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Training future hybrid nonprofit social enterprise leaders: a research-based instructional needs analysis

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TRAINING FUTURE HYBRID NONPROFIT SOCIAL ENTERPRISE LEADERS: A RESEARCH-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL NEEDS ANALYSIS

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Approval of Dissertation

We, the faculty supervising the work of **Robert Woodrow Adams**, affirm that the dissertation, ***Training Future Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Leaders: A Research-Based Instructional Needs Analysis,*** meets the high academic standards for original scholarship and creative work established by the EdD Program in Leadership Studies and the College of Education and Professional Development. The work also conforms to the requirements and formatting guidelines of Marshall University. With our signatures, we approve the manuscript for publication.

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Abstract

Nonprofit social enterprises (NSEs) seek to address societal problems through for-profit ventures. Because they pursue social and commercial goals, these organizations have great potential to solve social and environmental issues more efficiently and effectively. Given their unique purpose and challenges, NSEs require a different type of leadership than traditional nonprofit organizations, a distinctive competency model with specialized social work and business management training. Research has shown, however, that finding leaders with this necessary mix for effective management poses a challenge for such organizations. This exploratory study aimed to examine the extent to which MPA (i.e., master's degree in public administration) and MNM (i.e., master's degree in nonprofit management) preparatory programs include the primary NSE leadership competencies in their curricula. The researcher developed an NSE leadership competency survey from the literature and distributed it to 250 MPA and MNM faculty and administrators employed at various public and private universities. Data analysis techniques included descriptive statistics, *t* tests, and bivariate correlations, showing neither program type focuses strongly on teaching NSE leadership competencies. MNM programs and private universities cover several well and more extensively than MPA programs and public universities. Findings highlight pedagogical enhancement opportunities for MPA and MNM NSE leadership preparation programs at public and private universities.

Keywords: social enterprise, hybrid nonprofit social enterprise, dual-mission social enterprise

Chapter 1: Introduction

Hybrid organizations combine social service and marketplace characteristics or purposes (Battilana et al., 2015; Mitra et al., 2019) that would not conventionally go together. They span the boundaries of nonprofit, public, and private sectors (Karré, 2022) and are motivated to pursue a social and commercial mission simultaneously, all "under one roof" (Fowler, 2000, p. 647). Scholars have referred to an objective that benefits society by providing solutions to social problems as a social mission (Battilana, 2018). In contrast, a commercial mission refers to selling customers a product or service to make a profit (Santos et al., 2015).

Billis (2010) clarified the issue by comparing organizational types using templates for private, public, and nonprofit organizations. Billis explained market forces guide private sector organizations to maximize financial returns. In contrast, public benefit and collective choice guide public sector organizations funded by taxes. Finally, nonprofit sector organizations pursue social or environmental goals, generate revenue from private donations, and cannot legally distribute residual earnings to directors or owners (Hansmann, 1981). Organizations that use another formation not limited to these characteristics, distinct from business, nonprofit, and public organizations, are usually labeled hybrids.

Although these boundaries have existed for centuries, they are now less relevant (Shier & Handy, 2020). The difference between commercial and social sectors has diminished for economic and political reasons, including the 2008 financial collapse, public private partnerships, and the recent resurgence of government conservatism (Yaari et al., 2020). Hybrid forms have emerged due to these economic and political realities, promoting a mix of business and social welfare objectives (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Park & Bae, 2020).

Often, social entrepreneurs (re)design hybrid organizations using the power of the marketplace to solve social problems in an entrepreneurial way (Massetti, 2012; Spear, 2019; Tracey et al., 2011) or to engage in social entrepreneurship (Mair & Marti, 2006; Kickul et al., 2018; Roundy, 2017a). When organizations strategically combine commercial and social missions at their core (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Litrico & Besharov, 2019; Park & Bae, 2020) they become social enterprises (SEs). In doing so, SEs serve customers and beneficiaries simultaneously, creating economic and social value for multiple stakeholders rather than personal or shareholder wealth (Dees, 2012; Doherty et al., 2014; Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012; Pache & Santos, 2013). For example, SEs reinvest profit to seek sustainable solutions to the most intractable social problems such as access to healthcare, pandemics, food insecurity, poverty, or environmental degradation (Crossan et al., 2005; Oberoi et al., 2021).

