

Social entrepreneurial teams: A research agenda

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Structured abstract:

Purpose: Entrepreneurial teams are one of the most crystallized forms of collaboration in the generically collective dynamics underpinning social entrepreneurship. Despite their quantitative prevalence, social entrepreneurial teams (SETs) remain quite absent from the scholarly literature. This chapter aims to develop a research agenda addressing this gap.

Methodology/approach: This chapter first reviews the scarce literature dealing with this subject and develops an operationalizable definition of SETs. Next, it confronts current knowledge on entrepreneurial teams with the specific context of social entrepreneurship to introduce and discuss main topics of investigation on SETs.

Findings: Six topics are suggested to have a high potential for developing knowledge on SETs: formation, size and extended team, gender, decision making and leadership, identity, and turnover.

Research implications: This chapter frames these research avenues within a developmental stages perspective with the aim to contribute to help form and maintain effective SETs.

Originality/value of paper: This research has implications for scholars as it defines SETs as a distinct object for research, which allows extending knowledge on collaborative dynamics in social entrepreneurship, but also on entrepreneurial teams in general. The suggested research agenda and its orientation towards the development of effective SETs should be a springboard for future research on this subject.

Keywords: entrepreneurial team; research agenda; social entrepreneurship.

Word count: 10504

Introduction

Social entrepreneurship is now established as a major topic in entrepreneurship research (Gupta, Chauhan, Paul, & Jaiswal, 2020; Saebi, Foss, & Linder, 2019) with a strong community of researchers as well as dedicated journals, special issues, and conferences, and is highly promoted in practice (e.g., Ashoka). One of its core defining elements is social value creation (Choi & Majumdar, 2014) which often results from a collective, rather than an individual, endeavor (De Bruin, Lewis, & Shaw, 2016; Mitzinneck & Besharov, 2019). Indeed, two conditions have been identified for a social enterprise to emerge: 1) necessity; and 2) a collective identity and shared destiny (Defourny & Develtere, 2009). The latter implies by definition collective dynamics, which may crystallize in entrepreneurial teams as several studies on cooperative formation (Diaz-Foncea & Marcuello, 2013) and community entrepreneurship (Haugh, 2007; Johannisson, 1990) describe. In fact, social entrepreneurial projects appear to be in majority undertaken by teams (Thompson & Doherty, 2006). For example, Schieb-Bienfait, Charles-Pauvers, and Urbain (2009) observe that 58% of projects submitted to a call for financial support to social entrepreneurship in France, were team-based as early as at the idea generation stage.

Despite this evidence, social entrepreneurial teams (SETs) remain quite absent from the scholarly literature. A systematic search in scholarly database resulted in only fourteen articles dealing with SETs, most often in a marginal way. Because social entrepreneurship is characterised by its inherent tension between social and economic dimensions or logics (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Doherty, Haugh, & Lyon, 2014), which may translate into paradoxes within the whole entrepreneurial process as well as within the team (Dufays, 2019; Smith, Gonin, & Besharov, 2013), we argue SETs may consist in a fruitful area for research. In this context of almost non-existing literature, research is thus needed to evaluate to what extent findings on entrepreneurial teams apply in a social entrepreneurship setting and, conversely, how can research on SETs inform research on entrepreneurial teams in general.

As a first step, this paper reviews the extant literature on SETs. It then attempts to provide a definition of SETs. Next, it seeks to identify what the key issues for SETs are and how future research could significantly contribute to the fields of social entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial teams more generally.

Defining social entrepreneurial teams

Reviewing the extant literature

Entrepreneurial teams that create social ventures are what we call SETs. In order to review existing research on this topic, we searched in a large scholarly database (Business Source Complete) and a selection of top and specialized scholarly journals (FT50 entrepreneurship journals, i.e. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, and *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, and ABS-listed specialized journals on social entrepreneurship, i.e. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, *Social Enterprise Journal*, and *Social Business*). We searched in full text for the following expressions together with “social entrepreneurship”: new venture team; entrepreneurial team; founding team; top management team; founders team; start-up team. These keywords enable us to cover the most frequent denominations for entrepreneurial teams (directly and indirectly; e.g. new venture top management team). This list has been compiled starting with the terminologies Leon Schjoedt, Monsen, Pearson, Barnett,

and Chrisman (2013) provide and completed through a broad search with “entrepreneur” and “team” as keywords in an academic web search engine (Google Scholar) and by checking the articles citing those retrieved. This search returned 228 different papers, out of which only fourteen deal with entrepreneurial teams in a social entrepreneurship setting (see table 1 for detailed figures).

