exposing the human need for mutual dependency. As a result, empathy is more readily experienced rather than easily defined much like knowledge, and can be: "…co-constructed in social interactions" (Eisenberg, 1990:141). Research has found that underlying emotional contagion is a motivator of pro-social behaviour, indeed the sight of someone else in pain can induce similar feelings in the observer (Preston and de Waal, 2002). The research findings support the notion that experiencing empathetic concern can motivate pro-social behaviour (Keller and Chaudhary, 2010).

5.6. Theme Four: Community

Within the organisation what linked the SE to their social mission was a conscious awareness of how they were well placed to help the community. Certainly in the senior team participants appeared motivated by cognitive empathy; a cognitive and conscious awareness in terms of how the SE was best positioned to help beneficiaries and create social impact. Whilst at senior level there was a focus on the financial sustainability, the financial outcomes linked indivisibly to both securing funding opportunities and as a means of helping beneficiaries. Therefore at this (senior) level there was a cognitive empathy in terms of consciously considering the viewpoint of the beneficiaries and how best to help them within the SE's means. Emotional disconnection was both possible and necessary because not all the senior management based in Head Office were directly connected to the frontline on a day to day basis and therefore were able to take a view from the side-line on how best to make positive and sustainable impact. The positive and effective social impact would not have been possible had the senior team not been able to cognitively empathise with the beneficiaries and the wider community. Only in being led by perspective taking and engaging with the community could the SE achieve both effective and lasting results.

> *"Leadership team are in essence casting a shadow over the organisation which will permeate the culture. So if leadership are not there for the SE and embed values it will be a very disjointed message across the organisation. …It goes back into what can we do, not what can't we do. It creates a sense of ownership as everyone owns the impact"* (participant 20.17).

The SE was well placed as a community service and its success was evident in terms of its published information and positioning in the commercial sector. The beneficiaries' stories were well placed in a lot of the SE's outfacing communication yet what lay behind the published information was in many ways more interesting. Ethnography provided many opportunities, but it also put the researcher in challenging circumstances with competing information from participants. With respect to OB dynamics between individuals within the organisational setting, the researcher approached given opinions with care and openness taking into account the significant effect relationships have in the workplace (Mills, Fleck and Kozikowski, 2013). While the senior management teams appeared well engaged with the full stakeholder model and social mission, for some employees who connected more emotionally and directly with the beneficiaries the notion of a shared vision was distorted. As the researcher noted in their Reflexive Journal: "*X rolled his eyes so slightly and smiled, he said 'I like how you mentioned 'perceived' [social good in SE]'. The frontline employee explained there was quite a difference in business and he was also referring to the wider business sector – he explained people in high-up positions can pop in on what goes on ground level and then return back to their comfy, warm offices thinking they know*" (RJ, 27.01.16). The conversation continued about power and trust dynamics in the wider business sector. While it was never made clear whether the participant was drawing parallels to the SE, it was an interesting perspective for the researcher to consider; the notion that a connection is needed in order to take perspective.

The Dynamic Capabilities approach emerges as a way of both understanding the tensions inherent in a shared vision and developing a competitive advantage (Teece and Pisano, 1994) within SE. Whilst research by Teece and Pisano (1994) focused on *firms* there are several overlaps with the current SE given its size and the challenges faced in combining commercial and social agendas. 'Dynamic' (within the term: Dynamic capabilities) refers to the ever-changing and modifying nature of the wider environment and in the case of the SE; this includes local communities. 'Capabilities' refers to the skills amassed *within* the organisation (for example, experience) and *externally* (for example, resources). The dynamic capabilities approach (as outlined by Tecce and Pisano, 1994) suggests SEs can engage with organisational learning and development which can be useful, in particular in recognising arising conflicts (Doz and Shuen, 1989; Mody, 1990). In addition, intellectual property is recognised as a competitive advantage: "Assets like values, culture and organisational experience, these capabilities generally cannot be bought; they must be built" (Teece and Pisano, 1994: 553). With regards to the tensions relating to a shared vision, the research suggests there is a gap between what an idea looks like as a process and the difference of an idea in practice (Brown and Duguid, 2000) thus creating a tension between 'dynamic' 'capabilities'. The research findings support the notion that there is often a gap between what people think they do and what they really do (Brown and Duguid, 2000) and this is supported by the conversation with X: "*People in high-up positions can*

pop in on what goes on ground level and then return back to their comfy, warm offices thinking they know" (RJ, 27.01.16). The below diagram outlines the organisational tensions between process and practice.

Table 5.3. Organisational tensions between process and practice, adapted from Brown and Duguid (2000)

PROCESS	VERSUS	PRACTICE
➣ Way tasks are organised ➣ Routine ➣ Orchestrated ➣ Assumes predictable environment ➣ Relies on explicit knowledge ➣ Linear		➣ The way tasks are done ➣ Spontaneous ➣ Improvised ➣ Responds to a changing unpredictable environment ➣ Driven by tacit knowledge ➣ Web-like
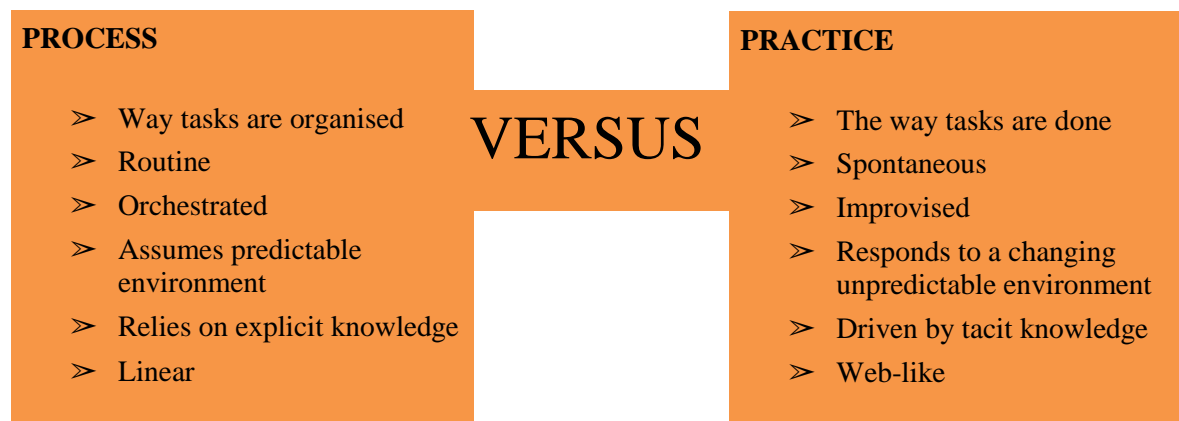
The researcher spent several weeks off-site with the communities and found that the connection the frontline SE employees had with the community was very often reciprocal. The beneficiaries stated how they had taken to petition many times over the years to support the SE and to keep the service in action. The researcher reflected on the notion of community effort and spirit between the beneficiaries and the SE. They were there for each other (the SE services and the beneficiaries) understanding how vital this service was. Sometimes in meetings with the SE employees and beneficiaries, the boundaries were blurred to the point that they shared the same agenda. There was a passion among many staff members that they were not just fulfilling a job but that they were part of something special and all responsible for making it work. Strangely because of the way the SE engaged with the community, the community also shouldered the responsibility for helping make the SE successful and it was emphasised in community meetings that this was 'their service'. This finding supported the notion that small, localised practices distributed around the organisation amount to an enormous amount of knowledge and a competitive advantage (Brown and Duguid, 2000).

> *"Actually SEs are at their best when the direction of information comes from the community and from the beneficiaries. I genuinely believe that they (SEs) have a predilection for seriously listening to their service users, is a potentially a source of sustainable competitive advantage..."* (participant 6.05).

Research conducted by Moreau and Mertens (2013) which included knowledge from ten field experts as well as data from two SE manager interviews, highlighted the tensions inherent within SE. The research developed by Moreau and Mertens (2013) identifies the challenges facing SEs given the multiple goals, resources and stakeholders that SEs engage with. The challenges were grouped into three key areas of SE management: goals, resources and stakeholders. During the fieldwork a strong sense of 'SE community' emerged in terms of the SE movement, and external stakeholders and trustees often raised this topic of conversation. Participants discussed the unique challenges facing the SE sector for example, misunderstandings about the pressures of a multi-bottom line. The challenges facing the SE community as a whole echoed true of the challenges that were also present internally in SE, namely the challenge of balancing the social and the commercial.

> *"There is a naivety about SE, if you only read stuff on Twitter there is a lot of hype compared to what is happening on the ground. There is misconception how hard it is to make something work – whilst juggling social and commercial"* (participant 4.02.1).

> *"In any organisation you need awareness and feedback if you are running it. You have to know what is going on with employees and customers. While CEO might not have all these conversations, structures need to be in place. What is the impact on people's lives? How are the people feeling?"* (participant 4.02).

> *"It is still that same message of reassurance to people that what they do is still vital to success of company. It just so happens that our success is different and we do say to people: our success is different because it – it is not about buying shareholders castles in Scotland, it is about social impact. So I guess, most people kind of know it but do they act on it day to day, probably not. So the more the CEO can reinforce that message, the better"* (participant 10.06).

The conflicts experienced by those working in the SE resonated with the theoretical conflict between the concepts of 'social' and 'enterprise' (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008) which stems from the complex role that a SE must address in order to be successful.

5.6.1. Personal beliefs and commitment

Many people involved in the SE had deep rooted reasons and motivations for joining the particular organisation. This link emerged among a number of participants as an emotional connection often related to personal growth and a sense of purpose. More surprisingly the connection was sometimes

likened to emotional contagion; as the capacity to experience emotions of others and to be affected by them (Maibom and Heidi, 2009; Carre et al., 2013). As the researcher in the field, sometimes there was an opportunity to hear a link being made between working to deliver social good and a connection to the people it affects. For some interviewees discussing their connection and motivation to their work was emotionally charged.

> *"We (the CEO and I) both share the same deep passion about SE so we get it inside here [point to chest/heart] and I felt that the first time I met him"* (participant 10.22).

Some participants felt that the move into this sector and the organisation was an important step in their working life. Interestingly, many participants felt that this type of work spoke to something deeper inside them and as a result, their motivations emerged as an emotional link and passion to help others.

> *"I always had this deep passion and drive to help people and communities that are disadvantaged. I was unable to do that in my previous roles but saw this as good platform to be able to and enable me and the team I work with to do a lot more for the communities out there that are disadvantaged for whatever reason. So that is how I came into the organisation"* (participant 10.22).

> *"I worked in (commercial business) and I got as far as I could. It was still challenging and stressful, yet nobody was going to die. It is a cliché but I was just desperate to do something that actually made a difference to somebody"* (participant 20.01).

There was also awareness among management that recruiting people who shared a connection to the mission rather than just a pay packet was desirable: *"We do not struggle to get people on our board, we want people who are passionate not just people who get paid"* (participant 20.01). This further supported research by Battilanna and Dorado (2010) on recruitment strategies that suggested investing in the organisational identity was more beneficial to the overall SE success in the long term. One participant discussed the need for there to be balance in terms of the staff team motivations: *"There have to be some people in a SE that are passionate; it does not have to be everybody. It would be great if it was but you probably need a mix because you need people who can also be rational. That is not to suggest passionate people are not rational, but you probably also need some people who are neutral to play devil's advocate"* (participant 20.01). This response from participant 20.01 sounded similar to the definition of 'emotional disconnection' that is one of the defining elements of empathy (Carre et al., 2013). Emotional disconnection enables differentiation of the *self* and *other* and is

needed in order to be able to consider what is an appropriate response in a given situation; in this case engaging in work and business that could socially benefit others.

The need to share the perspective of the beneficiaries emerged as a key consideration for people's job motivations. Connecting with beneficiaries linked closely with seeking to alleviate the social problem or ill. A defining element of empathy is the ability to imagine another person's experience as one's own (Harris, 1989). The research findings show empathy has the ability to strengthen relationships and motivate action for the benefit of others. Interpreting ethics as an individual characteristic is part of the wider academic discourse for example, Dey and Steyaert (2014:237) state: ''It is the personal values of the individual that may make the difference between the private or public sector entrepreneur and the social entrepreneur''.

> *"So if you are not considering actually considering the perspectives of the people you can be making assumptions about what they want. We need to know what their perspectives are, we need to be evaluating what we are doing and we feel we want to do good, be fair…Are we listening to that and using our processes to review, and making sure we have greater impact year on year"* (participant 20.15).

Social comparison and perspective taking is a fundamental aspect of self-knowledge and a way of organising our social world (Goldstein and Winner, 2012; Durkin, 1995). Empathy is not only important for SE beneficiaries, but nurturing empathy within an organisation is also shown to promote better results, greater job satisfaction and communication. Empathy was not only talked about in terms of it being vital for understanding and delivering social impact to local communities, but empathising with the perspective of employees and staff members is deemed important. Prior research suggests leaders who emotionally connect with their employees can be more successful in terms of influence and maintaining the welfare of their staff (Pescosolido, 2002). Previous studies suggest leaders can protect the emotional tone of the organisation by being emotionally in-tune with others in their organisation (Sy, Cote and Saavedra, 2005). Wolf et al. (2002) argue that empathy underlies the cognitive skills necessary for leadership. Research data from the field shows the importance staff and the leadership team stressed on perspective taking and supports the notion that sharing of positive and negative emotions promotes a bond between individuals (Plutchik, 1987).

> *"So I think it is absolutely vital that anyone on the leadership side of things understands what it is and what is feels like from those other perspectives"* (participant 1.08).

"It is probably one of the most important parts of his job I would say (considering beneficiary and employees' perspectives) because there is no point being here if we don't do research on the perspective" (participant 12.28).

5.6.2. Respect for others

Relating to others is essential for social interactions and essential for survival in certain circumstances for both humans and animals (De Waal, 2008). As a result, feelings of empathy may provoke one to act for the benefit of another. Research findings show that for many participants the CEO was an inspirational character, whom they held in high regard. This finding of perceived manager empathy added to a positive working relationship.

"(Perspective sharing) I think it is crucial because he (the CEO) is working with the board and looking at strategy and vision and the future and if we're not providing services in a way that service users want them or in a way that is sustainable for our employees then we can't continue to be successful" (participant 1.08).

Places of work have been recognised as emotion-laden (George, 2000) for both leadership teams and workers. It is suggested that the relationship between emotional abilities particularly empathy, and leadership perceptions has been largely overlooked in prior leadership research (George, 2000). The emergent findings from the current research suggest that the leadership style within the SE was considered one of passion, vision and collaboration: *"He is possibly the most passionate person I have ever worked with. You can have passionate directors, or heads of owners and their passion is how much money goes into their bank account, that is their passion [not this CEO's]"* (participant 4.02). These findings appropriately map on the topic of authentic leadership (Humphrey, 2004). Authentic leadership includes nurturing transparent relationships between leaders and followers. Findings from this current research also appropriately map onto transformational leadership (Bruni et al., 2004). Research suggests that an effective attitude to management is to build trust by sharing power for collective ends rather than individual ends (Rosener, 1990). Humphrey (2002) argues empathy has an instrumental role to play in developing authentic and trusting relationships as empathetic feelings motivate behaviours:

"(The relationship is) Positive, collaborative …I would say the CEO is charismatic and big character and does not need a trustee group that are all over him. He is running his organisation and it is important we are there to apply the right sort of governance but not run his business" (participant 20.17).

Those workers that had contact with the CEO described elements of the 'heroic entrepreneur' (Dey and Steyaert, 2012) and certainly they were motivated by his drive: *"He is very approachable, and he cares deeply and passionately as I do about the SE"* (participant 10.22). Some workers expressed a sense that they would like more time with the CEO but respected that he had a busy job and the SE had grown. The CEO had a positive connection to those he worked with and also those with whom he came into contact with: *"So he is very un-assuming but he can talk to anyone ... We have hard-nosed investors coming to us and he gets them onside and then he'll go chat with the community and engage with them"* (participant 4.02). However, there was a missing connection that the researcher observed over time. Attention was given to the beneficiaries and wider community as well as the senior management in general, but for those workers falling between the management structures and the frontline, there was a loss of connection. As one employee who had been with the SE for years noted: *"I think we have kind of missed that (the connection with the CEO) though, because it is more of a wider context than that now. I am very much for that (contact) because if you think about the SE and a community provider as we are, I think having that one-to-one is still vital and I think that is missing"* (participant 20.15).

5.7. Concluding thoughts

The findings of the research are:

1. Frontline staff and those who have regular contact with beneficiaries and the wider community, were closely connected with the beneficiaries on a daily basis and as a result, empathy emerged as an emotional and more immediate connection;

2. Senior staff who did not have regular contact with the beneficiaries and the wider community, and who were further removed from the 'frontline', displayed cognitive empathy by way of perspective-taking;

3. Finally, the research found that people working in SE were able to connect with people connected to the SE either by an emotional experience (point 1), or by perspective-taking (point 2). The experience of empathy emerged as crucial for the sustainability of the SE.