SEs can have many organizational forms and designs (Bull & Ridley-Duff, 2019; Kickul et al., 2018). Researchers have offered valuable ways to explain the position hybrid SEs have in an economy, positioned at the middle point of a continuum illustrated by having market-oriented, mainstream businesses at one end and voluntary, charitable-based solutions at the other (Dees, 1998; Leadbeater, 2007; Stevens et al., 2015). More diverse, hybrid SE designs reflect different public, nonprofit, and for-profit structures, legal forms, strategies, and collaborations and include formal subsidiary arrangements, separate entities, contractual agreements, and informal relationships among staff across organizations (Battilana, 2018; Battilana & Lee, 2014; Kerlin, 2006; Smith, 2010; Yaari et al., 2020).

SEs are classic examples of hybrid organizations because they pursue a social mission through market-oriented means or social entrepreneurship (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2010). These organizations must meet social and financial objectives to ensure long-term viability

(Battilana & Lee, 2014; Billis, 2010; Pache & Santos, 2013; Yaari et al., 2020). Although financial sustainability is essential for success, financial performance should not become an end goal. SEs aim to maintain social impact as their primary purpose (Alter, 2007; Defourny & Nyssens, 2017). Structurally, a hybrid SE most often operates as a nonprofit or a nonprofit with a for-profit subsidiary but can also comprise separate entities (Battilana et al., 2015; Brandsen & Karré, 2011).

Three prominent hybrid SEs are Goodwill, Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), and Story Pirates. The U.S.-based Goodwill Industries, a century-old, nonprofit organization, features thrift stores that generate $6 billion (about $18 per person in the United States) annually through a commercial model using donated goods. Goodwill supports a mission of enhancing disadvantaged citizens' dignity and quality of life through job creation and training (Gibbons & Hazy, 2017). The YWCA, founded in 1858, empowers women by providing social services such as childcare, housing, and job training (Roundy & Halstead, 2016). To support the social mission, local chapters have founded for-profits including hotels and cafes. On a smaller scale, Story Pirates, a nonprofit organization founded in 2006, provides after-school drama programs to underserved schools. To help fund their stage shows, the organization launched a for-profit with the same name to accommodate ticket sales (Littlewood & Holt, 2018) with licensing agreements linking the two organizations.

Although scholars can trace the earliest U.S.-based hybrid formations over 100 years, they have placed the emergence of hybrid SEs in the 1960s alongside the rise of political mindfulness (Ellis, 2010). Amid social unrest, U.S. citizens began to consider the plight of disadvantaged communities and their degrading environments. This consciousness change increased the number of hybrid nonprofit SEs (NSEs) with revenue generation features, holding great promise for solving social and environmental issues more effectively. Additionally, the rise of globalization (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012) and technological advances (Yaari et al., 2020) have improved citizens' capabilities to respond, accelerating the process among stakeholders and increasing their confidence in acting to mitigate these needs.

NSE formation has increased in the United States over the last 2 decades because the market for socially and environmentally conscious products and services has grown to $290 billion (about $890 per person), and the corresponding need to meet this market opportunity (Abramson & Billings, 2019; Haigh et al., 2015). This growing popularity is testimony to how NSEs address social challenges the market and government do not (Leadbeater, 2007). Furthermore, significant shifts in U.S. culture have occurred, leading to increasingly blurred lines among private, public, and nonprofit sectors and the resulting formation of more NSEs, which have incorporated the rise of neoliberalism, described as deregulating capital markets and reducing the state's role in the economy by privatizing state-owned enterprises (Boas & Gans-Morse, 2009; Dean, 2014).