Take in Table 1

Most of the retained papers do not focus specifically on SETs. Remarkably, three articles focus on resource mobilization and draw on bricolage theory. Lanteri (2015) studies cases of Lebanese social ventures in order to essentially refine the notion of social bricoleur. One of his larger discussion points is that ‘social entrepreneurs are not alone’. He argues that in practice most social ventures are team-based, citing two studies to comfort this statement (Hmayed, Menhall, & Lanteri, 2015; Katre & Salipante, 2012). He observes that very little is known about SETs and calls for research with entrepreneurial teams as a unit of analysis. In their multiple case study, Servantie and Rispal (2018) suggest SET composition to be an explanatory factor of varying approaches to bricolage, effectuation, and causation in social entrepreneurship. They also found that causation can help to shift from the informal to the formal stage, in particular by providing the entrepreneurial team a shared vision and a structure that results in a clearer allocation of roles within the team. Bojica, Ruiz Jiménez, Ruiz Nava, and Fuentes-Fuentes (2018) focus on the growth stage of social ventures and show that the effect of bricolage on organizational growth depends among others on top management team (TMT) composition in terms of organizational tenure. In contrast, team gender diversity is not found to be a relevant condition to the growth of social ventures that use bricolage.

Also using team composition as an explanatory factor, Harima and Freudenberg (2020) study multiple cases of social ventures initiated by both local and refugee entrepreneurs. They show that such mixed composition of the social venture team is likely to facilitate overcoming the liabilities of the foreignness of entrepreneurial refugees as well as helping them to gain legitimacy in both the refugee community and their host society. In contrast, Gras and Nason (2015) highlight that when the entrepreneurial team of a social venture is composed of family members, the resulting greater homogeneity will facilitate the routinization likely result in a smoother functioning. Drawing on Upper echelon theory, Gauthier, Cohen, and Meyer (2019) develop a series of propositions linking the top management team’s functional background and the creation of social value. They suggest among others that greater heterogeneity in the functional background of the team will be positively associated with a greater and more stable social impact. Finally, in his study of four cases the social innovation processes in their initial stages and undertaken by teams, Dufays (2019) uncovers team size as a factor explaining the types of paradoxical tensions experienced by SETs. He further highlights the nature of the social innovation, and whether the team is pursuing mutual or general interest, as influencing the types of encountered tensions.

In a multiple case study, Bhatt and Altinay (2013) find that social entrepreneurial opportunities develop through collective action. They distinguish between team

entrepreneurship, collective entrepreneurship, which they equate to setting up a cooperative, and collaborative entrepreneurship where a social entrepreneur launches a venture in collaboration with stakeholders. Furthermore, they show the importance of internal social capital development in the SET through increased cross-functional interactions in the scaling process of the idea. The creation of social capital as an objective of social entrepreneurship is also highlighted by Dufays and Huybrechts (2014) in their review of the social entrepreneurship literature with regard to social networks. One of their four research proposals to study social entrepreneurship with a network lens builds on Larson and Starr's (1993) framework of organization formation through social network crystallization. Dufays and Huybrechts (2014) argue that a series of actors facing a specific social need may coalesce in a team and embrace a shared social entrepreneurial project through the commitment they exhibit in achieving a social goal. Camenzuli and McKague (2015) also point at the potential higher social impact of socially entrepreneuring in team. On the basis of an in-depth case study of youth microfranchising in the Tanzanian computer sales, service and training sector, the authors contend, with the right conditions, a team-based approach has the potential to double the job-creation impacts of microfranchising ventures. They explain this by the disadvantaged entrepreneurs' typical lack of specialized technical skills and general managerial skills, for which a team approach can compensate.

Two studies mention SETs to cover all types of founders of social ventures and show that they do not solely focus on individual entrepreneurs. This is the case of Renko (2013) when she considers the total time invested by founders in the development of a nascent social venture and of Pandey, Lall, Pandey, and Ahlawat (2017) who show the positive role of social accelerators on nascent social ventures by increasing founding teams' human capital. Interestingly, these authors also note that team composition in terms of gender plays a role in the perception of the importance of the accelerator benefits since SETs including female members tend to rate these benefits higher (Pandey et al., 2017).

Drawing on social identity theory, Fauchart and Gruber (2011) identify through a qualitative study three main types of founder identity in entrepreneurship. The authors argue that a founder's identity influences new venture creation notably through the core strategic decisions they take and that they expect to be consistent with each other. They then offer an extension to their analysis by considering hybrid identities and the role of entrepreneurial teams. Some founders combined two forms of the pure identity types. Also, their samples contained SETs and they briefly comment on case of homogeneous vs. heterogeneous teams with regard to founder identities. For the former the entrepreneurs' behaviours and actions were found highly consistent in setting up the venture while for the latter the different views were often the subject of intense negotiation between the founders and could be the source of conflict (Fauchart & Gruber, 2011, p. 949).

At the organizational identity level, Elfving (2015) explores through a case study the elements influencing the identity perception of a social venture and the way in which the identity construction process affects the organizational behaviour. She argues for identity layers, that is the organization creates an identity consisting of a core identity, labelled causal identity, which is 'thick', and a 'thinner', collective identity. It does not compromise on the former that constitutes the essence of its mission and vision, while the outer layer enables to engage stakeholders. It is largely influenced by the entrepreneurial team who seeks to promote

flexibility while not compromising the organization's values. The author notes that the entrepreneurial actions cannot be assigned to one single actor, but instead to a group of people, and that there is a gap in terms entrepreneurial cognition research since it focuses on the person, i.e. the entrepreneur, rather than the team.