The researcher considered Moreau and Merten's (2013:175) work and the idea that in SE: "…the consistency between your discourse and your practice has to be stronger". It seemed that as the SE had continued to grow a connection to the social mission in some areas of the organisation had been lost. More precisely, given the size of the organisation and the challenges between competing agendas (social and commercial), this resulted in an imbalance between the *practice* and the *process* (Brown and Duguid, 2000) as identified by those at frontline level. This resulted in some of the frontline staff

expressing feelings of disjointedness, being over-worked and unappreciated given that in one office the photocopying machine needed constant repair yet they could hear through the grapevine that canapés and drinks were served at networking events, prompting responses such as: *"Well, there seems to be money for that!"* (RJ, 09.12.2015). On the other hand, some members of frontline staff expressed tensions related to a shared vision, suggesting there is a difference between *perception* and *practice* further supporting the notion that small, localised practices distributed around the organisation amount to an enormous amount of knowledge (Brown and Duguid, 2000) that can be harnessed. This research has shown that even when there were elements of disconnection between frontline staff and the organisational social mission *in process*; *in practice* the frontline staff were still engaged and connecting with the beneficiaries. It is suggested that empathy connects people and motivates action which is important for SE success. Furthermore, the research highlights empathy as a natural and inbuilt response to other people (Sagi and Hoffman, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

In order to knit the discourse and practice more tightly together, the findings of this research suggest that attention may be required at three levels: SE sector-level, organisational level and employee-levels (Cornforth, 2014; Pache and Santos, 2013). Firstly at employee-levels, it is suggested recruitment and socialisation plays a key role in SE success (Battilanna and Dorado, 2010). As a result, creating an organisational identity that combines and articulates the multi-bottom line may well begin at entry level. Secondly at organisational level, it is suggested the organisation remain selective in joining different strategies together and remaining 'dynamic' (Teece and Pisano, 1994). This suggests continuing to keep abreast of the ever-changing environment and local community needs. Thirdly at SE sector-level, it is suggested SE can remain multilingual and proficient at navigating: "…diverse worlds of meaning" (Reid and Griffith, 2006: 167) both externally and more importantly internally within the organisation.

6. Research Contributions

6.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines and discusses the five research contributions of the research: contribution one, empathy emerges as a currency in SE; contribution two, connecting with others motivates action; contribution three, empathy can be encouraged; contribution four, empathetic leadership promotes effective leadership; and contribution five, methodological contribution (ethnography and SE, and empathy and ethnography). Through observations, interviews, access to internal records, volunteering and maintaining daily reflexive journal entries, the researcher was able to collect data and glimpse an insiders' perspective of the organisation. As stated by an employee after six weeks of fieldwork: *"It's like you [the researcher] are 'one of us' now and we love having you here"* (RJ, 17.11.2016). Empathy had been examined in prior research that looked at organised work for example, in social work or education; however, there is a distinct lack of research examining the role of empathy in SE. The absence of research examining potential empathy in SE emerged as both an opportunity and a thought-provoking exercise in the current research given that SE embraces a collective approach to concern for people through the significance of its social mission, rather than a focus upon the individual in society (Hall, Miller and Millar, 2012). Empathy always necessarily requires another person; the experience of empathy is a concept that we share with other people and is one that is socially constructed (Eisenberg, 1990). One cannot for example, empathise alone. As a result, the collective coming together of people to organise and work in SE posed the question: What is the potential role of empathy in SE?

6.2. Outline of current research contributions

Prior literature review chapters in this thesis argued that an examination of the role of empathy in SE offered the opportunity to explore new areas, phenomena and possibilities within SE formation and development that had not yet been discovered (Dey and Steyaert, 2010). The concern for social good, which is the hallmark of SE suggests a potential link to empathy and the fieldwork created an opportunity to observe SE stemming from individual and collective agendas. The familiar expression of "doing good" (related to social good) and "doing well" (related to the financial bottom line) have been regularly linked to SE (Dey and Steyaert, 2010:91) and reinforce the multi-bottom line that SE's face. The notion that SEs have different aims and missions to private and third sector organisations (Seddon, Hazenberg and Denny, 2014; Dart, 2004) has been previously identified. Often SEs emerge where groups of people in society have been excluded and/or neglected and as a result, a social need requires addressing (Stephenson and Mace, 2009). It follows that a SEs mission needs to be

empathetic within the context it is positioned. For example, a SE tackling mental health needs within a certain community needs to understand the needs of the people and take on the perspective of that particular community. The inextricable link a SE needs to have to achieve "doing good" is a connection to the people in the social setting as this provides the motivation needed for action and aids "doing well" (Hourdequin, 2012; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). The SE literature review revealed that the nature of SE is complicated as it tries to resolve the demands of balancing social and financial commitments. The potential conflict between social and economic forces lie at the heart of SE (Moreau and Mertens, 2013; Alter, 2006). Prior research has also reported that managers who are more open emotionally and take time to connect with their employees can be more successful at managing the welfare of their staff (Pescosolido, 2002). This suggests that having multifaceted skills was crucial for managers to achieve success in SE.

Following five months of fieldwork, the researcher emerged with numerous data from interview analysis, observation data and analysis from her daily reflexive journal. As outlined in the Data Analysis chapter five, each data set (Interview data, Observation data, Reflexive Journal data) was analysed separately and in two stages; half way through the fieldwork and at the end of the fieldwork. Following the analysis of raw data it emerged that "reciprocal translations" were possible (Noblit and Hare, 1988:38) as the individual data sets were talking about similar things. As a result, it was possible to translate the individual accounts into one another (Noblit and Hare, 1988; Lee et al., 2015). Meta-ethnography transpired as an appropriate qualitative method as it offered: "…a rigorous procedure for deriving substantive interpretations about ethnographic or interpretive studies" (Noblit and Hare, 1988:9). With a focus on fluidity and interaction of data sets translations of data into themes was possible, with the phases of translation and synthesis often interwoven (Campbell et al., 2011). Figure 6.1 outlines the key contributions to research that emerged from the fieldwork: these include contributions to SE literature, empathy literature, leadership research as well as methodological contributions.

Figure 6.1. Research contributions

What (if any) is the role of empathy in social enterprise?

Contribution 1 *(over-aching contribution)* : Empathy emerges as a 'currency' in social enterprise

Beneficiaries (including community)

Employees

External stakeholders

Leadership (inc. senior team)

Contribution 2: Connecting with others motivates action

Employees

External stakeholders

Leadership

Beneficiaries

Contribution 3: Empathy can be encouraged

Beneficiaries

External stakeholders, Leadership and Employees

Contribution 4: Empathetic leadership = effective Leadership

Leadership

External stakeholders, Beneficiaries and Employees

Contribution 5: Methodological contribution

Ethnography and SE

Ethnography and empathy

6.2.1. Member Checks

Following full data analysis and interpretation, the researcher returned to the case study organisation to share her interpretation of the data analysis with the research participants. The planned visit took place approximately eight months following the end of the fieldwork. Attending the meeting were approximately twenty SE members, ranging from senior staff, administration and frontline employees. The researcher presented the data analysis and the four key contributions (the researcher omitted presenting the fifth methodological contribution owing to time limitations but made reference to them; please see Appendix O for a copy of the Member Checks presentation). The researcher outlined the research focus, the methodology and the data collection, and discussed the four emergent findings: one, empathy as a currency; two, empathetic communication motivates action; three, empathy can be encouraged; and four, empathetic leadership promotes effective leadership. Staff confirmed that services that were created in conjunction with the beneficiaries worked most efficiently and related to the notion of: *empathy as a currency* in SE. For example, where a community service was regularly evaluated by the beneficiaries and staff in the form of a community meeting, the two-way exchange promoted perspective-taking and sustainability. A frontline employee confirmed that she had remained in the same role for several years as she was motivated by meeting the service users on a daily basis. She added support to the research findings by explaining that the connection shared with beneficiaries was strong and influenced her job satisfaction. When presenting finding three: 'empathy can be encouraged'; some of the meeting attendees shared stories of either when they met beneficiaries for the first time or, when they heard other employees talk about making a connection between their work and the social impact, and how this positively impacted their connection to the SE. Attendees supported the research findings and raised interest for future work on comparing different-sized SEs, SEs in different sectors and different geographical locations (Please see section 7.6 Research limitations and areas for future research).

- Contribution One: Empathy as a 'currency' in SE

The current research findings suggest that empathetic communication by way of taking on others' perspectives can be instrumental in the on-going success of SE. The notion that empathy is like a 'currency' emerges as a two-way exchange between the wider beneficiaries and the SE. Furthermore, considering the wider beneficiary category as stakeholders within the SE emphasises the moral responsibility that SEs face in successfully managing financial outcomes and delivering social good.

- Contribution Two: Connecting with others motivates action

Empathy between employer and employee, as well as employee-to-beneficiary emerged as a positive motivator in SE. Due to the multifaceted nature of empathy identified as consisting of both affective, emotional and cognitive elements (Carre et al., 2013; Joliffe and Farrington, 2006), empathy transpires as not a single human experience but it can be experienced unconsciously, cognitively or consciously by being affected emotionally. Findings from the current research highlight empathy as a connection between people either arising from an emotional connection or through a cognitive awareness that one person can help another. Current field data indicates that empathy experienced either as emotional contagion or cognitive empathy motivates action.

- Contribution Three: Empathy can be encouraged

Findings from the current research suggest that empathy can occur when the conditions for potential empathy to emerge are created. The current research data suggests that individuals who shared both physical space and perspectives with beneficiaries benefitted from this contact and as a result, were more motivated and engaged with their work. Some participants found that often their connection to the social mission developed and grew over time. Field data provides evidence that when conditions were created where employees met with beneficiaries and shared their perspectives, empathy was shared which in turn proved to be a positive contributor in work.

- Contribution Four: Empathetic leadership promotes effective leadership

An emergent finding from the current research was that the senior team regularly reflected in interviews that the SE's success and growth was a 'group effort'. The leadership team promoted a sense of shared responsibility and a concern for collective rather than purely individual ends. The current research data highlighted that engaging with empathy and being more emotionally in tune with employees promoted both authentic and transparent leadership. 'Putting different clothes on' emerged as an apt metaphor to describe the challenges SE management face. The ability to work collaboratively with employees and various stakeholders emerged as crucial for effective leadership.

- Contribution Five: Methodological contributions
(a. ethnography and SE; b. empathy and ethnography)

a) Engaging with ethnography during the fieldwork enabled the researcher to embed herself and observe dynamics across departments, OB in terms of effect on culture and leadership, and the

institutional effects of the multi-bottom line. Most importantly, ethnographic methods enabled the researcher to observe changes over time. The daily contact the researcher shared with the SE enabled a better understanding of what was *said* and what was *done*. Only in spending an extended period of time in the field and mirroring the daily work pattern of employees (for example, the researcher worked the core work hours from nine am until five pm) was the researcher able to build relationships and gain a more coherent picture of how SEs approach and tackle their multi-bottom line. Using ethnographic methods to explore the nature of SE builds on prior literature and the exploration of empathy in SE provided a unique opportunity to observe motivations and organisational behaviour in the wider SE community.

b) Researching motivations and the potential role of empathy in SE using ethnographic methods highlighted the need for reflection on behalf of the researcher and a robust methodology. The important role of empathy in ethnographic method was highlighted in the current research, given that empathetic responses or lack of, on behalf of the research can affect the participants. Prior research has found empathy to be a consideration within ethnographic research owing to the amount of time the researcher spends alongside participants in the field (as emotional contagion can occur) (Maclean et al., 2012). The researcher acknowledged the notion of empathy as an aspect of ethnography, furthermore the emergence of empathy in the field of study required the researcher to be dutifully reflexive and analyse their on emergent field data given that empathy is: "…co-constructed in social interactions" (Eisenberg, 1990:141).

6.3. Contribution One: Empathy as a 'currency' in social enterprise

6.3.1. Communicating social value

Whilst in the field, the researcher observed a close collaboration between the SE and the wider beneficiaries (to include the local community). This collaboration became more apparent over the course of the fieldwork as the researcher was able to spend time not only with the SE senior team, but also with various stakeholders, employees and beneficiaries. Services run by the SE were very much considered *the beneficiaries' service* and this was highlighted in meetings when staff would seek the local communities' view and constructive feedback on how to make their services better. A finding from the current research that transpired over time was that the SE considered 'success' as something that was co-constructed between themselves and the beneficiaries. The way in which the SE would seek out the beneficiaries' perspectives was in listening to them, relating to them, considering their perspectives and as a result, they sought to put themselves in their beneficiaries' shoes. Furthermore, in working together greater social impact was achievable and social value heightened: *"By applying*

the principle of listening to your beneficiaries and being led by beneficiaries for example in brand development, you can create something that is super normally effective in business terms" (participant 6.05).

Another linked finding that the researcher observed over time was that when the SE listened to beneficiaries and regarded them as valuable 'advisors' or 'stakeholders' this respectful regard was reciprocated. In spending time with the community the researcher learnt how the community had proudly taken to petition to support the SE when they were facing cuts. In spending several months in the field, the researcher reflected on the notion of 'community spirit' between the beneficiaries and wider community, and the SE. Sometimes in meetings the way in which the SE and the beneficiaries communicated meant the divide between them was blurred as they shared the same agenda and strove for joint goals. There emerged a shared responsibility among all within the SE for making it work: *"Actually SEs are at their best when the direction of information comes from the community and from the beneficiaries"* (participant 6.05).

The current research finding of linking success to close collaboration with beneficiaries suggests that SE is created and maintained by various people in the 'SE community' (the 'SE community' comprises of: beneficiaries including the wider community, external stakeholders, the senior/leadership team and employees). Within the SE community, the SE senior team (including leadership) emerged *as* dependent on the wider beneficiary group for success as the wider beneficiary group were on the SE staff and external stakeholders. The co-dependency the SE had with the wider community and the ability to work closely together with a range of stakeholders transpired as vital for SE success. Fieldwork data identified that the SE was able to successfully combine various viewpoints and create services that were both vital and welcomed in the community. This suggests that the SE was reliant on the community for its existence and the beneficiaries were reliant on the SE for help. The current research proposes that perspective-taking enabled effective communication between the SE and the wider SE community, and perspective-taking is a key component of empathy (Plutchik, 1987; Durkin, 1995; Goldstein and Winner, 2012).

Prior research has found that the task of maintaining values often falls to the leaders and the longer-standing employees whose role it is to represent the values of the organisation as: "value carriers" (Cornforth, 2014: 13). As a result, conveying the values of an organisation is perceived as a crucial aspect of organisational life. Communicating values emerged as critically important in SE given that the social mission in SE was tied to a sense of social and/or environmental value. SEs seek to support the development of social structures and socially innovative ideas (Kerlin, 2010) shifting the focus more onto moral legitimacy (Suchman, 1995; Dart, 2004). SEs need to manage and convey the SE

mission to the wider community and prior research has reported this as an important skill in SE (Cornforth, 2014; Moreau and Mertens, 2013; Sadoul, 2003). Current research findings add support to this prior research. In addition, it is proposed that communicating values throughout the organisation is beneficial not only in terms of productivity, but also aids in the development of building community spirit. Findings from the current research suggest that what lies at the centre of community spirit in SE is the ability to take on the viewpoints and perspectives of multiple stakeholders, and to regard the beneficiaries as central to the group. Moreover, current research findings highlight the notion of empathy representing a type of 'currency'; an exchange between the SE and the wider beneficiaries and vice versa. The proposal of empathy emerging as a 'currency' in SE lends support to prior literature that has emphasised the importance of relating to others and working in more holistic ways. In addition, prior research has stressed the importance of working with communities and communicating effectively: "If you are interested in co-production, in solutions coming from communities and individuals, then you are going to have to start talking to them about how you see things, how might that work for them" (Needham and Mangan, 2011:9). The researcher proposes that given that the term: 'currency' is defined as *a system of common use* (www.oxforddictionaries.com), engaging with perspective-taking as a crucial aspect of empathy emerged especially important when those that were to be most affected by the SE impact were at the heart of the system of exchange (for example, taking on the beneficiaries' perspectives).