Other changes have included the decline of the welfare state, reduced public expenditures, diminished trust in government (Hasenfeld & Garrow, 2012), and the failure of conventional institutions to develop solutions to pressing social problems (Austin et al., 2006; Casasnovas & Bruno, 2013; Dees, 1998; Shier & Van-Du, 2018). Moreover, nonprofits have been experiencing unprecedented rising costs (Ellis, 2010; Phillips & Hebb, 2017). According to Salmon et al. (2021), nothing we have seen in the last few years with COVID-19 vaccine attitudes would suggest a change in this perspective. Nonprofits are well-positioned for these shifts, increasingly encouraging the adoption of financial tools and entrepreneurial business models to sustain or expand their mission work without traditional philanthropic support.

The ever-increasing NSE environment appears to be straining leaders' skills to balance a social and economic bottom line continuously and dynamically (Battilana et al., 2015; Santos, 2012; Smith et al., 2013; Stevens et al., 2015; Yaari et al., 2020). The unique mixture of logic and objectives in one organization is an ongoing source of tension, as simultaneously addressing divergent nonprofit and for-profit goals creates competing stakeholder demands, conflicting expectations, and ethical dilemmas (Dees, 2012; Rychert & Wilkins, 2020; Smith et al., 2013). These stressors often lead to an identity crisis or mission drift whereby managers lose sight of their social mission to focus on economic objectives (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Santos et al., 2015; Smith & Besharov, 2019; White et al., 2022).

Correspondingly, policymakers may begin to question the capacity of the NSE to solve social issues, maintain client needs as a top priority, and accomplish its financial goals (Greenwood et al., 2011; Hoefer & Sliva, 2016). Effective leadership in addressing these different orientations, tensions, and conflicts is essential, and dependent upon the executive officers and leadership team. (Smith, 2010; Smith et al., 2013). One could logically assume earlier hybrid formation led to leaders experiencing similar problems caused by conflicting goals. It appears, however, early researchers did not show interest in conducting relevant hybrid leadership competency studies (Jackson et al., 2018).

The past decade has witnessed an increase in NSE research (Battilana, 2018; Billis, 2020; Litrico & Besharov, 2019; Smith et al., 2013), partly in response to Dees (2007) urging academics to take these organizations seriously. Much of this research addressed tensions that surface in conditions of hybridity and focused on management processes and strategies to cope with its inherent complexity, but did not examine leadership competencies (Battilana, 2018). This research included the marketization of social endeavors (King & Gish, 2015), the meaning of work (Sun & Sohn, 2021), finding funding sources (Cobb et al., 2016; Lall & Park, 2022), reforming markets (Beaton & Kennedy, 2021), monitoring tools to adjust mission focus (Siebold et al., 2019), and differentiating goals (Besharov et al., 2019).

Other NSE studies examined selective coupling of mission elements (Pache & Santos, 2013), integrating missions over time (Ramus et al., 2021), clashing values (Castellas et al., 2019; Chandler, 2014), managing processes (Doherty et al., 2014; Yaari et al., 2020), developing social capabilities and values (Weaver, 2020), and transforming culture (Naderi et al., 2019).

Notable studies have considered critical NSE and social entrepreneurship distinctions and practices from traditional business (Dees, 2012; Pache & Santos, 2013). For example, Phillips and Tracey (2007) defined the term “bricolage” as “making do by applying combinations of the social and financial resources at hand to new problems and opportunities” (p. 316). Others have offered praise by describing social entrepreneurs as heroic business savvy individuals possessing the determination of traditional business leaders coupled with a relentless passion for social causes (Bornstein, 2007). Although these studies have been successful in highlighting strategies that help managers promote social and economic bottom lines, there is still a lack of in-depth NSE and social entrepreneurship leadership competency research.