Finally, two articles examine dynamics at work within SETs and how these influence the social entrepreneurial process. Kummitha Rama Krishna (2018) observes in several case studies of social ventures involving SETs that they adopt design thinking as a methodology while exploring solutions for stubborn problem space without being aware that they are carrying out design thinking practices into their strategies. They do so for instance by continuously consulting the users and beneficiaries of their activity. Hermans and Ben-Hafaïedh (2020) examine the emergence of SET regulatory focus, i.e. strategic orientation, through a qualitative in-depth case study of an organic and small-scale agriculture cooperative in Belgium. Following the hierarchical model of regulation (Scholer, Cornwell, & Higgins, 2019), they show how the combination of foci is achieved at one level after having reached a shared understanding at another.

To summarize, existing research at the intersection of the social entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial team literature stresses the importance of the collective features of social entrepreneurship, embedded in SETs notably. Team composition and its effect on resource mobilization, social value creation and functioning, as well as identity questions are particularly singled out. It should be noted however that SETs are not precisely defined in this existing literature.

An operational definition of SETs

Three main criteria are used to circumscribe entrepreneurial teams in the (conventional) entrepreneurship literature but given the singularity of the social entrepreneurship context, we argue that these criteria should be first discussed in light of the specific setting and then a definition of SETs can be developed. Being a founder is one criterion. Kamm, Shuman, Seeger, and Nurick (1990, p. 7) define the founding period as “the pre-start-up phase of the firm, before it actually begins making its good or services available to the market.” Another criterion is being an owner. Ensley and Hmieleski (2005) argue that it means holding a significant equity stake (10% or more). This condition is likely to be unmet in many cases in social entrepreneurship such as for non-profits and cooperatives, which constitute a large share of social ventures in terms of legal form. In the case of non-profits, there is no equity stake *per se*, as there are no owners. In the case of cooperatives, the number of shareholders is often quite large, especially in citizen-based cooperatives (Huybrechts & Mertens, 2014). In addition, having 10% shares or more of a cooperative does not entitle one to more power than those shareholders having only 1% shares as the democratic governance of cooperatives is based on the ‘one-person one-vote’ principle (Spear, 2004). The shareholding criterion actually refers to both a significant interest and a significant engagement in the venture. We suggest, in contrast to Cooney (2005) notably, that those can be non-financial. Hence, we argue that the second criterion, that is significant equity stakeholder, should in a social entrepreneurship context allow for the said equity to be either financial equity or sweat equity to account for a significant resource mobilization. The third criterion for being considered part of the entrepreneurial team

is to be actively involved in strategic decision making. This is in line with the recent definition of a new venture team by Klotz et al. (2014, p. 227) who “include all team members that actively participate in both the development *and* implementation of the evolving strategy of new venture (e.g., setting the vision and mission, acquiring resources, recruiting employees)”. We follow Ensley and Hmieleski (2005) in considering that fulfilling two out of these three conditions suffices to be considered as part of the entrepreneurial team. However, as this does not exclude certain important stakeholders in SETs such as volunteers, early employees, and financiers, we add as an overarching condition that the SET is seen by its members and by others as a distinct social entity (L. Schjoedt & Kraus, 2009). This means that SET members reciprocate their recognition of being part of the SET and that external actors view them as such. Also, the SETs we consider in this paper are to be found in a social new venture context, i.e. the early stages of development and growth of a social venture. Figure 1 summarizes our suggested definition of SETs.

Take in Figure 1

The particularities of the social entrepreneurship setting and of SETs, combined to the dearth of literature on the topic, lead us to set an agenda for research by identifying key issues facing SETs: how do they form? what compositional and operating characteristics should researchers focus on primarily? what are the SETs specific challenges?

Main SETs suggested research topics

We note that the literature on entrepreneurial teams is predominantly performance-related (Klotz et al., 2014). Furthermore, it has shifted from an Input-Process-Output framework towards the IMOI framework, that is Input-Mediators-Outputs-Inputs (Ben-Hafaïedh, 2017; Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005; Knight, Greer, & De Jong, 2019). Also, the literature on entrepreneurial teams has integrated a stronger consideration of the genesis of these teams (Lazar et al., 2019). Based on these premises, and taking into consideration the scarce mentions of SETs we have reviewed, we offer six main issues that would be fruitful to tackle.