6.3.2. Mutual dependency

A linked emergent finding from the current research was the co-dependency the SE had with the wider community and the ability to work closely together with a range of stakeholders. This research supports and further contributes to prior research that found empathy enables people to suspend judgement and builds trust and cooperation between them (Pavlovich et al., 2012). The researcher suggests that this 'co-dependency' was possible due to empathetic communication given that empathy is defined as: "…co-constructed in social interactions" (Eisenberg, 1990:141). Fieldwork analysis suggested that the SE was able to successfully combine various viewpoints and create services that were both vital and welcomed in the community. Perspective-taking and joint goals emerged as a vital exchange between the SE and the wider community. *"…If you are not considering actually considering the perspectives of the people you can be making assumptions about what they want. We need to know what their perspectives are, we need to be evaluating what we are doing and we feel we want to do good, be fair"* (participant 20.15). Prior research identifies perspective taking as fundamental to self-knowledge and a way of both understanding and organising our social world (Goldstein and Winner, 2012; Durkin, 1995). Furthermore, a recent report entitled 'The twentieth century public servant' identified that the concept of working co-productively was highly regarded:

"The valued outcomes in public services are not things that can be delivered, they are always co-produced" (Needham and Mangan, 2011:6). This current research finding of co-dependency in SE suggests empathy is not only important for SE beneficiaries, but nurturing empathy within an organisation is also shown to promote better results, greater job satisfaction and communication. These findings contribute further to the clear distinction between empathy and altruism as this research has found that empathy is concerned with the collective good where everyone concerned benefits, as opposed to self-interest and acting wholly for the benefit of the other (Batson, Batson, Todd, Brummett, Shaw and Aldeguer, 1995). The current research suggests that empathetic communication by way of taking on others' perspectives can be instrumental in the on-going success of SE. Furthermore, considering empathy as a currency in SE by way of mutual perspective taking emphasises the moral responsibility that SE face in successfully managing financial outcomes and delivering social good.

6.3.3. A different way of doing business

Current research findings included observing that the adoption of social goals and beneficiaries' perspectives within a business setting highlighted a different way of doing business that seemed linked to SE. *"I genuinely believe you have to run the social impact and deliver like a business but you have to run them with a different set of rules. In business if something is losing money you immediately cut the service, that's what you do. With our business you have to consider the impact and it's not purely financial, it is very different"* (participant 10.30). Prior research supports the notion that engaging with business approaches and market resources to deliver social good suggests appealing to a different ethical framework, rather than one purely based in financial reward (Moreau and Mertens, 2013) that is key in SE. The skills needed to foster cooperative and successful environments require a mixture of various resources (Henry, 2010) that combines a consistency between discourse and practice of the social and economic aims (Vladek, 1998). This links SE to an ethical framework appealing to a greater sense of social justice as SEs seek to support the development of social structures and socially innovative ideas (Kerlin, 2010). *"I think… there will be an empathy with social justice if you are to work for SE I would have thought"* (participant 4.18). Furthermore, SE differs from traditional business as prior research has identified there is a shift of focus onto increased moral legitimacy (Suchman, 1995; Dart, 2004). The current research supports prior literature that states the motivations of SE as more complex in addressing social needs (Dart, 2004; Grenier, 2002). Current research findings suggest SEs are morally accountable given that the 'social' bottom line directly impacts people and their lives. As a result, the success of the social impact affects not only the SE's overall multi-bottom line but also the beneficiaries and wider community with whom the SE's success is co-created and shared.

Given the (large) size of the organisation within the current fieldwork and the challenges between competing agendas (social and commercial), the researcher observed examples of imbalances between practice and process (Brown and Duguid, 2000); this was highlighted by those at the frontline level. The researcher observed this imbalance occurred most often, when there was a miscommunication across the organisation. For example, when staff in frontline positions expressed feelings of being over-worked with limited resources, these feelings of frustration were amplified when they overheard talk of catered networking events taking place at senior level. Interestingly, the researcher observed that even when there were elements of disconnection of perspective taking between frontline staff and the senior team, in practice, the frontline staff were still engaged and connecting with the beneficiaries stating that: *"I am passionate about giving a chance to [beneficiaries] who might be lonely, unemployed, out of work, isolated"* (participant 18.07). This finding suggests that given the range of actors in SE (stakeholders, staff, senior team, beneficiaries and the local community), perspective taking unites people and motivates action, which is important for common ground building and SE success. Furthermore, the current research supports prior literature that proposes empathy as a natural and inbuilt response to other people (Sagi and Hoffman, 1976; Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989).

Pavlovich and Krahnke's (2012) research highlights that in feeling the suffering of another person we connect with them either emotionally or cognitively and this exposes the human need for mutual dependency. Empathy has become established as multifaceted and not predominately located within a specific field, but it interlinks various experiences (Jensen and Moran, 2012; Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012). Empathy is not a single human experience; it can be experienced consciously (emotionally or cognitively) or unconsciously as imitation or 'mirror neurons' (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012). Fundamentally, empathy requires the ability to disconnect in order to differentiate between self and other (Carre et al., 2013). Indeed, prior research suggests sharing positive and negative emotions is beneficial, as engaging with others promotes a bond between individuals (Plutchik, 1987). The current research analysis has found that in order for the SE to identify and address a social problem the senior team, employees and stakeholders must feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE, given that perspective-taking is required to firstly identify a social problem. Having a connection to the beneficiaries is identified as important for various employees in the SE especially due to the often challenging nature of work and the requirement to go beyond the job description when dealing with vulnerable people within the community, for example, there may be an element of unpredictability. Furthermore, maintaining and nurturing the social mission within the organisation emerges as a responsibility shared by all. It is suggested that sharing perspectives and coming together with joint goals unites people and motivates action which is crucial for SE success. This finding suggests that empathy experienced as perspective taking on behalf of others, emerges as a key

consideration for success in SE. It therefore follows that indeed empathy may be a crucial differentiator for success in SEs when compared to other purely commercial organisations.

6.4. Contribution Two: Connecting with others motivates action

6.4.1. Connecting with others

Current research findings identified that those employees, senior team members, stakeholders and volunteers who had regular contact with beneficiaries spoke of how this contact had a positive effect on their work: *"You've got to have that personal interaction with what you are doing and the beneficiary groups otherwise it does not quite click and work"* (participant 10.22). This emergent finding from the current research supported the notion that empathy between people who come into direct contact with one another exposes a key aspect of social interactions: the capacity to understand and empathise with the cognitive states of others (Iacoboni and Dapretto, 2007). Considering how another is feeling in a given situation requires perspective-taking (Lamm, Batson and Decety, 2007; Batson, Early and Salvarini, 1997) as different emotions require different responses. As reported by Iacoboni and Dapretto (2007), the more time people spend with other people the more they are likely to imitate them (given the link of imitation and development behaviour by Meltzoff and Prinz, 2002) and as a result, they are more disposed to be empathetic.

During fieldwork, the researcher observed strong connections between people, which in turn motivated their action: *"I see recipients of the service… I felt strongly that I did have a link to what some of what we're doing... I feel I have a connection"* (participant 10.30). This aforementioned participant expressed the need to 'see recipients of the service' as it related to them feeling connected with the overall social mission and purpose. This display of perspective-taking in the current research strongly suggests either an emotional or cognitive connection is necessary for motivating action in SE. This finding from the current research strongly supports prior research that has characterised empathy as a strong motivation for pro-social actions that ultimately enhances the welfare of others (Hourdequin, 2012; Mason and Bartak, 2010). The emergence of empathy as a strong influence for motivating action in SE suggests pro-social motivations are key for SEs, given the centrality of their social mission and concern with enhancing the wellbeing of others. Prior research indeed highlights that empathy aids connection between people and exposes the need for collaboration and co-dependency for survival (DeWaal, 2008; Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012). Furthermore, prior research has identified the importance of: "…whole person approaches in working with and for members of the public" (Needham and Mangan, 2011:6).

6.4.2. Cognitive connections

The current research data established that an important aspect in SE is working together for mutually beneficial gains: *"That is what it is all about at the end of the day - all the cogs need to work together: the community, the team, the staff, the boards, our investors: all of us [need to] come together"* (participant 4.02). The ability to understand a situation has profound implications for SEs whose primary aim is to assess a social ill and implement action to remedy it. Furthermore to 'assess' a social ill requires perspective-taking and cognitive skills. The researcher observed cognitive empathy in the field, which in turn enabled common ground building to make beneficiaries' situations better and the SE a success. *"If we're not providing services in a way that service users want them or in a way that is sustainable ...then we can't continue to be successful"* (participant 1.08). This aspect of empathy (cognitive empathy) was observed among the senior team whose responsibility it was to create social impact and lead the organisation. Prior research has suggested that whilst SE's entrepreneurial activities produce some accumulation of wealth, SEs' intention is to invest in furthering social needs and helping people (Maclean et al., 2012; Shaw et al., 2012; Bishop and Green, 2008; Schervish et al., 2005). Caring about beneficiaries, understanding their viewpoints and wanting to help is crucial for SE as identified by prior research, given that SE is recognised as a business with a social conscience (Harding, 2010). Preston and de Waal (2002) suggested that in order to connect with another person, one needs to review the given situation, adjust behaviour and respond accordingly. Findings from the current research suggest that cognitive empathy is a crucial skill among the senior team given that tailoring services in a way that is required by beneficiaries requires perspective taking, cognitive empathy and a commitment to the SE's mission. This finding supports prior research that has found that cognitive empathy enables one to consider another person's viewpoint by wanting to see their perspective (Gerdes et al., 2010) as it enhances the ability to imagine how another is concerned by a situation (Gerdes et al., 2010; Stotland, 1969).

Current research findings and the emergence of cognitive empathy in SE map onto prior research on the topic of empathy and post-conflict reconciliation. Research by Dutton (2006) suggests that empathy is crucial in social events and enables one to react to others as relating to others promotes common ground building. Prior research has found empathy crucial in such circumstances as post-conflict situations, as the ability to react appropriately to the needs of others in emergency situations where decisions impact lives is fundamental.

6.4.3. Link to Organisational Behaviour

Findings from the current research suggest OB research is particularly important in SE as SE's engage with a large range of beneficiaries to include the community, intended beneficiaries, employees, and stakeholders, and they all benefit from the SE doing well. Understanding the term 'beneficiaries' as encompassing not only the intended beneficiaries in the community but also the employees emerged as a vital consideration for many employees: *"[SE) their goal is to help community, but part of the community are employees so you can't be actually doing something good and not care about employees as that is something that is against your own goal"* (participant 22.07). Prior research has identified OB as linked to the organisation's basic values and beliefs that are shared by the members of the organisation (Borkowski, 2009). The focus of OB is noteworthy given that in SE, values and beliefs are also shared and cultivated not only by the organisation staff, but also by the beneficiaries and wider community. Therefore providing employees opportunity to develop their knowledge of the organisation they with can positively impact their commitment and nurture a: "…culture of sustainability" within organisations (Haugh, 2010:394). Prior research on OB is of interest in the current research given SE organisational members' diverse backgrounds, as prior literature suggests OB explores the cultures of its individuals (Goldstein and Winner, 2012). The study of various human factors at work emerged as a scientific research concern in the 1930s; it focused on managers and workers with an interest in feelings, values, beliefs and assumptions (Brief and Weiss, 2002). Since the 1930s nurturing positive psychological principles has become of growing importance in organised places of work, not only as a way of understanding the motivations of workers, but also as a way of developing organisational success (Mills et al., 2013). The study of OB is of particular significance in the current research given that the study of OB is defined as being concerned with the motivations of stakeholders and staff and organisational impact (Borkowski, 2009). Current research findings suggest that due to the reliance the SE has on its beneficiaries and vice versa (the co-dependency to maintain success), understanding motivations of beneficiaries transpires as not only necessary but also advantageous in SE research and SE success. As a result, a recommended future area of study could include re-visiting OB literature to consider its application in SE settings, given that SE's beneficiaries can be considered members of the organisation.

6.5. Contribution Three: Empathy can be encouraged

6.5.1. Promoting empathy

The notion that promoting empathy can be positive for SE emerged from the current research data, which suggested that individuals who connected with other people were more motivated and engaged

with their work. Once connections were established with beneficiaries (for example, connections that were previously missing) employees felt more passionately about their work and as a result, their purpose in the organisation. In one key interaction, an employee achieved both an emotional and a cognitive link between his work and the social impact that his work produced. *"It [the course (see footnote 12 for further information on 'the course') and subsequent knowledge of SE] has changed my approach to work... it helps me get out of bed in the morning"* (RJ, 22.10.2015). This finding from the current research supports prior research reporting that empathy can be learned given that it is a socially constructed phenomenon (Kaplan and Iacoboni, 2006; Gerdes and Segal, 2011). More specifically, the researcher proposes that conditions for empathy to emerge can be created and demonstrated as prior literature has promoted through the promotion of common goals and intentionality (Hourdequin, 2012).

Current research findings suggest empathy can be encouraged given that it is a socially constructed phenomenon and prior research supports this notion (Kaplan and Iacoboni, 2006; Gerdes and Segal, 2011). *"When I came here I didn't really understand what I was here for... Over time you get to understand the nuts and bolts of it and you go out and meet the people you've had an effect on... I only know that because I spend a lot of time out of here, which is where I prefer to be"* (participant 10.30). Sharing 'success' in any organisation is an exercise in: "...creating and maintaining meaning" (Lodahl and Mitchell, 1980:186; Cornforth, 2014). Whilst perspective taking can be encouraged, the researcher proposes that empathy cannot be guaranteed or manufactured as the factors that affect emotional connections with others are shaped by many factors including individual differences. Prior research in the field of developmental psychology and SLT has suggested that like other behaviours, pro-social tendencies are learned either by social reinforcement or by punishment (Durkin, 1995). A limitation of the current research was that the researcher was unable to test to a greater extent why some people clearly benefited from connecting with beneficiaries, perspective taking and common ground building with others, while others did not. Given that empathy emerged as a feature within SE in the current research analysis, it is suggested an interesting area of future study might include considering individual differences and organisational structures that may promote empathy as this may impact both recruitment and job satisfaction.

A current research finding includes observing that participants' connection to the social mission developed and grew over time. This gradual connection to the SE mission over time aligns with prior research that identified that success in any organisation is an exercise in: "...creating and maintenance of meaning" (Lodahl and Mitchell, 1980:186; Cornforth, 2014). In the current research this was evidenced by an employee perceiving their job as more meaningful as a result of engaging and connecting with a beneficiary. In creating a shared space and in sharing stories between staff and

beneficiaries, connections were made possible. "*I am very lucky sometimes I see recipients of the service… I feel I have a connection*" (10.30). It emerged that a stronger connection between ends and means was possible through engaging with beneficiaries empathetically given that they were at the centre of the mission. The term 'being engaged' emerged in several interviews: *"There is a definite link between staff that are engaged and staff that are not engaged"* (participant 10.22). The quotation supports prior literature reporting that empathy with SE beneficiaries aids the development of SE as human connections are promoted (Gerdes et al., 2010). It also supports the idea that for those participants who had a cognitive link and connection to what they were doing, the connection enabled them to be more engaged. Linguistically, the use of the word 'engaged' originated in the early fifteenth century, taken from French 'engagier' meaning: to bind. The etymology of the word suggests that when participants spoke of the need for staff to be more *engaged* it is possible they meant one had to connect or bind with the social mission by way of perspective taking. The current research findings support the notion that the dissolution of barriers between people through engaging with empathy enables them to engage with another, which in turn promotes common ground building in social situations.

The researcher proposes that conditions for empathy to emerge can be created and promoted over time. It is suggested that in learning more about SE and its intended beneficiaries - employees, stakeholders and the senior team can understand their jobs as more meaningful and connected to the social mission. A stronger connection between creating and maintaining meaning was possible when structures were put in place so that employees met beneficiaries and cognitively connected the shared goals of the SE. The researcher proposes that a link between what employees 'do' and how this impacts the beneficiaries leads to a greater sense of purpose in work (Bandura, 1991; Bandura, 1990; Sternberg and Kolligian 1990, Parkinson and Howorth, 2008) and this is especially important in SE given its range of beneficiaries. The senior team displayed cognitive empathy as opposed to sympathy as they had reflective structures in place to review processes and consider whether their social impact was effective and true to their social mission. As a result, the researcher proposes that perspective taking, which is a central aspect in empathy was utilised not only as a means of identifying a social need in the first place, but perspective taking was employed in evaluating social impact and social value.