Notwithstanding scholarship advancement in the NSE field over the last decade, it is disconcerting to see the lack of significant focus on leadership competency (Gupta et al., 2020; Jackson et al., 2018). Similarly, established leadership researchers have not focused on the specific contexts of NSE organizations. Jackson et al. (2018) suggested hybrid NSE leadership studies are still in their infancy due to the relatively small sector size and lack of empirical evidence. The authors also surmised, however, that the scarcity has been partly due to scholars’ lack of interest in NSE leadership distinct from the for-profit and public sectors.

Fortunately, several scholars have arrived at beneficial (if partial) NSE and social entrepreneurship leadership characteristics with studies addressing creativity and risk-taking (Bublitz et al., 2021; Elkington & Hartigan, 2008; Yaari et al., 2020), heuristic or easy-to-apply problem-solving processes (Grint, 2005a; Jackson et al., 2018), and consensus-building (Johnson, 2012). Other studies have addressed integrating paradoxical demands (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Smith et al., 2012; White et al., 2022), transformational altruism (Chang & Jeong, 2021; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021), and mobilizing stakeholders (Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012; Ebrahim et al., 2014).

With a few exceptions (Jackson et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2012; White et al., 2022), however, most of these NSE or social entrepreneurship leadership studies have tended to overestimate the importance of individual leaders (Corner & Ho, 2010) or founding entrepreneurs' ingenuity (Siegner et al., 2018; Yaari et al., 2020) or heropreneurship (Papi-Thornton, 2016, p. 3) while underestimating the significance of leadership competencies needed in this unique environment. From a broader research perspective, Grint (2005b) and Jackson et al. (2018) argued scholars had been too engrossed with individual leader traits when they should have focused on competencies and leadership processes and contexts. Grint urged scholars to "put the *ship* back into *leadership*" (p. 18).

Although these previous approaches have enhanced understanding of NSE management strategies, they have not yet addressed the leadership competency problem satisfactorily (Yaari et al., 2020). To date, researchers have not yet constructed or evaluated a comprehensive list of leadership competencies needed for success in the unique NSE environment. Most scholars have focused on individual leaders, management, and strategies but have not addressed the leadership competencies topic. The lack of research in this area is unfortunate because it is crucial to understand SE leadership better. NSE organizations are vital in filling the void created by governmental or market failures (Beaton & Kennedy, 2021; Dacin et al., 2011).

Problem Statement

NSEs are an increasing presence as a force for social change. Like other successful organizations, NSEs need exceptional leaders who can execute their strategies to solve social problems and develop substantial revenue and profit. Considering their unique dual mission and challenges, NSEs require a different type of leadership from standard nonprofit organizations, a distinctive leadership competency model with specialized social work and business management training (Battilana, 2018; Weaver, 2021). Research has suggested, however, it is challenging for such organizations to acquire leaders with this necessary mix to provide effective management (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Bhati & Manimala, 2011; Mueller et al., 2013; Napathorn, 2018; Salamon et al., 2003; Smith & Darko, 2014). Moreover, as SE organizations and related training are not widespread (Austin & Rangan, 2019), few job candidates have extensive experience or formal education in NSE leadership (Battilana, Lee, et al., 2012; Napathorn, 2018).

Operational problems, including mission drift or favoring one operation over another, and the corresponding managerial tensions, arise when founders lack the leadership training to balance and maximize social and commercial interests and objectives (Stevens et al., 2015), which is a threat, in this unique hybrid situation, to organizational sustainability and legitimacy (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Mueller et al., 2013; Rosser et al., 2021; Yaari et al., 2020). A lack of knowledge about how well higher education professional programs expose students to NSE leadership concepts compounds the issue. To address this problem, researchers need to determine whether university preparation programs (e.g., master’s degree in public administration) include NSE organizations’ central leadership concepts and competency needs in their curricula.