Formation

Understanding the genesis of entrepreneurial teams is important because of the long-lasting imprinting effects on the organization (Beckman, 2006; Beckman, Burton, & O'Reilly, 2007; Leung, Foo, & Chaturvedi, 2013) and the impact an entrepreneurial team has on the new venture's chances of success (Forbes, Borchert, Zellmer-Bruhn, & Sapienza, 2006). The literature distinguishes two main formation modes: the 'lead entrepreneur' approach where an initial entrepreneur has an idea and then decides to form a team, and the 'group approach' where a group of people decide to venture together (whilst having or not identified an opportunity beforehand) (Kamm & Nurick, 1993). Furthermore, entrepreneurial teams can form strategically, based on a resource-seeking approach aiming to fill identified resource gaps, or more on an interpersonal basis where similarity breeds attraction (Forbes et al., 2006). Some authors argue that the strategic and the interpersonal approaches can be combined (Howard E. Aldrich & Kim, 2007; Grossman, Yli-Renko, & Janakiraman, 2012). What would be the main patterns for SETs?

Many social entrepreneurship projects are based on the recognition of a shared (experienced) unaddressed social need (Defourny & Develtere, 2009). That is, they are emerging from a group dynamic. Also, it might be more difficult for a single social entrepreneur to attract members to form an entrepreneurial team since they generally have less financial incentives to offer (in the present and in the future) in exchange for the risk of entrepreneuring (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006). This is both because of the reinvestment of profit into the social mission and because of the resource-scarce environment in which social entrepreneurship traditionally develops. These elements make the case for the prevalence of a group approach in SETs vs. a lead entrepreneur one. Such an approach may raise a few questions in terms of performance. On the one hand, team members might be less inclined to critically assess the group and identify resource gaps. Also, these teams might be more inner-focused and less prone to network and develop their external social capital (Grandi & Grimaldi, 2003; Vissa & Chacar, 2009). Finally, they might be more likely to experience group think (Janis, 1982). All this would hinder the team's and the new venture's performance. On the other hand, the group approach might be more likely than the lead entrepreneur approach to produce value homophilous teams. Coined by Lazarsfeld and Merton (1954), homophily refers to "the tendency of individuals to associate disproportionately with others who are similar to themselves" (Golub & Jackson, 2012, p. 1288). This concept has different dimensions: value homophily and status homophily. The former refers to similarity in values, attitudes, and beliefs. The latter includes both ascribed characteristics (e.g. innate attributes such as age, gender or race) and achieved characteristics (e.g. education, occupation). Conventional entrepreneurs appear to form highly (status) homophilous entrepreneurial teams (in terms of age, gender, ethnicity, and occupation in particular) (H. E. Aldrich, Carter, & Ruef, 2004; Ruef, 2002; Ruef, Aldrich, & Carter, 2003). For SETs, value homophily could be more important to consider as values, attitudes, and beliefs considerations might be even more critical in a social venture with regard, among others, to the legitimacy it might derive from its social mission (Dacin, Dacin, & Matear, 2010). Hence, a group approach would also have an important upside. Moreover, value homophily does not necessarily imply status homophily and, more precisely, functional homogeneity. As any entrepreneurial project, resources and competencies diversity is often viewed as a performance enhancer (Jin et al., 2016; Parker, 2009). When forming their teams, do social entrepreneurs also consider the strategic dimension and seek to fill identified resources gaps? Or is the formation process essentially driven by interpersonal considerations? Again, this has important implications for performance.

Finally, the choice of the formation mode might be contingent on certain situations and positions. Aldrich and Kim (2007) distinguish small world-type networks from more institutionalized networks and argue that a strategic approach is more likely in the second type of networks. For SETs, we propose that a more relevant contingency variable could be the finality of the social venture, distinguishing mutual interest (e.g., for each party's handicapped child) from general interest (e.g., a donation platform). In the case of mutual interest, it is more likely that the idea emerges from a group of persons united by this mutual interest, and that the approach is more interpersonal in nature. The determining criterion for inclusion is more this mutual interest than resource considerations. On the other hand, in the case of general interest, the idea is more likely to come from an individual who will then try to strategically form a team to implement it – this is, a lead entrepreneur approach. Also, even though the attractiveness of

the project is one of the criteria prospective team members consider when deciding to join a lead entrepreneur or initial group in conventional entrepreneurship, we argue it is more salient in social entrepreneurship for at least two reasons. The first is that, as stated above, financial incentives (present or future) are less relevant in social entrepreneurship projects. The second is that the extended entrepreneurial team (Dubini & Aldrich, 1991; Kirschenhofer & Lechner, 2012) is more relevant than in conventional projects. Indeed, to counterbalance resource scarcity, social entrepreneurial projects significantly build around social capital (Busch, 2014) and use human resources, i.e. volunteers, in their resource mix (Gardin, 2006).

Size and extended team

Among entrepreneurial teams structural characteristics, size has regularly been found as having an effect on the team functioning (Dufays, 2019) and on a series of outcomes, such as creativity (Shalley & Perry-Smith, 2008) and new venture performance (Jin et al., 2016). Because teams are a way to pool resources towards an entrepreneurial project (Forbes et al., 2006), it may be hypothesized that the resource scarcity that characterizes social entrepreneurship will encourage larger SETs than their conventional counterparts. Larger teams bring more human capital and probably social capital but they might also be harder to maintain (Jin et al., 2016).