6.5.2. Emotional connections

Prior research on pro-social studies explore empathy as concern for someone else's emotional state or condition as an inbuilt reaction (Eisenberg and Mussen, 1989) and findings from the current research suggest that for a large number of employees, connecting with beneficiaries was a natural and innate

response. An emergent finding from the current research was those staff who had more immediate, daily and emotional contact with beneficiaries found it beneficial to their work: *"You may sit at the top of the tree, but you still need to know what is going on down below and in the wider ether"* (participant 10.22). For many participants, staying connected to what was going on at ground level was equally important to managing at senior level. Prior research has linked empathy to imitation and imitation has been shown to be central in human development (Meltzoff and Prinz, 2002; Meltzoff, 1970). Furthermore, literature on the notion of imitation (Iacoboni and Dapretto, 2007) found that reading others peoples' body language - verbal and non-verbal gestures is vital in improving social skills. The findings of the current research demonstrated those in regular contact with beneficiaries and the wider community benefitted from contact with others, many suggesting it was vital for organisational success: *"If you think about the SE and a community provider as we are, I think having that one-to-one is still vital"* (participant 20.15). This offered strong support to prior literature that has stated leaders have better contact with their employees when they take genuine interest in their welfare (Taylor, 1911). Pavlovich and Krahnke's (2012) research highlights that in feeling the suffering of another person, we connect in a shared reality exposing the human need for mutual dependency. This notion of benefit from shared reality and mutual dependence reported in prior research, was supported in the current research findings that demonstrated positive outcomes when beneficiaries and frontline employees came into contact on a daily basis through sharing the same spaces. The notion of sharing space over time can promote feelings of connection as is well documented, also in ethnography. Maclean (2012:576) states: "Intimacy is a general possibility of human face-to-face relationships, the more so as they are sustained over time". In sharing perspectives the boundaries between self and other become blurred to the extent that individual social problems become a shared problem.

6.5.3. Cognitive empathy

Whilst frontline employees were in regular contact with beneficiaries and the community, many of the senior team were located in a Head Office separate from the frontline departments. Interestingly, those senior team members that made regular contact with beneficiaries and the wider community noted this contact as crucial to their role. *"[When] I get to speak to our beneficiaries… even if the rest of the year has been a grim fistfight… it is almost like going on holiday because it is the reason we are doing stuff"* (participant 4.05). In contrast an employee whose role did not require regular connection with beneficiaries stated: *"No to be honest, I don't [have a connection to the SE]. I suppose I have a genuine feeling of care and people should not be alone, but I don't have specific links to our groups"* (participant 10.27). An interesting area of future work could include studying the impact connecting with beneficiaries has on staff performance and productivity (particularly at senior

level). These findings from the current research indicate that the nature of SE is mutually dependent between the SE and the community. When staff connected with the SE vision, the mutual dependency between the community and SE was exposed more readily. This finding supports prior research that has proposed that the cognitive process of emotional regulation is crucial in the experience of empathy in order to protect against the observer being overcome by empathy leading to distress (Gross, 1998). The cognitive ability to regulate or disconnect from empathy as Carre et al. (2013) asserts, plays a key role in empathy and distinguishes it from sympathy. An observation from the current research suggests that the senior team were motivated by cognitive empathy; a cognitive, thought-through awareness of how the SE was best positioned to help beneficiaries and create social impact in the wider community: *"We can't be a good SE unless we are a good enterprise"* (participant 10.01). This indicated that members of the senior team understood the relationship between financial sustainability and the means to help beneficiaries. This understanding suggests that there was cognitive empathy experienced by senior management in relation to the beneficiaries revealing a strong focus on both means and ends.

6.6. Contribution Four: Empathetic leadership promotes effective leadership

The ethnographic approach used in the current research enabled the researcher to embed herself in a SE in order to 're-search' SE in a natural, observational way thus avoiding illusions and myths (Dey and Steyaert, 2010). During the months of fieldwork the researcher had the opportunity to review her own assumptions by clarifying concepts in interviews, in observations and in reflecting on daily events in her Reflexive Journal. In 're-searching' SE, SE emerged as complex, but also not dissimilar to other organisations that have to balance the requirements of various stakeholders: *"[My feeling is] We're not yet organisationally/structurally, we're not of a qualitative difference of a different nature to traditional capitalist businesses"* (participant 10.07). The current research supports the notion that SE definition remains defined by a comprehensive range of organisational actors (Teasdale, 2011; Simmons, 2008). The concepts of 'social' and 'enterprise' have been at times considered conflicting (Paton, 2003; Pearce 2003; Cho, 2006; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008). The 'social entrepreneur' works to fulfil the social mission the SE is defined by, through the application of entrepreneurial skills in order to achieve financial sustainability (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman, 2009). The discord between the concepts of 'social' and 'enterprise' (Parkinson and Howorth, 2008) stems from the complex role that a SE must address in order to be successful. The current research has found that in order for the SE to identify and address a social problem, the social entrepreneur must feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE: *"I think… there will be an empathy with social justice if you are to work for SE"* (participant 4.18).

Prior research suggests leaders who emotionally connect with their employees can be more successful in terms of influence and maintaining the welfare of their staff (Pescosolido, 2002). Since the early twentieth century fostering positive psychological principles has become of growing significance in organised places of work (Brief and Weiss, 2002; Mills et al., 2013). Prior research suggests that an effective attitude to management is to build trust by sharing power for collective ends rather than individual ends (Rosener, 1990). Prior studies suggest leaders can protect the emotional tone of the organisation by being emotionally in-tune with others in their organisation (Sy et al., 2005). In order to be moral, two key elements are suggested: one, attunement to others emotions through empathy and two, attunement to others ends through joint attention and shared intentionality (Hourdequin, 2012). Prior research has found that leaders of SEs often have to manage several roles and: "Managers of SEs so often have to be multilingual …capable of moving between very diverse worlds of meaning" (Paton, 2003: 167; Reid and Griffith, 2006). George (2000) proposed that empathy positively impacts upon management in organisations due to generating positive feelings in others. In addition, prior research suggests that the emotional capabilities of managers play a part in the development of emotional contagion (Bono and Ilies, 2006). It is suggested empathetic managers are more effective at enhancing good moods and diminishing negative moods within the organisation (Plutchik, 1987) and Wolf et al. (2002) argues that empathy underlies the cognitive skills necessary for leadership. Findings from the current research support this prior literature and add emphasis to the importance of empathetic qualities in leadership in SE.

6.6.1. Empathy and leadership

Empathy emerges from the current research as important for relationships in SE: *"We (the CEO and I) both share the same deep passion about SE so we get it inside here [point to chest/heart] and I felt that the first time I met him"* (participant 10.22). In addition, nurturing empathy within an organisation was also shown to promote better results, greater job satisfaction and communication. During fieldwork, empathy was not only discussed in terms of it being vital for understanding and delivering social impact that beneficiaries wanted, but empathising with the perspective of employees and staff members was also highlighted as important: *"[SE) their goal is to help community, but part of the community are employees"* (participant 22.07). Prior research suggests leaders who emotionally connect with their employees can be more successful in terms of influence and maintaining the welfare of their staff (Pescosolido, 2002). Also, while it is suggested that empathy between managers and employees could promote effective leadership, there has been minimal research in this area (Kellet et al., 2006; Pillai and Williams, 2004). What this research has contributed is the great importance on perspective-taking on behalf of the social entrepreneur. This further supports research on the topic of sharing positive and negative emotions, as engaging with others promotes a bond

between individuals (Plutchik, 1987). *"It is probably one of the most important parts of his [the CEO's] job I would say [considering beneficiary and employees' perspectives] because there is no point being here if we don't do research on the perspectives"* (participant 12.28). The finding that empathy is necessary in SE leadership is further supported by prior literature that has suggested the notion of 'leadership' could be dispersed throughout the organisation (Needham and Mangan, 2011). In addition, findings from the current study on SE leadership map sympathetically onto findings from public service work: "We should offer a career in community leadership. The 21st century public servant should be able to cross organisational boundaries" (Needham and Mangan, 2011:6).

6.6.2. Transformational and authentic leadership

Prior research findings on emotional leadership also link to the topic of authentic leadership (Humphrey, 2004). Authentic leadership includes nurturing transparent relationships between leaders and followers. Participants in the current research also addressed the notion of transformational leadership in interviews (Bruni et al., 2004). Transformational leadership research suggests that an effective attitude to management is to build trust and collaboration among staff (Rosener, 1990). This suggests sharing intentions and responsibility for the vision among others is vital in organisations. This not only promotes a sense of ownership and transparency but encourages a greater link between means and ends by bringing together the financial and social objectives (Haugh, 2014). *"To be a regional manager then I would say you would need to have an empathy with the mission in some form and I think that would be the same in any SE"* (participant 4.18). George (2000) proposed that empathy positively impacts upon management in organisations due to generating positive feelings in others. The environments that entrepreneurs work in are liable to change and can be fairly unpredictable (Baron, 2008). Therefore a social entrepreneur's role emerges as multifaceted; whilst managing a sustainable organisation the social entrepreneur must at the same time balance the needs of the individuals involved in the SE and the SE's social impact. Current research findings suggest it is of growing importance that an entrepreneur is both able to lead the organisation and at the same time remain part of the collective organisation empathising with employees, stakeholders and beneficiaries to ensure the success of the enterprise. Emergent findings from the current research support the notion that the act of leadership requires a thoughtful understanding of interpersonal relations and how they interact: *"People at a certain level will have to have a huge empathy with the mission"* (participant 4.18). This level of awareness often itself demands a deeper understanding and ability to take another's perspective (Rozuel and Ketola; Pienaar, 2009). The current research finding that suggests empathetic leadership impacts positively in SE provides a contribution to prior research suggesting that a different set of leadership skills are required in public service delivery (Needham and Mangan, 2011:18): "The kind of leadership which is required now is seen to favour a different

skills set to the 'fix it' leadership of the past'. Leaders also need to be self-aware and emotionally intelligent". The finding suggests a rejection of prior literature and popular media forums that suggests social entrepreneurs as unsung heroic figures (Anderson, 2005). Instead, it is argued that the notion of a single 'hero' figure is the opposite of what is required in SE, both in terms of employee motivation, effective leadership and ultimate SE success. The various members of the SE (employees, stakeholders, leadership, beneficiaries and the local community) are indeed crucial to the overall success of the organisation and acknowledging the importance of each SE member fosters empathy and job satisfaction.

The current research data identified that staff and the leadership team stressed great importance on perspective-taking on behalf of the social entrepreneur. This suggests that sharing the social mission and responsibility for maintaining the social mission among staff is central as it not only promotes a sense of ownership and transparency, but encourages a greater link between means and ends. Furthermore, it is suggested that having empathetic managers who connect with wider beneficiaries promotes a greater sense of trust within the organisation. The researcher suggests that the positive and effective social impact that the case study SE achieved and built year on year, could not have been possible had the senior team not been able to cognitively empathise with the beneficiaries and the wider community. This finding has shown that empathy improves the understanding of SE within the organisation and supports prior literature that argued empathy aids the development of just and sustainable social structures and organisations (Gerdes et al., 2010). Only in being led by perspective taking and engaging with the community could the SE achieve both effective and lasting results.

6.7. Contribution Five: Methodological contributions

6.7.1. Ethnography and social enterprise

Given the large amount of members in the case study SE (senior team, employees, volunteers, beneficiaries and stakeholders) and the balancing of the SE's social and commercial goals, building relationships and working alongside people emerged as vital in the current research. The researcher proposes that a contribution from the current research includes providing a perspective into the everydayness of SE life and individual motivations owing to the ethnographic methodology used. As proposed by prior research, ethnographic methods are often used in order to provide contextual and meaningful data (Crouch and Mckenzie, 2006) and to discover and explore cultural phenomena with the aim of understanding the point of view of the research participants. Engaging with ethnography during the fieldwork enabled the researcher to embed herself and observe dynamics across departments, OB and the institutional effects of the multi-bottom line. Most importantly, ethnographic

methods enabled the researcher to observe changes over time and to consider any differences between what was *said* and what was *done*. This contribution builds on prior ethnographic research in SE, and offers original contributions given the nature of the fieldwork itself. The researcher spent five months, full time in one organisation and maintained reflexive and sensitive so as not to over-power any emergent findings by conducting semi-structured interviews, observing, further reading and keeping a daily reflexive journal. As a result of the fieldwork design, the researcher had one sole aim: to explore motivations, organisational behaviour and potential empathy within SE. Given the lack of agreement on the meaning of SE, given SEs do not precisely fit the domains of private, public or non-profit organisations (Haugh, 2005; Haugh, 2014), this research sought to tell the participants' story. The fieldwork took place in a successful SE that had been making a difference to the lives of people for several decades. The researcher felt it was appropriate to embed herself in the organisation, to let the data emerge and to utilise methods such as ethnography and reflexive analysis methods such as GT, CCM, and NI, in order to portray as true an account as possible from the roots level up.

Another aspect of ethnographic methods that the researcher engaged with, was building relationships due to the sustained contact maintained over time. Indeed, prior research has identified that connections and relationships are possible over prolonged periods of time (Maclean, 2012). Consequently owing to the time spent in the field, the researcher was able to go back to clarify statements and observe SE OB and motivations from the 'in-side'. The researcher was not only able to observe participants whilst in the field, but opportunities arose to volunteer for the SE, take part in training and courses and spend hours with the wider SE community. As a result, the researcher was able to be alongside participants in their natural settings and share their experiences and learn over time (Dey and Teasdale, 2016). Engaging with notions such as 'listening', 'giving voice to' and 'participative research' (Warming, 2011:39) supported the researcher in accurately observing social phenomena. By engaging with the research participants on a daily basis, the researcher was able to become 'one of them' and was able to blur the boundaries between the 'researcher' and the 'researched', as supported by a participant during the fieldwork: *"It's like you [the researcher] are 'one of us' now…"* (participant X). The data supports prior research that suggests ethnography and the reflexive skills required by the researcher are closely related to empathy (Evans, 2006; Gerdes, Segal and Lietz, 2010; Henry, 2012). During the fieldwork the researcher discovered that ethnographic methodology requires interpersonal processes and social skills whereby the researcher considers another person's perspective. In 'giving voice to' and 'listening' to the participants (Warming, 2011), the researcher was able to link the cognitive experience of empathy with empathetic accuracy, which prior research has identified as crucial in ethnography (Eisenberg et al., 1994; Gross, 1998).

Another key contribution that the current research proposes is the observation of a cognitive empathy among the senior team over time. The senior team were motivated by cognitive empathy; a cognitive, thought-through awareness of how the SE was best positioned to help beneficiaries and create social impact in the wider community. This finding that emerged over time was discoverable due to ethnographic methods used and the researcher's sustained contact with the SE. Prior SE literature has attracted a breadth of definitions from defining SE as a voluntary organisation concerned with supplying public/social services (Di Domenico, Tracey and Haugh, 2009) to a business with a social conscience (Harding, 2010). As a result of various descriptions, SE as a field remains accommodating to various definitions (Teasdale, 2011; Department for Trade and Industry, 2002). Only in spending an extended period of time in the field and mirroring the daily work pattern of employees, volunteers and beneficiaries (for example, working from nine am until five pm) was the researcher able to build relationships and gain a more coherent picture of how SE approach and tackle their multi-bottom line. As a result of continued contact, observation and sharing of workspace with participants, the researcher observed the cognitive empathy among senior staff that would not have been as easily discoverable had an alternative methodology been used. The researcher suggests that a contribution of this research includes observing and reporting on the reality of SE from ground level up. There is much prior literature on the nature of SE conceptually and ideologically (Paton, 2003; Pearce, 2003; Dees 2004; Parkinson and Howorth, 2008) and also on the nature of management in SE (Parkinson, 2005; Cho, 2006; Spear, 2006). However, this research has considered the wider stakeholder engagement without the aim of testing a researcher's hypothesis. In borrowing the terms 'practice' and 'process' from Brown and Duguid (2000), this research offers a contribution to SE research as it has considered what an idea looks like in process and the difference in practice. The connection between theory and practice is important for research and especially so for SE research (Haugh, 2012), given the impact SE have on local communities.

6.7.2. Ethnography and empathy

Sharing space over time can encourage connection between people as can be observed in everyday life, and the same is true in ethnographic methods: "Intimacy is a general possibility in human face-to-face relationships, the more so as they are sustained over time" (Maclean, 2012:576). A finding that developed over the course of the fieldwork is that empathy is intimately tied to ethnography owing to the researcher's genuine interest in their participants and their environment. In the current research, the researcher sought to observe and explore the potential role of empathy in SE from the perspective of the research participants. With a commitment to listening to the participants and a genuine interest in interpreting the truest account possible, the researcher chose ethnographic methods in order to give a voice to various members within a SE. The researcher's aim was to explore the potential role of

empathy in SE. With a vast amount of prior literature linking empathy to social life (Goleman, 2002; Gerdes et al., 2010; Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012) the researcher's goal and indeed challenge lay in conducting her fieldwork and accurately reporting on social phenomena observed in the SE, while maintaining her position as unbiased. Prior research has indeed found that ethnography has been used in difficult to reach areas of society and is often used to give a voice to unrepresented groups for example, young people (Warming, 2011; Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008). The current research findings support prior research that has identified a strong link between empathy and ethnography suggesting empathy enables interesting insights into social behaviours (Henry, 2012; Hollan and Throop, 2011).