Purpose

Individuals who aspire to lead NSEs are trained in public organizational, nonprofit, or business leadership programs in colleges and universities, with increasingly more nonprofit courses being offered annually (Austin & Rangan, 2019). The aim of this study, therefore, is to determine whether master's degree programs in public administration (MPA) and nonprofit management (MNM) curricula allow students to acquire the essential leadership competencies to lead NSEs.

Researchers appear to have coalesced around three primary leadership competency constructs: (1) balanced integration (BI), (2) creative sustainability (CS), and (3) inspirational change (IC). A review of the extant literature in Chapter Two will be used to construct a survey that examines the leadership competency constructs.

Research Questions

This study will adopt a non-experimental, descriptive approach to learn more about the educational foci of university programs. The following research questions will guide this study.

Research Question 1: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of balanced integration (BI) in their curricula?

Research Question 2: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of creative sustainability (CS) in their curricula?

Research Question 3: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of inspirational change (IC) in their curricula?

Operational Definitions

The following definitions and procedures explain how the researcher intends to measure the primary NSE leadership competencies:

- Balanced integration (BI) is defined as embracing and managing tensions, conflicting goals, and competing demands among social- and profit-oriented missions (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Jackson et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2012) measured by participants' responses to Survey Items (SIs) 1 through 7.
- Creative sustainability (CS) is defined as discovering and pursuing business opportunities, innovating, and taking risks as a social entrepreneur to create social and economic value (Bublitz et al., 2021; Capella-Peris et al., 2020; Roundy, 2017a) measured by participants' responses to Survey Items (SIs) 8 through 14.
- Inspirational change (IC) is defined as inspiring, motivating, and collaborating as a transformational leader to achieve social and profit-oriented missions (Bhutiani et al., 2012; Chang & Jeong, 2021; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021) measured by participants' responses to Survey Items (SIs) 15 through 20.

Method

This descriptive, nonexperimental study used a purposive sampling of master of arts in public administration (MPA) and nonprofit management (MNM) faculty representing U.S., Canadian, and European universities to investigate the research questions. The study sought to include enough participants and universities to gather a wide range of views based on various attributes (e.g., institutional size, geographic location, or Carnegie classification).

NSE leadership competencies derived from the literature (Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012; Dees, 2012; Jackson et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2012) were used to develop a 20-item behavior survey to assess the extent to which MPA and MNM programs are addressing the prominent leadership competency needs of the NSE organization in their curricula. The instrument was made available online, delivered to participants via email, social media, or website link, and required 15 minutes or less to complete. The survey was pre-tested before any data was collected to ensure clarity, face, and content validity, as Fink (2017) suggested.

Delimitations and Limitations

The researcher limited the investigation to MPA and MNM programs rather than include those in social work, business, or political science that also prepare students for careers in nonprofit organizations (Austin & Rangan, 2019; Mirabella & Wish, 2000). The researcher judged that the benefits of manageability outweighed the value of extending the study to other participant types that might have detracted from answering the research questions confidently.

The study's limitations include two potential threats to internal and external validity. First, the sample size is limited because of the challenge of finding willing participants from MPA and MNM programs. Consequently, findings may be limited to MPA and MNM faculty who responded to the survey rather than generalizable to a larger population. Second, as is common in nonexperimental studies, the investigator had little control over potential confounding variables. The participants were a purposive sample rather than a randomly assigned one; therefore, self-selection bias might threaten internal validity. Also, there might have been naturally occurring differences between programs.

Moreover, respondents may have done so because of a positive or negative bias toward one type of concept or organization. Participants' perceptions may be considered somewhat subjective as well, and these responses might limit the accuracy of the collected data (Kerlinger, 1986). The researcher's own professional experience as a nonprofit board member may have constituted a source of empathy and provided an experiential background that enhances effectiveness in eliciting and understanding respondents' perceptions. It may also have been a limitation because it is a potential source of bias.