Furthermore, SETs extended team which comprises stakeholders such as volunteers would expectedly be larger than that of conventional entrepreneurial teams. Many social enterprises do indeed rely on volunteer labour (Gardin, 2006). Volunteers give their time and skills to help push the project forward and contribute to the new venture's success (Shaw & Carter, 2007). However, this precious resource for social entrepreneurs also imposes constraints. Volunteers need to be managed and guided to act effectively (Corner & Ho, 2010). Their possible readiness to intervene in strategic decision-making of the core team might have to be tempered without demotivating them, and they might want to get some value, such as recognition, from the time and energy they are giving to the project (Valéau, 2010; Vega, 2006). The extended entrepreneurial team thus provides resources and can influence decisions of the core team (Dubini & Aldrich, 1991; Kirschenhofer & Lechner, 2012). This is particularly the case of another category of extended SET members that is philanthropic venture capitalists. They not only provide resources but contribute to professionalize, to reach financial self-sustainability, and to expand the social venture through a set of value-adding activities such as strategizing, mentoring, consulting, and operating (Ingstad, Knockaert, & Fassin, 2014).

Miller and Wesley (2010) show that social venture capitalists tend to acknowledge the dual organizational identity of social enterprises and use both economic and social measurements but still rely more on traditional entrepreneurial criteria to make their decision. It is likely that, in the same way venture capitalists make biased decisions by favouring entrepreneurial teams that are similar to them (Franke, Gruber, Harhoff, & Henkel, 2006), venture philanthropists are tempted to fund SETs that resemble them. As a consequence, we argue that SETs might feel pressured to give signals (Busenitz, Fiet, & Moesel, 2005) of their compliance to economic indicators, among others by adapting the team composition.

Gender

Based on data from Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), social ventures are found to be more likely to be started by men than by women, but the gender gap is not as big as for conventional ventures (Bosma & Levie, 2010). Furthermore, there are no differences between the rates of women social entrepreneurs among the different types of economies, in contrast to the rate of men social entrepreneurs which is positively related to economic development (Pines, Lerner, & Schwartz, 2012). Explanations include the (perceived) stronger prosocial behaviour of women (Calás, Smircich, & Bourne, 2009; Díaz García & Welter, 2013; Themudo, 2009), the lower gender discrimination observed in social enterprises with regard to leadership and wages (Teasdale, McKay, Phillimore, & Teasdale, 2011), the reproduction of a culturally-produced and family-based stereotype (Calás et al., 2009), the increased awareness to social entrepreneurship opportunities through higher exposure to community issues through child-rearing duties that reveals opportunities for social entrepreneurship (Levie & Hart, 2011), or the cynical exploitation of this stereotype providing women with a ‘comparative advantage’ as they would be more legitimate than men in entrepreneuring socially. With regard to entrepreneurial team composition, at least two main questions arise. First, Godwin et al. (2006, p. 623) argue that “as a result of sex-based stereotypes, women entrepreneurs face unique obstacles in securing access to resources for their ventures, [and] that one way for women entrepreneurs to overcome these obstacles is to partner with a man.” Is this the case in social entrepreneurship? Do women face the same legitimacy issues? Isn’t it a field where it is the men who would benefit from partnering with women to, notably, benefit from feminine stereotypes? Second, one of the potential pitfalls social ventures face is mission drift, that is a diversion of resources – both financial and non-financial – away from the social mission (Jones, 2007). Are mixed-gender SETs better armed against this risk than men-only teams? Due to their (perceived) stronger prosocial behaviour, women could indeed act as ‘guardians’ of the social mission of the venture and hence avoid mission drift.

Additionally, the hierarchical structure of the entrepreneurial team and the roles endorsed by women are also likely to be different in SETs than in conventional ones. Yang and Aldrich (2014) observe that stereotypes tend to confine women in subordinate roles in entrepreneurial teams. According to them, leadership skills are associated with masculine attitudes. Therefore, women suffer from a lower legitimacy in leader positions in entrepreneurial teams. Because of their greater empathy and prosocial behaviour, it might be argued that this deficit of legitimacy does not exist in SETs, at least not to the same extent, and that it is therefore more likely to observe women at leading positions.

Decision-making and leadership

Governance is likely to play an important role in managing the hybridity of objectives of social entrepreneurship and in resisting mission drift (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Ebrahim, Battilana, & Mair, 2014). Traditionally, governance of social enterprises has emphasized democratic decision-making and participatory management (Spear, 2004), as well as involvement of different stakeholders (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010; Huybrechts, Mertens, & Rijpens, 2014). These governance mechanisms encourage the emergence of ideas by co-creation (Goldstein, Hazy, & Silberstang, 2008). For these reasons, social entrepreneurs have been suggested to be bridge-builders in their leadership style (Alvord, Brown, & Letts, 2004). In a social enterprise, one would expect responsible leadership which is best viewed as a shared or distributed process

(Pearce, Wassenaar, & Manz, 2014; Pless, Maak, & Waldman, 2012). This type of leadership is first relevant to the core SET where leading behaviour would be manifested by the team as a whole and not just a single individual (Ensley, Pearson, & Pearce, 2003). Research has shown shared leadership to improve, under certain conditions, entrepreneurial team performance (Pearce, Manz, & Sims Jr, 2009) as well as new venture performance (Hmieleski, Cole, & Baron, 2012).