The following two questions arise: given that empathy is linked to ethnography (as outlined above), is it possible that empathy emerged as a 'finding' in the current research due to the methodology? Secondly, given the aim of the current research was to explore OB and the potential role of empathy in SE, as a result of looking out for potential empathy, was this pre-requisite to finding it? Summarily, the researcher proposes the answer to the first question is 'yes' and the answer to the second question is 'no'; however both these questions will be addressed in greater detail beginning with: Did empathy emerge in the current research due to the methodology? As outlined in the preceding section, empathy and ethnography have been linked in prior research. Responsivity and perspective taking of others' experience emerges as crucial in social research when the researcher seeks to give a voice to the social phenomenon (Davis, 1980). Creating cooperative and interactive environments is related to empathy as prior literature has suggested empathy enables people to suspend judgement (Pavlovich and Krahnke, 2012) and this is an important factor in ethnographic research (Henry, 2012).

The current research finding that empathy is indeed closely linked to ethnography supports prior research (Evans, 2006; Hollan and Throop, 2011; Henry, 2012); however, the researcher also suggests that the design of the current research contributed to this finding. During the fieldwork the researcher was motivated by a commitment to observing and reporting the participants' viewpoint and as a result, the researcher wanted to gain as natural account of SE as possible. From the beginning of the fieldwork, the researcher 'worked' alongside her participants during the identified core hours of work. The very nature of coming into work, taking ones coat off, making tea, settling into work, taking a set lunch break and so on, mirrored the work experience of the participants on a daily basis. As a result, this contributed to the researcher sharing in the experience of the participants and in return, the participants became more familiar and used to the researcher being there. The issue of trust and power is both an ethical and a practical challenge for the ethnographic researcher who pursues an honest account of people and cultures. The dilemma that faces ethnographers is one related to trust among their participants (Warming, 2011). The researcher proposes that in sharing space and working

practices with the participants, the researcher created valuable relationships and learnt about participants and their perspectives in an accurate and perceptive way. In return, participants became used to the researcher being in their natural setting.

The acceptance of the researcher being in the field came over time as the researcher was able to maintain transparency whilst maintaining ethical standards of confidentiality among participants. By attuning to the participants (Warming, 2011) the researcher was more accurately able to read, represent and participate in the social phenomena with the use of several research tools (interviews, observation and a daily reflexive journal). As a result, the researcher became unavoidably involved in the social setting itself which has been identified as important in ethnographic research (Evans, 2006). The reflexive daily journal emerged as a crucial research tool in both documenting and reflecting on experiences in the field. In wanting to share participants' perspectives and cognitively understand their motivations, empathy emerged as a finding in ethnography in the current research. Furthermore, discovering empathy as closely related to ethnography in the current research emerged as not only an interesting finding given that it supports prior literature, but the researcher proposes that empathy defined as both emotional, cognitive and emotional disconnection (Carre et al., 2012) towards the participants was necessary. Engaging with emotional contagion (emotional empathy) through sharing space enabled the researcher to share participants' perspectives. In emotionally disconnecting and reflexively engaging with cognitive empathy the researcher considered the cognitive processing of another person's perspective.

With a commitment to perspective taking, reflexivity and giving a voice to the participants which prior literature identifies as crucial in ethnography (Davis, 1980; Warming, 2011), the researcher addresses the second question: As a result of looking for potential empathy in the current research, was this a pre-requisite to finding it? The researcher asserts the answer as 'no' on two accounts: one, given the ethical responsibility of the research; and two, owing to the robust methodological tools engaged with during fieldwork and in the research analysis. Through fully empathetically engaging with participants, the researcher necessarily differentiated between *the self* and *other* (Carre et al., 2013); the *other* being the research participants. Engaging with empathy highlighted the importance and commitment of telling the participants' story through a genuine interest in discovering the meaning and reality of their world, with a care not to overshadow findings by the researcher's own cultural and historical beliefs. By adopting a critical realist approach and by remaining dedicated to making sense of underpinning mechanisms (Bygstad and Munkvold, 2011), the researcher committed to observing what was discoverable during fieldwork whilst acknowledging empathy as socially constructed (Kaplan and Iacoboni, 2006; Gerdes and Segal, 2011). Finally, engaging in various data collection methods emerged as crucially important for the current research. The interview data

enabled the voice of the participants to emerge and the numerous observations, voluntary work and daily reflexive journal entries provided a crucial space for the researcher to consider how she affected the research over time by being in the field and sharing the same space as the participants.

6.8. Summary

Engaging with ethnographic methods enabled the researcher to provide an account about the nature of SE as experienced from inside the organisation. In so doing, the researcher was able to observe and highlight the important and relevant role empathy has within SE as a whole. Ethnographic methods and the amount of valuable time spent in the field allowed the researcher space to find her footing in a new environment and to make connections. Importantly, working alongside participants enabled the researcher to seek out clarifications instead of making rash judgements and assumptions. In connecting with participants over time, the researcher undertook a challenge and a privilege of telling a story through the researchers' words about participants' experiences in SE. Empathy relates to OB in many ways as identified by the prior literature outlined in this chapter. However, what this current research has emphasised is that empathy emerges not only as an interesting social phenomenon between people, but that empathy and empathetic communication permeates various layers of SE interaction. Furthermore, empathy in SE transpires as both an adaptable and indispensable 'tool' for leadership, management, for implementing change and most importantly, for 'doing good' and 'doing well' (Dey and Steyaert, 2010:91).

The over-arching notion of empathy as a currency emerged in the current research and highlighted the crucial role of putting oneself in another's shoes. Listening to people, relating to them and considering their perspective, transpired as vital for SE given that SEs are motivated by both individual and collective agendas (Schumpeter, 1934). Given the range of stakeholders SE's engage with (beneficiaries, community, external stakeholders, employees, senior team), the ability to communicate and relate to people at various levels emerged as necessary and supports the notion of the whole is only as strong as is weakest link. The current research has highlighted the connected nature of people and stresses the reliance people have on one another and this is especially true in SE. As a result of the connected nature, the concept of 'empathy as a currency' emerges as a crucial aspect of SE life. The experience of empathy is defined as a connection experienced between people, led by perspective taking. It is about moving out of the introspective nature of the first person and towards a perspective of the other (Belzung, 2014). The current research has shown that considering the other is crucial in SE given that the social mission focuses on the other. Furthermore, empathy emerges as an interwoven phenomenon in SE that contributes to job satisfaction and effective leadership. The current research highlights that the SE was *as* dependent on the community and its beneficiaries as the

beneficiaries were on the SE, further supporting the notion of an 'empathetic currency'. By communicating empathetically, taking on each other's perspectives (SE-to-beneficiary and vice versa) and seeking to unite common goals, the SE maintained success. The current research proposes that in uniting common goals and sharing intentions, which is made possible by empathy, SE can consider the perspectives of the whole stakeholder model in SE. This in turn enables both a competitive advantage in business given that the direction of information is coming from the service users and also promotes a more inclusive, transparent environment. As stated by participant 4.05: "*The moment we ... start really embracing the stakeholder model, that is when opportunities start to build a more holistic, a more appropriate, more effective organisation*".

Figure 6.2 presents a summary of the emergent contributions of the research and the interlinked relationships between the emergent findings and individual actors.

Figure 6.2. Summary of emergent findings

The 'senior team' including the CEO/social entrepreneur

+

External stakeholders

+

Employees

+

Beneficiaries including the local community

=

The SE community

Finding 1: Empathy in terms of perspective taking and empathetic communication emerges as a *currency* in SE

Finding 2: Connecting with others through empathetic communication motivates action

Finding 3: Empathy can be encouraged by perspective-taking

Finding 4: Empathetic leadership promotes effective leadership

Finding 5: Methodological contributions

7. Chapter Seven: Conclusions

The findings of this research are outlined and explored in chapters five and six of this thesis, and the proceding chapters two, three and four present the prior literature review, meta-analysis and rationale for the research methodology. This final chapter offers a summary of the overall findings of the research and the outlined contributions to research and knowledge. The potential for future work drawing on the findings of the current research will be discussed, a proposed theoretical model will be outlined and identified research considerations and limitations will be explored.

7.1. Research overview

This thesis has explored the role of empathy in SE; its impact on motivation, organisational behaviour and leadership. Owing to prior multi-disciplinary research contributions in the field of empathy and OB, this study has been able to consider prior literature and its potential link to SE. The definition of empathy that was adopted in this research is the widely accepted definition that empathy can be both an emotional and a cognitive experience (Carre et al., 2013; Gerdes, 2010; Joliffe and Farrington, 2006). Empathy can be experienced emotionally, by connecting with others and cognitively, by considering the perspective of the other. Also instrumental to the full definition of empathy and related action, is the ability to emotionally disconnect in order to necessarily distinguish between the self and other. Empathy has been documented as crucial in social interactions and in terms of working with others (Goleman et al., 2002; Gerdes et al., 2010). For example, numerous studies in social work, psychology, counselling and social neuroscience have suggested that empathy is a key skill in navigating complex social situations (Cairns and Cairns, 1988; see chapter two for further discussion of empathy cross disciplines). Philosophically, the phenomenon of empathy involves another person, therefore it follows that empathy is related to other-interest as opposed to pure self-interest (Belzung, 2014). Consequently, being empathetic is associated with concern for another and care ethics considers 'being moral' as related to one's emotional capabilities with regard another (Slote, 2011). How empathy relates to notions of right and wrong relates to much of social life in terms of our choices, motivations and the nature of our societies (Slote, 2010; 2011). Therefore exploring the role of empathy in organised social communities such as SEs, transpires as both important and of relevance for cultures, societies and welfare policies.

A purely qualitative, longitudinal methodological approach was chosen for the purpose of exploring the potential role of empathy in SE. Following a meta-analysis of prior literature, ethnography was selected as an appropriate method and fieldwork took place over a five month, full time period. The case study organisation chosen was a large SE that combined both commercial and social activity to

fulfil their social mission of helping disadvantaged groups in the community. Qualitative methods employed for the collection of data included semi-structured interview, observation data and a reflexive journal that was completed at the end of each day in the field. Interviews took place over the course of the five month fieldwork and were conducted with senior staff, the CEO, employees, volunteers and external stakeholders. The observations ranged from observing and participating in meetings, taking part in training exercises, volunteering for small research projects, documentation analysis and multi-site visits. Given the time spent in the field, the researcher was able to build on contact with the beneficiaries and the local community and gain valuable insight from their perspectives whilst remaining necessarily open to surprise given that ethnography is: "…a long process of coming to terms with a culture" (Atkinson et al., 2002:355). Each individual data set was analysed (semi-structured interviews, observations, reflexive journal) using GT, CCM and NI and the emergent themes were further analysed using Noblit and Hare's 'meta-ethnography' as it offered an opportunity for: "…a rigorous procedure for deriving substantive interpretations about ethnographic or interpretive studies" (Noblit and Hare, 1988:9). "Reciprocal translations" emerged as possible (Noblit and Hare, 1988:38) given that the individual data sets emerged with data that was complimentary and could be interwoven in the final analysis. The emergent data provided valuable insights and ideas into organisational life, behaviour, motivations and attitudes. A summary of these results, conclusions and contributions of the fieldwork and will be discussed below.

The research aim was to explore the potential role of empathy in SE. Prior literature informed the semi-structured interviews that formed part of the data collection and included an exploration of personal identification with the social mission, perspective taking, personal connections, job purpose, changes over time and questions related to what 'success' meant for the individual.

7.2. Rationale for the methodological approach used

A meta-analysis of one hundred and sixty-eight 'social enterprise' journal articles, seventy three 'empathy' journal articles and fourteen 'measuring empathy' journal articles informed the methodological approach undertaken (see chapter four for further information). The meta-analysis not only formed the literature review, but provided an opportunity to review gaps in research, theory and knowledge. As a result, an in-depth ethnography spanning five months presented an opportunity to observe individuals in an organisational setting and provided the possibility of spending time alongside employees, volunteers, beneficiaries and the local community. The length of time spent in the field on a full time basis, enabled the researcher to clarify statements in order to minimise assumptions, to observe policies-in-action and opinions from various perspectives and also to examine what might have been *said* in interviews for example, at senior level, and observe what in practice

was *done*. Furthermore, the researcher undertook a meta-analysis of fifty-two 'ethnography' journal articles that in turn provided rationale for the data collection methods used (interviews, observation and reflexive journal). The meta-analysis of ethnographic journal studies provided a rationale for engaging with three data collection methods given that prior research has found it beneficial to supplement data collection with different modes of interaction with the research participants (Fahey, 2014).

The semi-structured interviews provided an opportunity for the researcher to spend time one-to-one with individuals of the organisation, to make valuable contacts and to seek the view of participants in a confidential environment. The researcher noted that after some weeks in the office, the interviewees often used examples of good or bad practice and appeared more open to being reflexive. For example, a few months into the fieldwork in answer to the interview question: Do you think there is any link between employees identifying with the SE aims and SE success? One interviewee's first response was: *"This is the first time I have ever been asked – I mean people have interviewed me, but it has been more about 'what is it like working for SE' and 'what advice do you have' but I like those [your] questions – the way they are framed"* (participant 12.28). The researcher reflects that interviewees felt able to comment on the fieldwork process and reflect on their effect on it, which may have been as a result of the amount of time the researcher spent in the field making herself more known to people. However, there were a number of variables that could have affected interviewee interactions and interviewee's perception of the researcher, for example, the researcher's personality or the support from the leadership team for the fieldwork in the first instance. Observation was chosen as a method to compliment the interviews. Spending five months in various busy offices meant the researcher could observe various activities and interactions. Also, in spending time shadowing people the researcher inevitably became part of the fieldwork. For example, in attending a community meeting the minute taker was absent and the researcher (who is professionally trained in minute taking), took the minutes of the meeting which benefitted both the organisation and the researcher. Opportunity to learn more about the SE organisation developed during the fieldwork as the researcher made herself available to attend meetings, social events and community forums. Also, the SE organisation invited the researcher to participate on several occasions, for example, inviting the researcher to take a training course alongside others, as the SE organisation requested that the researcher evaluate the training. The reflexive journal created a space for the researcher to reflect on her time in the field. Included in the reflexive journal was a range of information from consideration of how the researcher affected situations in the field, to additional reading that supported learning during fieldwork.

7.3. Original contribution to knowledge

As explored in chapter five and six, this thesis makes five contributions in relation to theory, knowledge and methodology. These original contributions are tabled below.

Table 7.1. Research contributions

No.	Emergent findings from the fieldwork	Contribution to knowledge/theory/methodology
1	**Contribution One (over-arching contribution):** **Empathy as a 'currency' in SE** The SE is *as* dependent on the wider beneficiary group for success as the beneficiaries are on the SE. Empathy experienced as perspective-taking and empathetic communication, is identified as crucial for SE.	The current research has found that in order for the SE to identify and address a social problem, the senior team, employees and stakeholders must feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE. Furthermore, maintaining and nurturing the social mission within the organisation emerges as a responsibility shared by all.
2	**Contribution Two: Empathy can be encouraged** Research findings suggest that empathy can occur when the conditions for potential empathy to emerge are created. Individuals who connected with the beneficiaries were more motivated and engaged with their work. Some participants found that often their connection to the social mission developed and grew over time.	Conditions for empathy to emerge can be created and promoted over time. In learning more about SE and its intended beneficiaries, employees, stakeholders and the senior team can understand their jobs as more meaningful and connected to the social mission. As a result, a stronger connection between *creating and maintaining meaning* is possible
3	**Contribution Three: Connecting with others motivates action** Empathy between employer and employee, as well as employee to beneficiary emerges as a positive motivator in SE. Empathy is experienced as a connection between people either arising from an emotional connection or through a cognitive awareness that one person can help another.	Evaluating a situation empathetically has profound implications for SEs whose primary aim is to assess a social ill and implement action to remedy it. Furthermore, caring about beneficiaries, understanding their viewpoints and wanting to help is crucial for SE, given that SE is identified as a business with a social conscience (Harding, 2010).
4	**Contribution Four: Empathy promotes effective leadership** The senior team regularly reflected in interviews that the SE's success and growth was a 'group effort'. The leadership team promoted a sense of shared responsibility and a concern for collective rather than purely individual ends.	Staff and the leadership team stressed great importance on perspective-taking on behalf of the leadership team. This not only promotes a sense of ownership and transparency but encourages a greater link between *means* and *ends*.
5	**Contribution Five (methodological contributions):** **a) Ethnography and social enterprise:** Engaging with ethnography enabled the researcher to observe changes over time and to consider any differences in what was *said* (theory) and what was *done* (practice). **b) Empathy and ethnography:** Empathy is a strong feature within ethnography (owing to the amount of time the researcher spent alongside participants in the field).	a) The connection between theory and practice is important for research and especially so for SE research (Haugh, 2012), given the impact SE have on local communities. b) The current research findings support prior research that has identified a strong link between empathy and ethnography suggesting empathy enables interesting insights into social behaviours (Henry, 2012; Hollan and Throop, 2011).

7.4. Practical recommendations

Given the findings that a) empathy acts like a currency in SE; b) empathy can be encouraged; c) connecting with others motivates action and d) empathy positively affects leadership, the researcher proposes that there are practical recommendations that emerge from the fieldwork. Emergent data shows the importance of communication across departments. Having an empathetic manager and good working conditions (for example: pay, hours, considerate colleagues) was deemed important; however, a further emergent finding was that when employees connected with their work more fully, they also benefitted greatly. Employees who had worked for the organisation for a number of years and who on the whole stated they had always been happy with their work as a means to an end (i.e. a way to make money), found a new connection and motivation to their daily work after meeting beneficiaries and learning about SE ("*it helps me get out of bed in the morning*" RJ, 22.10.2015). By meeting previously unknown beneficiaries and learning about the positive impacts of SE on society and their relationship to that impact, the employees were motivated (this is further discussed in chapter six). This finding has practical implications given that making connections to other people involved in ones place of work, promotes a sense of self and also raises awareness. The researcher suggests that by enabling employees to see how their role affects the whole organisation is important. This in turn enables empathy to emerge as empathy is experienced in social interactions and perspective taking is often the first step. "[Empathy] is about a capacity to enter in the other, even if his own mental universe is different of mine. For example… by seeing a disabled person, you propose him help to cross the street, even if you are in a rush and even when he asked for nothing. This capacity requires to go out of our prospective on the world at the first person (what I see, what I wish, what I need) towards a perspective at the third person (what the other person sees, what the other person wishes, what the other person needs), and to behave accordingly" (Belzung, 2014:181). It is suggested that SE's can create a platform whereby there is an opportunity for employees to meet beneficiaries and access the frontline impact that the SE is making. This connection to the overall social mission creates a more collaborative approach to work and may also have positive impact on the beneficiaries, given that it will provide them an opportunity for empathy (perspective taking) on behalf of the employee. It is suggested that a practical implication of this recommendation will benefit the SE as a whole and will provide an opportunity to step towards developing sustainability throughout the organisation (Haugh, 2009).

7.5. Proposed theoretical model

Figure 7.1 is a diagrammatic representation of the research findings and a proposed theoretical model. The multi-bottom line that SE have to address in order to remain sustainable is described as 'economic demands' and 'social mission' at two distinct ends. Empathy is located in the middle and is co-created and experienced between people connected to the SE. It is suggested that when the Senior Management Team (SMT), staff (including stakeholders) and beneficiaries interact and share perspectives, empathy is experienced. Figure 7.1 below shows that when the SE as a whole engages with the social mission, empathetic currency is increased. When there is an increased concern with economic pressure that is shared predominantly between senior staff, this could affect empathetic currency and shared intentions. Prior research has suggested that financial or economic reward is not the only motivation in SE (Santos, 2012), and that in SE the dependency between discourse and practice needs to be stronger (Moreau and Mertens, 2013). It is proposed that empathy motivates discourse and the sharing of perspectives within SE. Furthermore, engaging with empathy as a currency in SE may go some way to bridge the space between discourse and practice on an organisational level.

Figure 7.1. Proposed theoretical model
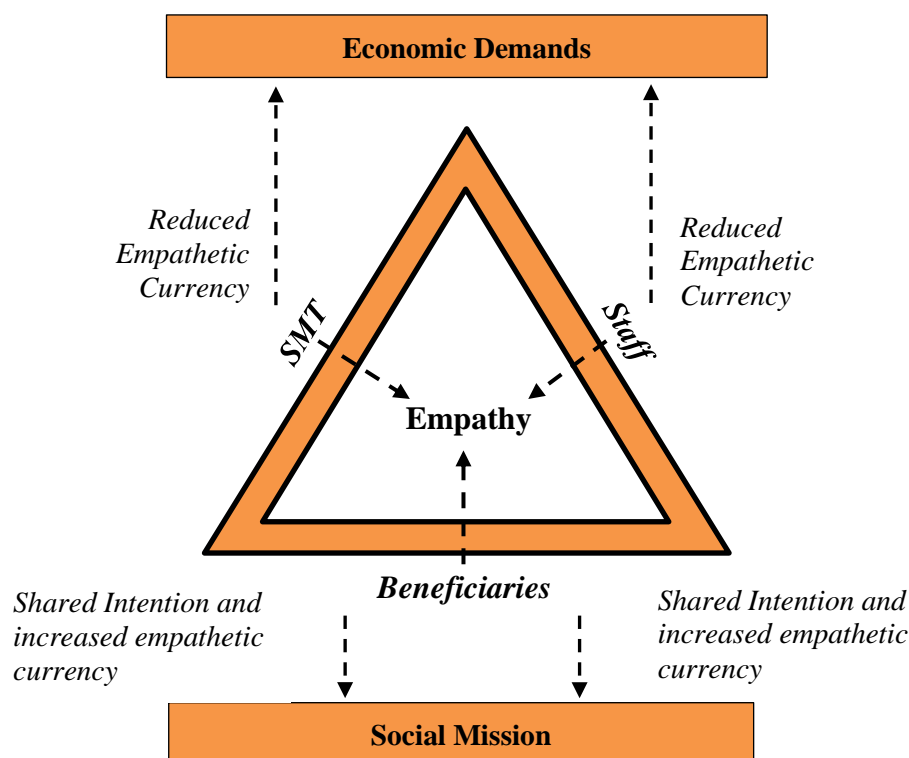
7.6. Research limitations and areas for further research

The findings, contributions to theory and knowledge and practical recommendations for SE outlined in this thesis are considered valid, reflexive and reliable. However, there are a number of potential limitations within this research that are recognised. Given the paucity of SE research into the daily nature of SE, the researcher carefully chose to spend her time immersed in one organisation for a period of five months, full time. The researcher met with several SE organisations that were geographically located near her with a rationale that if she was to be working there full time, the commute to 'work' needed to be reasonable. The first consideration and potential limitation of the research is that the case study organisation is based in central London. It is a large organisation that has grown from a handful of employees in the 1980s, to currently employing approximately one thousand individuals across its commercial and social functions of the organisations. The researcher acknowledges that the contribution of this research is primarily to theory building, knowledge creation and the identification of further research avenues, given that the methodology employed was ethnography and therefore tells the story of one SE organisation as opposed to many generalisable stories. The individuals of the organisation were from a range of cultures, backgrounds, socio-economic groups and, as a result, the results of this research are related to the individuals of the case study organisation. Another consideration and limitation of the fieldwork is that the SE organisation chosen has the majority of the staff workforce working on the commercial contracts that fund the social work and as a result, finance and support the social mission. As discussed in chapter three; SEs take on various forms and differ both conceptually and practically across regions and internationally (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Kerlin, 2009; Defourny, 2001). Given the various forms of SE, the case study organisation faced personal challenges relating to its size and structure:

- Internally, in terms of organisation identity;
- Externally, in terms of managing both commercial and social contracts;
- In terms of recruitment, staff often described joining the SE 'by chance' without necessarily seeking out work in the SE sector.

(The challenges are further discussed in chapter five, section 7.4).

As a result, the generalisability of the research findings that pertain to individuals for example, the nature of the social entrepreneur and the leadership team, cannot be easily generalised as they relate to particular individuals in a particular place and time. However, what this research does contribute is a reliable and valid study of SE motivations and behaviour which provide a stepping-board for future work, that could compare aspects of SE motivation and empathy across sectors, and geographically. It may also be interesting to consider in future research, whether the size or age of the SE is significant

in terms of how the individuals relate to the social mission. Further research could explore empathy in SE using a larger quantitative sample size, or could engage with multiple case study organisations.

Another unavoidable consideration and potential limitation of the current research that is inherent in all social contact, is the consideration of the researchers' impact on the fieldwork and data collection. The researcher is London-based and familiar with the area where the organisation works. Having worked in various offices for numerous years during previous employment, the researcher was able to adjust well to having a personal desk space in Head Office and hot-desking in various other offices based within the case study organisation. As a result of working in educational support roles in prior work, the researcher was familiar with supporting staff and learners which in turn enabled her to volunteer with data inputting and assisting with various volunteer jobs. While this facilitated the researcher in embedding herself in the organisation, this could have affected the relationship between the researcher and the researched, as the researcher could have been perceived as more available and approachable due to her level of interaction with the SE. As a result of getting to know the individuals of the organisation and wanting to be useful (as opposed to a nuisance) in terms of volunteering with data inputting, collating spread sheets and so on, was the researcher able to connect more closely with the individuals, which in turn affected the data collection? (Please see section 4.5.3. for a further discussion of ethnography and empathy). While the level of immersion and interaction on behalf of the researcher with the researched is not considered a limitation of this study, it is unavoidably an important feature of the research.

Finally, the researcher was keen to fit in with the organisation in order to access the most valuable and authentic data possible. This was done for example, by working the same core hours as the majority of the staff, by wearing appropriate clothing taking into account whether the researcher was in a senior management meeting or assisting with cooking at a community lunch club for the elderly. The researcher's aim to tell the story on behalf of the participants was a motivating factor throughout the fieldwork. An objective for the researcher was to reflect on the difference between theory and practice in order to provide a robust and valuable contribution to SE research. As a result, a consideration of the fieldwork is: How did the researcher's intentions and contribution to the SE (by volunteering and assisting them on several occasions), affect their interaction with her? Was there for example, a sense of reciprocity between the researcher and the case study organisation given that they were genuinely interested in learning more about themselves and as a result strongly supported the research project? In summation, the researcher acknowledges that ethnography is a complex, subjective and rewarding process for data collection with several considerations. At the same time, ethnography enables the researcher to connect with real world events and participate in the social setting that they are researching, which in turn provides valuable practical application of theory to knowledge.

7.7. Summary

This thesis has sought to explore motivations, behaviour and potential empathy in SE. The research and findings presented in this thesis present ethnography as an appropriate methodology for the exploration of pro-social motivations in a previously under-researched area (that of empathy in SE). The research has also explored the relevance of using several research tools in a purely social qualitative piece of research. Given that interactions between people are dependent on several considerations for example, the notion of 'spokesperson' (Watson, 2010) within work settings, the researcher felt it was important to observe work-in-progress. The collection of several data sets (interviews, observations, daily reflexive journal data) and analysis at various stages of the fieldwork, emphasised the importance of the researcher and their effect on the research. The researcher's behaviour and personality was a consideration during the fieldwork, however, it is a strength of the research to acknowledge various dynamics and above all, awareness that what: "… the balance(d) detailed documentation of events with insights into the meaning of those events is the enduring hallmark of ethnography" (Fielding 1994:154).

The co-dependency the SE has with the wider community and the ability to work closely together with a range of stakeholders is vital for SE. Fieldwork data identified that the SE was able to successfully combine various viewpoints and create services that were both vital and welcomed in the community. This suggests that the SE was reliant on the community for its existence and the beneficiaries were reliant on the SE for help. The current research has found that in order for the SE to identify and address a social problem, the senior team, employees and stakeholders must feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the SE. Furthermore, maintaining and nurturing the social mission within the organisation emerges as a responsibility shared by all. It is suggested that sharing perspectives and coming together with joint goals unite people and motivate action which is crucial for SE success. The current research suggests that empathetic communication by way of taking on others' perspectives can be instrumental in the on-going success of SE. The notion that empathy is like a 'currency' emerges as a two-way exchange between the wider beneficiaries and the SE. Furthermore, considering the wider beneficiary category as stakeholders within the SE emphasises the moral responsibility that SE face in successfully managing financial outcomes and delivering social good.

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Appendices

Appendix A: PhD Studentship Advertisement

(http://www.ischolarshipgrants.com/scholarship-by-country/uk-scholarships-grants/phd-studentship-the-role-of-empathy-and-shared-intentionality-in-social-enterprise-20130802/)

Overview: Phd Studentship: The Role Of 'Empathy' And 'Shared Intentionality' In Social Enterprise

The definition of social enterprise has occupied the thoughts of many researchers over the last decade. One question that remains unanswered is what motivates certain individuals to come together to set-up and develop social enterprises. Literature focused on reasons for action indicates that an internal reason to do something must have a rational connection to an individual desire or interest in order to motivate action towards ends (Joyce, 2001). However, moral reasons for action can be independent of an individual's desires, interests and commitments, which suggest that moral reasons are external rather than internal. In order for individuals to be moral, two key elements are required: 1) attunement to others' emotions through empathy and 2) attunement to others' ends through joint attention and shared intentionality (Hourdequin, 2012).

Empathy allows us to be aware of the affective state of others without necessarily having a pre-determined internal desire, goal or commitment to alleviate that state. In other words, empathy is not in itself a desire, though it may trigger other-directed desires and provide a reason for action providing a motivational link to others' goals (Hourdequin, 2012). Shared intentionality emphasises the sharing of perceptions, intentions and goals and involves not just discerning others' goals but adopting them so that they become joint goals and consequently reasons to act. Empathy and shared intentionality are the basis for human motivational orientations in which others' ends count as reasons for us to act (Tomasello et al. 2005). This PhD will explore social entrepreneurs' motivations in order to develop a theoretical overview of what constitutes their reasons for action. It will test the extent to which empathy and shared intentionality contribute to the set-up and development of social enterprises.

Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet

Should you require this document in any other format please contact the researcher, Anna Kopec at Anna.Kopec@northampton.ac.uk

Invitation paragraph: I would like to invite you to take part in my research study. Before deciding whether you wish to take part or not, please read through this information sheet carefully to understand what the research and your participation will involve. Should you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me.

Research Title: An organisational study of social enterprise.

Overview of the Participant Information sheet

The research you are invited to participate in is an organisational study of social enterprise. Research in social enterprise has identified that social enterprises operate differently to traditional business as they are not only concerned with the financial bottom line, but also the social and/or environmental impact. However, little research has been conducted to examine organisational behaviour and motivations in social enterprise. This research seeks to explore the organisation from within and from each member's viewpoint.

Do I have to take part?

Your participation in this research study is completely voluntary. Should you decide not to take part, this information will be kept anonymous. If you wish to take part I will ask you to sign a Consent Form. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection phase. Upon conclusion of the field work, the researcher will notify all participants via email that the study has come to an end. Participants will have a period of 24 hours from the time the email is sent to withdraw their data, after which point it will not be possible to withdraw the collected data. Please note: all data collected will be coded and once analysed, will be made anonymous.

What will happen to me if I take part?

All information provided will be treated in strict confidence. Participation will include an interview with the researcher. The interview will be transcribed and analysed by the researcher and you will be provided with a copy of that analysis to enable you evaluate the researcher's interpretation of your interview.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

All information which is collected from or about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential, and any disseminated information will be anonymised.

What will happen to the results of the interview?

Member Checks will be carried out to validate the researcher's interpretation of the analysis of the interview data. This means that the researcher make available interpretations of the analysis of the interviews for your evaluation.

Expenses and payments?

As the researcher is travelling and spending time within the social enterprise voluntarily for the duration of the research study, participants will not receive payment or expenses for their participation.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no risks in taking part. At any point during the field data collection, you may decide to 'opt-out' of the research study. If you do 'opt-out' at any point in the research fieldwork, your interview recording and transcript will be destroyed and not included in the study. All retained data will be anonymised.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

There have been few organisational studies of social enterprises', as a result; your participation in this research study may contribute to a better understanding of the organisation of social enterprises. This study aims to give voice to the experience of those working in social enterprise at every level. Your participation will enable on the investigation of an under-researched area of social enterprise.

What if there is a problem?

The researcher is available to be contacted at any point during the study should any questions or problems arise (contact details are listed below).

Who is organising or sponsoring the research?

The researcher is organising the research study in collaboration with the University of Northampton.

Further information and contact details:

The researcher: Anna Kopec, email: Anna.Kopec@northampton.ac.uk

Supervisory team: Dr Richard Hazenberg, email: Richard.Hazenberg@northampton.ac.uk and

Dr Fred Seddon, email: Fred.Seddon@northampton.ac.uk

Appendix C: Participant Consent Form

Research Project: The organisational study of Social Enterprise

Researcher's Name: Anna Kopec, PhD Research Student of the University of Northampton

Supervisory Team: Professor Simon Denny, Dr Richard Hazenberg and Dr Fred Seddon.

Please initialise each box below to confirm that each statement has been read and individually consented to.