Moreover, in a context of social entrepreneurship, vertical leadership might be perceived as contrary to the social mission (Stevens, Moray, & Bruneel, 2015) and could be questioned in terms of legitimacy as the democratic values are deeply rooted in the social enterprise tradition (Ridley-Duff, 2007). This also means that this form of leadership would encompass the extended SET as well. However, and due to the diversity of a social venture's stakeholders and their goals, integrating them to the decision-making may divert the SET from its original social mission. It might also raise the question of who really governs the social entrepreneurial project (Cornforth, 2004). Finally, tensions and/or power unbalance could emerge within the SET when some team members act as representatives of stakeholders (Crucke & Knockaert, 2016).

Internal team processes such as decision-making are also influenced by team cognition (de Mol, Khapova, & Elfring, 2015), which in turn is likely to be influenced by the SET's salient hybridity. Indeed, as the plurality of logic is bringing cognitive complexity, it is also likely to result in cognitive conflict, that is disagreements among team members about their understanding of how to best meet the team's objectives (Jehn, 1997). However, the likely shared prior experience of the social problem they want to tackle will probably favour shared understanding as it acts as a socialization process. Hence, we suggest to extend Beckman's (2006) findings showing that shared prior work experience favours shared understanding. As a consequence, we ask the question of how SETs balance between shared understanding and cognitive conflict stemming from hybridity and how this affects their decision-making.

Identity

Social ventures are also hybrids in terms of organizational identity (Ashforth & Reingen, 2014; Moss, Short, Payne, & Lumpkin, 2011). Hybridity would thus be a key feature in SETs' identity (Busenitz, Sharfman, Townsend, & Harkins, 2016), raising the question of how a hybrid collective identity can be achieved at the team level. Do all team members need to have a hybrid identity themselves or can the latter emerge from a team composed by social-oriented entrepreneurs on the one hand and business-oriented entrepreneurs on the other (Dufays & Huybrechts, 2017)? Fauchart and Gruber (2011) found in their study entrepreneurs who had hybrid social identities, mainly combining the communitarian identity and the darwinian identity. In a social entrepreneurship context, the former would align with the social mission of a social enterprise while the latter would be closer to its economic mission (Stevens et al., 2015). The SET hybrid identity may also form through a mix of communitarian or missionary and darwinian individual members. The risk in this case is that of favouring the emergence of two identity-based subgroups (Carton & Cummings, 2012) which may create a faultline (Lau & Murnighan, 1998), that is a divide between these two subgroups that negatively impacts team processes and consequently team outcomes (Thatcher & Patel, 2012). This impedes behavioural integration whereas Florin and Schmidt (2011, p. 173) argue that a behaviourally integrated

SET “has the best chances of succeeding in managing the hybrid venture strategy paradox (Lubalkin et al. 2006)”. A shared identity in teams has been found to lower intrapersonal conflicts (Hinds & Mortensen, 2005) and to affect team effectiveness (Mitchell, Parker, & Giles, 2011), but its effect on mission drift potential remains unknown.

Identity is also tightly linked to motivation through the concept of ‘possible selves’, which are “cognitive manifestations of enduring goals, aspirations, motives, fears, and threats” (Markus & Nurius, 1986: 954, cited by Farmer, Yao, and Kung-Mcintyre 2011). Leitch and Harrison (2016) suggest that “identities are the primary source of motivation for human behaviour” (p. 177). Indeed, entrepreneurs derive motivations from the potential identity they would like to endorse – as an individual and/or as a team. Social entrepreneurs are said to have a primary social motivation (Christopoulos & Vogl, 2014; Germak & Robinson, 2013). In the same way that SETs might put together members with different identities, team members may have diverging motivations based on different projections of their self, which ultimately need to be aligned in the social entrepreneurial project. In particular, Germak and Robinson (2013) have observed that most social entrepreneurs are motivated by the proximity they have with the social cause they want to address (e.g. having a mentally-disabled relative). This proximity with the social cause may differ among SET members (in terms of distance or on the basis of diverging experience but similar concerns), which in turn may be revealed through diverging individual identities and discrepancies in the attachment to the social mission.

Relatedly, social entrepreneurial identity is also deeply rooted in life events and its construction often begins prior the entrepreneurial project *per se* (Yitshaki & Kropp, 2016b). According to Yitshaki and Kropp (2016a), social entrepreneurs differ from other entrepreneurs in the sameness they find in similar past life events or deep social sensitivity. For SETs, this raises the question of how team identity can be constructed on the basis of diverging past life events, but similar concerns for a social need.