☐	I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
☐	I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
☐	I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any time during the data collection phase. Upon conclusion of the field work, the researcher will notify all participants via email that the study has come to an end. Participants will have a period of 24 hours from the time the email is sent to withdraw their data, after which point it will not be possible to withdraw the collected data. Please note: all data collected will be coded and once analysed, will be made anonymous. Please provide an email address for this purpose here ………………………………………………………………………
☐	I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.
☐	I understand that I will be audio recorded during the interview.
☐	I understand that data will be stored by the researcher in a locked and secure cabinet. Any electronic copies will be password protected. The supervisory team will have access to the audio recordings for audit and checking purposes only. If any further access is required, the researcher will contact the participant in writing.
☐	I understand that I may contact the researcher or supervisory team if I require further information about the research. I may also contact the University of Northampton, if I wish to make a further enquiry relating to my involvement in the research.

Signed ……………………………………………………………………… (Research Participant)

Print name ……………………………………………………………… **Date** …………………

Contact details
Researcher: Anna.Kopec@northampton.ac.uk
Supervisors: Richard.Hazenberg@northampton.ac.uk and Fred.Seddon@northampton.ac.uk

Appendix D: Interview Sheet

Interviewee Code   ………………………………………….

Date   ………………………………………….

Question 1:   Please tell me a bit about your work at …?

Question 2:   What motivated you to work here?

Question 3:   Please describe your relationship with the CEO?

Question 4:   Do you feel a personal link or connection with any of the social enterprise beneficiary groups (with a beneficiary group or with the social enterprise mission in general)?

Question 5:   Do you think sharing the perspective or understanding the perspective of the beneficiary category is necessary in social enterprise?

Question 6:   Do you think the amount you identify with the aims of the social enterprise changes over time (for example, has this changed/developed over the time you have been working here)?

Question 7:   Do you think there is any link between employees identifying with the social enterprise aims and social enterprise success?

Question 8:   How important do you think it is that the CEO considers the perspectives of the social enterprise employees and beneficiaries?

Question 9:   Is there anything that I have not asked you that you think is important or would like to tell me?

Thank you very much for your time.

Appendix E: Ethical Consideration

Ethics considerations on data collection	
Access	Permission and consent will be gained from each participant through a signed consent form.
Audio recordings	Consent and permission will be gained by each participant before proceeding with audio recording the interviews.
Storage	- All data obtained will be stored in a personal locked cabinet in the locked PhD room. - All data obtained will be stored securely on a University owned, password protected computer. - All data once analysed and coded will be confidentially kept for a period of 5 years after the successful completion of the study (as recommended by the Good Practice Guidelines for the conduct of psychological research at the British Psychological Society). Any data kept on file for future use will be anonymised. - The Data Protection Act (1998) will be observed at all times.
Data analysis and reporting	- The Data Protection Act (1998) will be observed. - Participant information will be anonymised to observe the confidentiality and security of both the individual and the social enterprise organisation.
Ethical considerations for engaging with participants for interviews.	
Preliminary paper and authority	- The researcher will have all necessary documentation to identify herself. - Permission from the University Ethics Committee will be sought, along with permission from organisations to conduct activity.
Choice/recruitment of participants	- Participant Information Sheet will be provided along with a Consent Form. The information sheet provided will be written and presented in a format which the participant can understand. A signed copy of receipt will be required and will be kept on file. At least 24 hours will be given between giving the information sheet and obtaining consent. It will be made clear to all participants that they may withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection phase. Upon conclusion of the field work, the researcher will notify all participants via email that the study has come to an end. Participants will have a period of 24 hours from the time the email is sent to withdraw their data, after which point it will not be possible to withdraw the collected data. Please note: all data collected will be coded and once analysed, will be made anonymous. - Age of participants will be considered and any necessary provisions will be made. It is envisaged that all recruited participants will be recruited voluntarily and will be over the age of 18. If any of the participants (for example, a beneficiary) are aged under 18 then parental consent will be sought first. - The most appropriate way of approaching the participants will be selected in close collaboration with the relevant social enterprise organisation.
Training	Over the course of the research study, the researcher will engage with any

	relevant training in order to successfully undertake research activity.
Involvement	• Each participant will voluntarily decide to take part in the research. No coercion will be used and participants will be informed that they may withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection phase. Upon conclusion of the field work, the researcher will notify all participants via email that the study has come to an end. Participants will have a period of 24 hours from the time the email is sent to withdraw their data, after which point it will not be possible to withdraw the collected data. Please note: all data collected will be coded and once analysed, will be made anonymous. Should a participant wish to have a friend present during the interview process, this will be discussed with the researcher. The safety of the researcher and the participant will be kept in mind at all times.
Rights, safety and wellbeing of participant and researcher	• Risk assessment must be carried out in each social enterprise organisation, considering any possible repercussions. • The Health and Safety of the participants will be of paramount importance during and after the research. Any necessary provisions will be in place to offer support and assistance where needed. • Vulnerable participants to be taken account of, including those with disabilities. • Participants' dignity and privacy will be preserved. Disclosure of any personal details unrelated to the research will be avoided. • If the focus group or interviews are recorded, permission will be sought from all individuals involved. • The value and purpose of the research will be clearly communicated to the participants.
Permission from immediate authorities	Permission to attend social enterprise premises will be sought and obtained before commencing research.
Suitability of premises	• The premises chosen will be accessible to both participant and researcher. • The agreed premises will offer a confidential environment for the semi-structured interviews, for example, the room used will not be in a busy location where there is risk that information may be overheard. • The researcher will familiarise herself with the premises, taking her health and safety into account.
Method of interview	The greatest of care will be taken during the interviews and indeed throughout the study, to limit any potential offence or distress.
Method of recording data	The greatest of care will be employed during the observation of participants to avoid unnecessary stress or concern. Field data will be written up sensitively taking into account reflexivity, trust and power relations. Document analysis will be done with publicly available documentation relating to the social enterprise's mission and aims; sensitivity will be exercised to ensure the documents are for public use and distribution (and not confidential in any way) unless prior permissions have been obtained from the organisation and the relevant participants.
Interviewers	The researcher will undertake all interviews. Where appropriate, the researcher may request a second researcher to observe proceedings.
Transcribers	Audio recordings of the interview will be transcribed by the researcher and will be member checked; the researchers' interpretation of the results of the analysis of the raw data will be presented for the evaluation of the participant. This will deal with any potential problems of interpretation.

Translators	The use of translators will not be necessary as the research study will take place in England.
Attendees	Consent for any additional attendees will be sought from participants.
Consent	• A Participant Information Sheet will be provided along with a Consent Form. The information sheet provided will be written and presented in a format which the participant can understand. A signed copy of receipt will be required and will be kept on file. At least 24 hours will be allocated between giving the information sheet and obtaining consent. It will be made clear to all participants that they may withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection phase. Upon conclusion of the field work, the researcher will notify all participants via email that the study has come to an end. Participants will have a period of 24 hours from the time the email is sent to withdraw their data, after which point it will not be possible to withdraw the collected data. Please note: all data collected will be coded and once analysed, will be made anonymous. • The researcher will offer their contact email should any of the participants wish to withdraw or wish to contact the researcher urgently.
Confidentiality and anonymity	• The Participant Information Sheet will clearly state that all information provided will be treated in the strictest of confidence. • All data emerging from the research will be stored and anonymised. • To ensure confidentiality participants will be allocated codes and any personal details will be kept separate and secure. • All data once analysed and coded will be confidentially kept for a period of 5 years after the successful completion of the study (as recommended by the Good Practice Guidelines for the conduct of psychological research at the British Psychological Society). Any data kept on file for future use will be anonymised.
Issues arising from the activity	• The researcher will offer their contact email should any of the participants wish to withdraw or wish to contact the researcher during the course of the study.
Feedback	• A summary of the research along with researcher contact details will be provided to all participants should any issues arise subsequently.

Appendix F: Risk Plan

A periodic review by the researcher will take place in order to implement, evaluate and review these objectives. An outline is provided below. The probability is rated on a five-point Likert psychometric scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (highly likely). The impact is also rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very minor) to 5 (very major).

RISK	PROBABILITY	IMPACT	MITIGATING ACTIONS
Social enterprise organisation fails to engage with the research.	2	4	• Building and maintaining relationship and good contact with the social enterprise will minimise this; • Benefits of this project will be disseminated to the social enterprise.
Dispute between social enterprise and researcher.	2	2	• Minimise chances of a dispute by ensuring clear and regular communication is given both before and during research; • Build confidence between the social enterprise and researcher by promoting openness and cooperation; • The researcher will keep a research diary throughout the data collection phase and discuss any unforeseen development with the Supervisory team.
Social enterprise employees and/or beneficiaries may be pressured to take part.	3	2	• Ensure the research is clearly communicated to all potential research participants; • The researcher will include a contact email for all participants in case any further questions arise; • Minimise any undue pressures by ensuring all participants are aware of their right to withdraw during the collection of data phase. • Communicate to senior management that it is not compulsory for staff to participate.
Social enterprise may be concerned over the findings.	2	2	• All data will be anonymised before being made public; • Transcribed data from the interviews will be Member Checked in terms of the individual's responses; • Individual interviews will be recorded for the purpose of analysis and should any concerns arise post interview.

Failure to complete research project in allocated time.	1	2	- Timetable and work plan will be closely adhered to; - Momentum of research progress will be on-going; - Researcher's progress will be regularly reported to the Supervisory team; any concerns will be raised.
Distress caused by research.	1	3	- The safety and well-being of the participants and the researcher will remain of paramount importance; - The researcher will maintain regular contact with Supervisory team and will consult the team should any stress occur; - The researcher will maintain good contact with the University research community for additional support and training where necessary; - Should a participant become distressed, the researcher will refer them to the appropriate person/s.

Appendix G: Interview Analysis – main dataset

The digitally recorded interviews were transcribed. The below analysis consists of twenty-three transcribed interviews with stakeholders (including trustees), the Chief Executive Officer, employees, beneficiaries and volunteers.

Using Grounded Theory and Constant Comparative Method, during the categorization and data analysis stage one hundred and nine 'units' of analysis (were clustered into twenty one 'categories', and from these twenty one 'categories' five 'themes' emerged. The five themes emerged as: 'Business strategy', 'Challenges', 'Community', 'Empathy' and 'Innovation and Impact'.

The list and explanation below details the qualitative analysis process for the semi-structured interviews.

Units of analysis

1. Beneficiary focused
2. Care of others
3. Business marketing
4. Business related
5. Commercial contracts
6. Strategically thinking
7. Challenges
8. Competitve industry
9. Effects of growing
10. Lack of SE interest
11. Question over pay
12. Communication
13. Communities
14. Community transport
15. Learning centre
16. Political agenda
17. Transparency
18. On purpose
19. SE culture
20. Shared culture
21. Grass roots level impact

22. Growing, learning and improving

23. Impact

24. Impacting reporting

25. Increasing awareness of SE

26. Social impact

27. Transport as a social enabler

28. Adding value]

29. Award winning SE

30. Creative thinking

31. Independent travel

32. Individually tailored services

33. Innovation

34. Travel coordinator

35. Welcome box

36. Anti-hierarchical

37. CEO

38. Driven leadership

39. Honest leadership

40. Inspirational leadership

41. Motivating CEO

42. Open style leadership

43. Perceptions of social entrepreneur

44. Relationship with CEO

45. Visionary leadership

46. Mission led

47. Motivated by working in a SE

48. Motivated to work in third sector

49. Motivated to work in SE

50. Vocation in life

51. Career plan

52. Chance opportunity

53. Idealist motivation

54. Interviewee enjoyed interview

55. Just doing their job

56. Opportunity

57. Passion

58. Pride in SE

59. Rewarding job role
60. Multi bottom line
61. Multi-tasking
62. Triple bottom line
63. Varied job role
64. Varied work
65. Working at various locations
66. Lack of SE knowledge
67. Learning about SE
68. No personal link to SE
69. No previous SE knowledge
70. Working in SE by chance
71. Conflict of interest in job role
72. Frustration
73. Uncertainty of role
74. Commitment to SE
75. Commitment to social mission
76. Embodied nature of SE
77. Family background
78. Personal belief value system
79. Personal motivation
80. Purpose
81. Revelatory moment in career
82. Volunteers
83. Friendship
84. Multi-skilled
85. Stakeholders
86. Empathy
87. Employee engagement
88. Employee focused
89. Personal connection to SE
90. Perspective taking
91. Service user
92. Shared vision
93. Understanding your customers
94. Charity
95. Funders

96. Profit

97. Respect

98. Trust in leadership

99. Board of trustees

100.   SE Champions

101.   SE success

102.   Social investors

103.   Social value

104.   Successful

105.   Trustee

106.   Survival of SE

107.   Sustainability

108.   Team

109.   Working together

Categories

Category 1: Beneficiaries (1-2)

This category relates to beneficiaries of the organisation and care for those affected by the SE.

Category 2: Business related (3-6)

This category relates to business related concepts of marketing, commercial contracts and strategical thinking.

Category 3: Challenges (7-11)

This category refers to challenges mentioned by interviewees during interviews for example, SE growth and competition within the industry.

Category 4: Community (12-17)

This category refers to aspects relating to the SE community for example, communication with the local community and community driven projects.

Category 5: Culture (18-20)

This category explores shared culture within the SE and with their local community.

Category 6: Impact (21-27)

This category explores the impact the SE was having both at grassroots level and on reporting mechanisms.

Category 7: Innovation (28-35)

This category relates to the various forms of innovation discussed during interview from adding value, exploring creative ways to address local community issues and individually tailored services created by the SE.

Category 8: Leadership (36-45)

This category relates to aspects of leadership from the interviewees' perspectives from transparent leadership, communication, motivation and the various relationships interviewees had with leadership.

Category 9: Mission led (46-50)

This category explores ways in which the SE was mission driven and the ways in which interviewees were motivated to work for the SE due to the mission and SE ethos.

Category 10: Motivation (51-59)

This category refers to the ways in which interviewees were motivated to work for the SE, ways in which interviewees felt motivated to do well and how they felt both pride and reward in their work which in turn motivated their working life.

Category 11: Multi-tasking (60-65)

This category refers to the notion of multi-tasking in interviewees work. Interviewees discussed having a varied workload, working at various sites and being aware of the multi-bottom line that SE have to work towards in order to be successful.

Category 12: New to SE (66-70)

This category relates to several interviewees discussing how they were new to working in a SE and how they might not have had any previous link or knowledge of SE prior to working in tis SE case study organisation.

Category 13: Personal challenges (71-73)

This category relates to interviewees discussing personal challenges for example, conflict of interest in their job role and at times being uncertain of their work remit.

Category 14: Personal commitment (74-81)

This category refers to various commitment interviewees discussed in the interviews. This ranged from interviewees reflecting how they felt personal motivated to do well, how they had adopted and embodied the mission of the SE and also how their work created a sense of purpose in their working life.

Category 15: Personal connection (82-85)

This category explores how some interviewees felt a strong and personal connection to the SE through friendships made, through becoming multi-skilled and by feeling not just connected to the SE by also as stakeholders and valued members of the SE.

Category 16: Perspective taking (86-94)

This category refers to interviewees connecting with perspective taking in their work and in relation to their connection with the SE. Interviewees discussed the notion of empathy, being beneficiary focused by way of perspective taking, being engaged and sharing in the vision and mission of the SE.

Category 17: Profit (95-97)

This category refers to interviewees discussing aspects directly related to profit for example, external funders and how making profit as a SE enabled them to be both respected by the wider industry.

Category 18: Repect for others (98-99)

This category relates to interviewees exploring their respect for others for example, for the leadership and for the board of trustees.

Category 19: Social value (100-105)

This category relates to the creation and sustainability of social value for example, for sharing and communicating success with the wider community.

Category 20: Sustainability (106-107)

This category emerges as interviewees discussed an awareness of the need to be sustainable and to build on good practice to ensure the longevity of the SE.

Category 21: Team (108-109)

The category emerges in intervews as interviewees expressed the importance of working together towards collective ends and working well in teams.

Themes

Theme 1: Empathetic leadership and effective leadership
This theme emerges from CCM and collective categories 2: Business related and 7: Innovation.

Theme 2: Methodological contributions
This theme emerges from CCM and collective categories 3: Challenges, 11: Multi-taking, 12: New to SE and 20: Sustainability.

Theme 3: Connecting with others motivates action
This theme emerges from CCM and collective categories: 1. Beneficiaries, 4: Culture, 5: Impact, 15: Personal connection and 21: Team.

Theme 4: Empathy as a currency
This theme emerges from CCM and collective categories: 16: Perspective taking, 8: Leadership, 18: Respect for others, 9: Mission led, 10: Motivation and 14: Personal commitment.

Theme 5: Empathy can be encouraged
This theme emerges from CCM and collective categories: 6: Impact, 7: Innovation and 19: Social value.

Appendix H: Observation Analysis – supplementary data

42 'units' of analysis

11 'categories'

6 'themes'

1. All about people
2. Beneficiary data
3. Beneficiary focus
4. Budgets
5. Community engagement
6. Competing in commercial markets
7. Disjointed workforce
8. Empathy
9. Endurance
10. Essential service in community
11. Feedback from beneficiaries
12. Feedback from service users
13. Hard working staff
14. Impact on people
15. Innovation
16. Inviting feedback from all staff
17. Links in community
18. No SE knowledge
19. On Purpose
20. Professionalism
21. Scepticism
22. SE Champions
23. Service user support for SE
24. Social ambition
25. Social enterprise ecosystem
26. Social mission
27. Social Prescribing
28. Staff connecting with service users
29. Team
30. The need for innovation
31. Theory of change (innovation)
32. Vital service
33. Welcoming researcher input
34. Working with beneficiaries

1. Ambition
24, 25, 26, 9, 13

2. Finance
4, 6

3. Professionalism
20

4. Lack of SE knowledge
18, 21

5. Workforce challenges
7

6. Community
10, 17, 23, 28, 32, 33

7. Empathy
8, 28

8. Innovation
15, 22, 27, 30, 31,

9. Stakeholders
19

10. People centred
1, 14

11. Beneficiaries
2, 3, 11, 12, 16, 34,

Theme 1:
Ambition
1

Theme 2:
Business strategy
2, 3

Theme 3:
Challenges
4, 5

Theme 4:
Community
6, 10, 11

Theme 5:
Empathy
7

Theme 6:
Innovation
8, 9

Appendix I: Reflexive Journal Analysis – supplementary data

57 'units' of analysis	12 'categories'	3 'themes'

57 'units' of analysis

1. Beneficiaries
2. Benefits of working at Head Office
3. Challenges
4. Community
5. Confidentiality concerns
6. Considerations regarding social entrepreneur
7. Data analysis
8. Developing ideas on SE
9. Document Analysis
10. Empathy conference
11. Feeling motivated
12. Feelings of expectation
13. Feelings of fitting in
14. Field visits
15. Frankness about social impact reporting
16. Further connections
17. Further reading
18. General office talk
19. Getting to know people
20. Growing positive ideas
21. Honesty from interviewees
22. Initial interview analysis
23. Internal celebration
24. Interview coding
25. Interviewee concerns
26. 26. Invitation for further involvement in data

27. Isolation
28. Kindness of staff
29. Office layout
30. Training
31. No SE link
32. Not talking about empathy
33. Office considerations
34. On Purpose
35. Opportunity in the field
36. Orientation at Head Office
37. Personal development
38. Personal emotional challenges
39. Personal feedback
40. Positive perception of interviewee
41. Possible concerns over transparency
42. Questions about my research
43. Reflexive writing
44. Shadowing
45. Shared achievements
46. SE champions
47. Supervision
48. Support for research
49. Tension in the office
50. Tension over role
51. The 'researcher' and 'me'
52. Transcribing
53. Trust and power
54. Views on my research
55. Volunteer work
56. Wanting to be useful
57. Worry

12 'categories'

1. Analysis
7, 9, 22, 24, 52

2. Benefits in research
2, 35, 15, 26, 43, 48, 11,

3. Feedback
39, 54

4. Challenges
3, 49, 31

5. Not talking about empathy
1, 32

6. Research concerns
38, 50, 51, 53, 56, 57, 12, 27, 41, 25, 5,

7. Community
4, 45

8. In the field
14, 44, 55

9. Making connections
16, 20, 19, 8, 37, 13, 23

10. Perspective taking
6, 40, 21,

11. Further research
10, 17, 47

12. In the field
29, 33, 36, 18, 30, 46, 34

3 'themes'

Theme 1:
Research method – ethnography
1, 2, 3, 11, 12

Theme 2:
Challenges
4, 5, 6

Theme 3:
Connecting with others
7, 8, 9, 10

Appendix J: List of interviewees

Code	Position in SE
1.08	Employee
1.12	Trustee
3.15	Volunteer
3.28	Employee
4.02	Senior Team
4.02.1	External stakeholder
4.05	Employee
4.18	CEO
6.05	Senior Team
6.08	Employee
10.01	Senior Team
10.06	Senior Team
10.07	Senior Team
10.16	Trustee
10.22	Senior Team
10.27	Employee
10.30	Senior Team
11.10	Employee
12.28	Employee
18.07	Employee
20.01	Senior Team
20.15	Employee
20.17	Trustee
22.07	Employee
RJ	Reflexive Journal
X	Community

Appendix K: Meta-analysis of 'empathy'

Conducted on 25 November 2014.

This search was further defined by the following search categories: Measuring empathy in Peer Reviewed Journal articles (20,022) / Articles (19,350) / Empathy (7069) / Humans (898) / Social Behaviour (73).

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Appendix L: Meta-analysis of 'social enterprise'
Conducted on 25 November 2014.

The search term was further defined by the following search categories: SE in Peer Reviewed Journal articles (28,635), Articles (27,219) / Social Entrepreneurship, SE and Social Entrepreneur (446) / SE (168). **Twenty-eight non-accessible articles = 140.**

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Appendix M: Meta-analysis of 'measuring empathy'
Conducted on 26 November 2014.

The search term was further defined by the following search categories: Measuring Empathy Peer Reviewed Articles (1,314) / Empathy (472) / Measurement (16).

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Conducted on 10 November 2014

The search term was further defined by the following search categories: Ethnography in Journal Articles (30013)/ Peer reviewed journal articles (19974)/ Ethnography (9024)/ Ethnographic Research (515)/ UK (52).
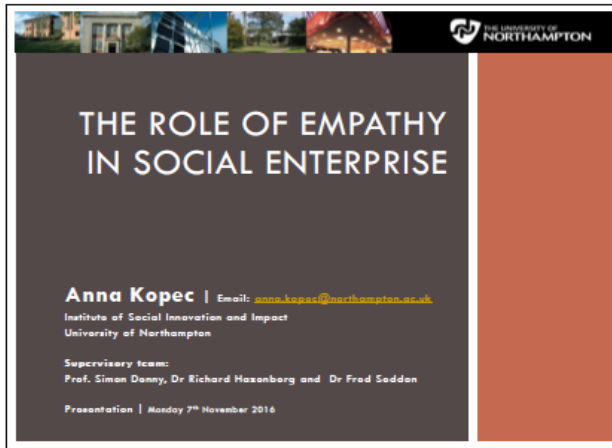
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18. Granter, E., Hyde, P., Hassard, J., and Mccann, L. (2013) 'Still blue-collar after all these years? An ethnography of the professionalization of emergency ambulance work'. *Journal of management studies, Vol.50(5): 750-776.*

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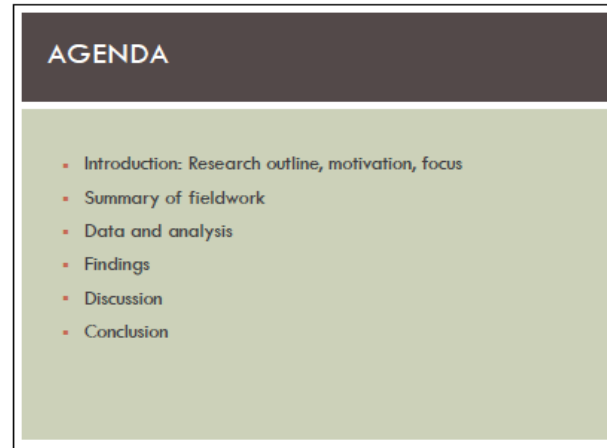
Appendix O: Member Check presentation

RESEARCH FOCUS

- Social enterprise
- Organisational culture
- Motivations (…Empathy ?)

5

METHODOLOGY: ethnography
writing about people
(ethno = people; graphy = writing)

Ethnography is the study of society and aspects of human life (related to anthropology).

- Provides **contextual, descriptive and meaningful data** (Crouch and Mckenzie, 2006)
- Aligns *theory* and *practice* (Watson, 2011)
- **Suspends judgement** and creates more interactive and cooperative environments (Henry, 2012)
- Used in hard-to-reach places **giving a voice** to people/groups (Warming, 2011; Gallacher and Gallagher, 2008)

6

SUMMARY OF FIELDWORK

Interviews

Observation
(approx. 500 hours)

Volunteering

Reflexive Journal

- **Interviews:** Twenty-three interviews (with: Leadership team, Trustees, Employees, Volunteers)
- **Time spent at/with:** Head Office, off-site depots, Employment, Guidance and Advice Office, Learning Centre, Community Outreach: Group Transport, Job Centre…
- **Events:** Social Impact Launch, Users' Forum meeting, Senior Management Team meeting, Staff training, Internal celebrations…
- **In-the-field with service users:** Support Groups, Community Transport Bristol, Clubs for the elderly
- **Volunteering and shadowing:** Learning Centre, collating user data, updating leaflets, translation, collating information for Christmas newsletter, small research projects
- **Daily reflexive journal**

7

SUMMARY OF FIELDWORK

Interviews

Observation
(approx. 500 hours)

Volunteering

Reflexive Journal

Interview Data

Observation data

Daily reflexive journal data

8

EMERGENT THEMES FROM DATA SETS

DATA SET:	SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS	OBSERVATIONS	REFLEXIVE JOURNAL
Theme 1	Business strategy	Business strategy	Benefits of ethnography
Theme 2	Challenges	Challenges	Challenges
Theme 3	Community	Community	Connecting with others
Theme 4	Empathy, Motivation and Respect for others	Empathy	
Theme 5	Innovation and Impact	Innovation	
Theme 6		Ambition	

9

EMERGENT FINDINGS

The SE community =

The 'senior team' including the CEO

+

External stakeholders

+

Employees

+

Beneficiaries including the local community

Finding 1: Empathy in terms of perspective-taking and empathetic communication emerges as a *currency* in social enterprise

Finding 2: Connecting with others through empathetic communication motivates action

Finding 3: Empathy can be encouraged by perspective-taking

Finding 4: Empathetic leadership promotes effective leadership

10

DISCUSSION

- The co-dependency the social enterprise has with wider community emerged as vital.

- The social enterprise is as reliant on the community for its existence as the beneficiaries are reliant on the social enterprise for help.

- In order for the social enterprise to identify and address a social problem, staff must feel some level of empathy with the potential beneficiaries of the social enterprise.

- Maintaining and nurturing the social mission within the organisation emerged as a necessary responsibility shared by all.

- Sharing perspectives and coming together with joint goals unites people and motivates action which is crucial for social enterprise success.

11

CONCLUSION

- **Empathy as a 'currency'** emerged in the research highlighting the crucial role of putting yourself in someone else's shoes.

- Listening to people, relating to them and considering their perspective transpired as vital for social enterprise.

- In uniting common goals and sharing intentions social enterprises can consider the **perspectives of the whole stakeholder model...**

- This enables a **competitive advantage in business** given that the direction of information is coming from the service users which promotes a more inclusive and transparent environment.

"I know exactly how you feel."

12

em . pa . thy

"The ability to step into the shoes of another person, aiming to understand their feelings and perspective, and to use that understanding to guide our actions"

Thank you for your time and attention.
Questions and feedback welcome.

Email: Anna.Kopec@northampton.ac.uk

13

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Mason, C. Meehan, J. Sutherine and Royce, M. (Eds.), Management for Social Enterprise, London: Sage Publications.
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14

Appendix P: Quantitative research methods: Measuring empathy

Definitions of empathy and studies measuring empathy have varied greatly and as a result, conceptualising empathy has often differed from study to study (Gerdes et al., 2010). Between 1957 and 1967 there were twenty-one different definitions of empathy in social work literature (Gerdes et al., 2010). As previously discussed (in chapter two) many definitions of empathy emerged from psychologist Carl Rogers' (1957) work with a focus on the capability of a therapist to perceive the client's world as if it were the therapists' own. From the 1980s onwards, empathy became commonly appreciated as consisting of two factors; the physiological experience (also referred to as affective or emotional experience) and the cognitive experience (Gerdes et al., 2010). Eisenberg et al. (1994) and later Gross (1998) linked the importance of the cognitive experience of empathy to empathetic accuracy. Gross (1998) suggested that the cognitive process of emotional regulation is crucial in the experience of empathy in order to preserve against the observer being overcome by empathy leading to suffering.

Whilst empathy emerges as central to a number of pro-social behaviours including OB; literature on conceptualising, defining and more importantly measuring it have differed greatly (Gerdes et al., 2010). As a result, comparing and developing a measurement for empathy has remained problematic. Empathy in social work and education literature has been described as unclear and narrow (Gerdes et al., 2010). However, cross-disciplinary research, such as Pavlovich and Krahnke's (2012) neuroscience study observing neural networks in the brain, and Goleman's (2002) study of empathy and emotions in leadership is leading to empathy becoming more observable, precise and increasingly widely applicable (Gerdes et al., 2010). On the basis of the disciplinary approaches in neuroscience, social science, and social work practice, Gerdes and Segal (2009, 2011) have developed a comprehensive conceptual framework of empathy. The framework consists of three components: (1) the affective response to another's emotions and actions, (2) the cognitive processing of one's affective response and the other person's perspective, and (3) the conscious decision-making to take empathetic action (requiring an element of emotional disconnection). Having identified quantitative methods as the most commonly used research approach in measuring empathy (see table 4.4), the researcher conducted a meta-analysis of the term 'measuring empathy' in order to investigate whether there is a suitable quantitative tool for measuring empathy.

Table 4.4. Meta-analysis: 'Measuring Empathy'13 (see Appendix M for full list)

Methods	Number of Journals	Research methods undertaken
Qualitative	0	
Quantitative	12	Patient Contact Questionnaire (PCQ) (x2), Jefferson Scale of Physician Empathy (JSPE) (x2), Basic Empathy Scale for Adults (BES-A), Relational Humility Scale, Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (x2), Kids Empathetic Development Scale (KEDS), Baron Cohen Empathy Quotient, Therapist Empathy Measures, Empathy Communication Coding System (ECCS), Portrait Questionnaire, Behavioural Inhibition and Activation, System and Trait Empathy, Perceived Effectiveness, Positive Youth Development (PYD).
Mixed Method	1	Skoe's Ethics of Care Interviews, Defining Issues Test (x2), Meta-ethical questionnaire, Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI).
Theoretical	3	Meta-analysis, systematic review

Jolliffe and Farrington (2006) developed and validated the Basic Empathy Scale (BES). It includes forty items that were later reduced to twenty through factor analysis. The BES measures both cognitive and affective empathy and considers that empathy is an: "…essential component of adequate moral development" (Jolliffe and Farrington, 2006:589). Jolliffe and Farrington's development of the BES scale stemmed from a meta-analysis of empathy and aggressive or anti-social behaviours (Jolliffe and Farrington, 2004). Joliffe and Farrington's (2006) meta-analysis identified three main empathy scales; the Hogan Empathy Scale (HES) (Hogan, 1969), the Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy (QMEE) (Mehrabian and Epstein, 1972) and the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980). The HES, QMEE and IRI have been more recently criticised as not measuring empathy effectively, namely as the QMEE and IRI were found not to distinguish empathy from sympathy (Jolliffe and Farrington, 2006; See chapter two for further discussion of empathy distinguished from sympathy). The other identified difficulty with the HES, QMEE and IRI empathy measures are that they do not measure cognitive empathy. For example, the measures have general capacity to take on another's perspective but do not measure the ability to cognitively understand another's emotion (Jolliffe and Farrington, 2006). The BES has been developed based on Cohen and Strayer's (1996:523) definition of empathy as the: "…understanding and sharing in

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[13] The search term was further defined by the following search categories: Measuring Empathy Peer Reviewed Articles (1,314) / Empathy (472) / Measurement (16).

another's emotional state or context". The BES is identified as a suitable quantitative measure however, longitudinal qualitative research such as ethnographic study is strongly recommended by prior research (Jolliffe and Farringdon, 2006).

The meta-analysis of prior research on empathy has highlighted that quantitative methods are often used to compare the phenomenon of empathy at different sites or settings. For example, Flutter, Meijel, Nijman, Bjorkly and Grypdonck's (2010) research on sixteen wards of a large Dutch forensic hospital aimed at comparing scores to an earlier conducted study and to make comparisons of gender, education level and work experience. Similarly, Kurtz and Grummon's (1972) study of therapist empathy correlated empathy measures with each other; a measure of therapeutic process and with several outcome measures. In relation to the current research, the aim of the study is to investigate the potential role of empathy in SE, therefore a quantitative element is unnecessary as comparisons and generalisations are not sought given the current research is exploratory and in an under-researched area.