Turnover

An entrepreneurial team is bound to evolve. During the start-up stage, some new members might join the existing group while others might leave. In conventional entrepreneurship, new entries are generally linked to resource needs (Vanaelst et al., 2006). While social new ventures would probably have at least as much needs in terms of resources, their difficulties to attract SET members at first through current or future financial conditions (Austin et al., 2006) would probably carry on during the start-up stage. It might also be more difficult to retain the current SET members. Would a strong collective social identity contribute to attract and retain SET members? The equilibrium of the SET might be very fragile and rest upon the commitment to the project and to the social mission. This is also linked with the motivation and the proximity of social entrepreneurs to the social cause they aim to tackle (Germak & Robinson, 2013). Further, this proximity to the social problem might engender much emotiveness in the entrepreneurial process, which may ultimately lead to conflicts within the team as different members may diverge in their feeling of how to address the social problem. The question is then whether to maintain the team or the project stable over time.

Through an analysis of social entrepreneurs’ auto-biographies, Dempsey and Sanders (2010, p. 451) show that successful social entrepreneurs “cultivate an identity of being highly passionate and having a strong commitment to their work (...) at the expense of physical and

emotional well-being and family life”. This self-sacrifice with regard to time and financial resources could be a motivation for social entrepreneurs to team up, in order to be relieved from certain tasks and to group resources. However, frustrations leading to team member exits might then emerge from the democratic governance model. On the one hand, this may increase the team members’ commitment to strategic decisions. But on the other hand, it is likely that decision-making in a SET is more time consuming, which might ultimately lead to conflicts, as experienced in the growth path of Teach for America (Dempsey & Sanders, 2010). Yet, even though social entrepreneurs are driven by compassion (Miller, Grimes, McMullen, & Vogus, 2012) and the desire to create social value, they also display a strong need for achievement (Lehner & Germak, 2014), which might conflict with the long time it takes to successfully launch a social venture (Renko, 2013).

Concluding remarks

Social entrepreneurship is a generically collective phenomenon and the role of collaboration in this field is central (De Bruin et al., 2016; Lanteri, 2015; Montgomery, Dacin, & Dacin, 2012). One of the most crystallized forms of collaboration in entrepreneurship is the entrepreneurial team (Kamm et al., 1990; Larson & Starr, 1993). This chapter opened with the puzzling observation of the quasi-absence of research on SETs which contrasts with their quantitative and qualitative importance. Most new social ventures are team-based and, in conventional entrepreneurship at least, it has been demonstrated that team-based new ventures achieved better performance than solo new ventures, growth in particular. In social entrepreneurship, scaling is of essence as it generally translates in increased social impact. This chapter’s ultimate objective is to foster research on entrepreneurial teams which would, beyond addressing the existing gap in the literature, help form and maintain effective SETs. Based on the scarce existing research on SETs and the confrontation of the literature on entrepreneurial teams with the context of social entrepreneurship, this chapter has identified and discussed six main topics of investigation on SETs: formation, size and extended team, gender, decision making and leadership, identity, and turnover.

One of the main shifts in the entrepreneurial team literature is the growing adoption of the Input-Mediator-Output-Input (IMOI) framework instead of the traditional Input-Process-Output (I-P-O) framework that is facing increasing criticisms (Ben-Hafaïedh, 2017). Ilgen et al. (2005) notably argue that it neglects the existence of mediators that are not specifically processes, that it does not clearly highlight retroaction, and that it supposes a very linear model when reality has proven to be more complex. They thus suggest the IMOI framework in which notably the ‘M’ encompasses the different processes as well as the so-called emergent states. The latter are “constructs that characterize properties of the team that are typically dynamic in nature and vary as a function of team context, inputs, processes, and outcomes. Emergent states describe cognitive, motivational, and affective states of teams, as opposed to the nature of their member interaction” (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001, p. 357). Identity and shared leadership are two examples of emergent states considered as important topics for the future of research on SETs in this paper. The IMOI framework also permits to consider the most relevant issues according to an entrepreneurial team’s developmental stage, that is the forming stage (IM), the functioning stage (MO), and the evolving stage (OI). What would be the critical issues to address throughout the development of a SET?

At the forming stage, the first questions relate to the SET's formation and more specifically to the formation modes, the lead entrepreneur approach or the group approach. What is the most prevalent approach to SET formation? Which approach might prove to be the more effective? and under what conditions (the possible impact of the finality of the social enterprise, that is mutual vs. general interest, for example)? Furthermore, are SET members recruited on strategic and/or interpersonal foundations? How can this process be enhanced? At the forming stage, the SET forms and its identity as well. The first question here concerns the relationship between the emergent organization identity and the team identity? On the one hand, how do SETs manage the inherent dual identity of social entrepreneurship? How does it impact the team's composition? On the other hand, how does the SET's identity impact the new venture's identity? Furthermore, how do SETs manage tensions in the different levels of identity (team and individual) and the different sources of identity (personal, relational, collective)? Finally, how do individual member motivations relate to 'possible selves' of the SET?

The functioning stage raises the issues of decision making and leadership. How does social entrepreneurship hybridity affect team decision-making? Does the type of social aim (general and/or mutual interest) influence the nature of conflicts faced by the team, their impact, and the way they resolve them? In that regard, what is the influence of shared experience of the social problem tackled by all or some team members? Moreover, what is the most prevalent leadership style in SETs? Is shared leadership a more effective style to conduct SETs? To what extent is leadership style in SETs advocated by the plurality of stakeholders' demands and institutionalized beliefs and practices in the field? Furthermore, how does team size influence the management of hybridity in SETs?

The evolving stage questions the sources and consequences of turnover in SETs. How does the size of the initial team influence the turnover? What are the main reasons for subsequent entries and/or exits in the SET? What team composition is valued by social venture capitalists? To what extent do SETs adapt their composition to send signals to their extended team? How do SETs maintain their extended team to secure critical resources? For example, given the trade-offs volunteers face with other activities such as work, family life, and/or other social purpose activities, how do SETs deal with volunteers' turnover?

To conclude, this chapter has sought to develop a research agenda on SETs by first reviewing the scarce literature on the topic and developing an operationalizable definition of a SET. Then it has suggested and discussed six main important SET topics awaiting research. Finally, in order to contribute to future research aiming to help form and maintain effective SETs, this paper has framed key research question in a team developmental stages perspective based on the IMOI framework. Overall, this research has implications for scholars as it defines SETs as a distinct object for research, which allows extending knowledge on collaborative dynamics in social entrepreneurship, but also on entrepreneurial teams in general. The suggested research agenda and its orientation towards the development of effective SETs should be a springboard for future research on this subject. This chapter also paves the way for the integration of the team-level of analysis with other levels of analysis, among others through the examination of the extended team. For example, the social entrepreneurship ecosystem that includes support structures, public authorities, business schools, venture philanthropists, and so

forth could be seen through the lens of the extended SET as they are all collaborating on a certain social entrepreneurial project.

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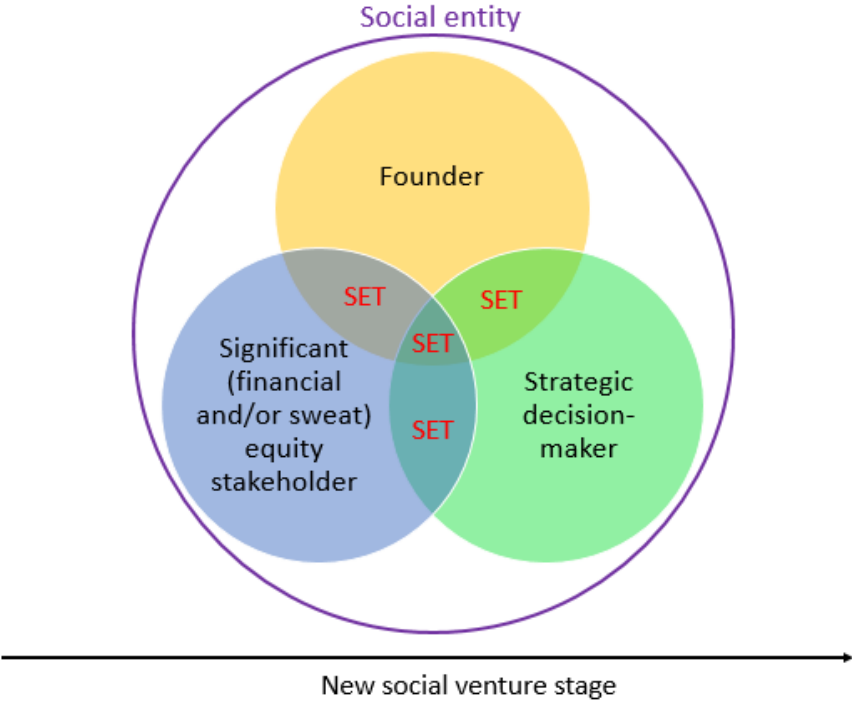
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Figures

Figure 1. Social entrepreneurial team definition



Tables

Table 1: Results of the search of scholarly papers on SET (in terms of hits)

SEARCH TERMS	HITS
“social entrepreneurship” AND “new venture team”	5
“social entrepreneurship” AND “entrepreneurial team”	75
“social entrepreneurship” AND “founding team”	89
“social entrepreneurship” AND “top management team”	89
“social entrepreneurship” AND “founders team”	1
“social entrepreneurship” AND “start-up team”	14
<i>DUPLICATES</i>	45
TOTAL	228
<i>RELEVANT</i>	<i>14</i>

Search in Business Source Complete, FT50 Entrepreneurship journals (Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice, Journal of Business Venturing, Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal) and Social entrepreneurship specialized journals included in the ABS journal ranking (Journal of Social Entrepreneurship, Social Enterprise Journal, Social Business) – last updated on June 1, 2020.