Significance

Research has suggested tension springs from NSE leaders' unique challenge to integrate dual, contradictory social welfare and commercial missions (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Besharov, 2014; Yaari et al., 2020). Striking a healthy balance between dual commitments while motivating followers to identify new ways of doing business and pursue new opportunities is central to SE leadership (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2012), but leaders with these abilities are difficult to find (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Battilana, Lee, et al., 2012; Bhati & Manimala, 2011; Napathorn, 2018; Smith & Darko, 2014). Investigating how MPA and MNM programs expose students to the primary leadership competencies of NSEs should contribute to a better understanding of the hybrid SE.

NSE leaders succeed by demonstrating the ability to apply a mix of social service and profit-oriented leadership competencies in their unique NSE environments. Most professional training for nonprofit leadership occurs in preparation programs such as the master of arts in public administration (MPA) and the master of arts in nonprofit management (MNM) (Austin & Rangan, 2019; Mirabella & Young, 2012). A worthwhile goal is to help these programs adjust to better prepare young leaders for success in an ever-growing hybrid environment, thus enabling NSE success. The consequence of inaction is that NSE performance declines, increasing the likelihood many will fail. Society could suffer from inadequate services provided to marginalized U.S. citizens by underperforming NSEs.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Hybrid organizations offer a new way to do business that seeks positive and sustainable social change using commercial activities (Billis, 2020; Dees, 2012; Karré, 2022). In a 2007 commencement speech at Harvard University, Bill Gates of Microsoft made a case for hybridity. Gates suggested the United States could serve marginalized and vulnerable citizens better by adapting the market creatively to fulfill social needs (Leadbeater, 2007). In effect, Gates suggested building hybrid enterprises that apply business expertise and market-based skills to promote social welfare. Similarly, Pope Francis also fostered the idea of businesses making socially and environmentally conscious decisions that are not purely profit driven (Whaples, 2017). The unique challenge of managing these divergent goals, however, can lead to tension, creating operational pressures, unclear expectations, and poor performance (Battilana, 2018; Rychert & Wilkins, 2020; Yaari et al., 2020). For example, hybrid leaders often face difficulty balancing profit making with a social mission and defining dual mission success, which can cause stakeholders to question the capacity of the hybrid enterprise to solve social issues by commercial means (Dacin et al., 2011; Greenwood et al., 2011; Park & Bae, 2020).

The prevailing literature addressing challenges that arise in conditions of organizational hybridity has focused on management strategies in response to competing demands that emerge through commitments to both social and business objectives. Such strategies include the marketization of social endeavors (King & Gish, 2015), exploring the meaning of work (Sun & Sohn, 2021), finding funding (Cobb et al., 2016; Lall & Park, 2022), reforming markets (Beaton & Kennedy, 2021), using monitoring tools to adjust mission focus (Siebold et al., 2019), deploying digital innovation (He et al., 2022), and differentiating goals (Besharov et al., 2019). Others have included selective coupling of mission elements (Pache & Santos, 2013), aligning values (Castellas et al., 2019; Chandler, 2014), managing processes (Doherty et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2012; Yaari et al., 2020), developing social capabilities and values (Weaver, 2020), redesigning jobs and organizations (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Busch & Barkema, 2019), and transforming culture (Naderi et al., 2019; Peredo & Chrisman, 2006). No study has produced a unifying, comprehensive leadership competency list that reflects the best way to resolve tradeoff tensions from managing and balancing social and economic bottom lines and meeting competency needs inherent in hybrid organizations.

The literature review contributes to the understanding of leadership challenges present in hybrid enterprises. First, it investigates the history of hybrid organizations and reasons for their recent proliferation and emergence in the literature, including the relatively novel concepts of social enterprise **(**SE**),** hybrid nonprofit social enterprise (NSE), and social entrepreneurship. Second, the review details NSE tensions arising from the competing demands of delivering social services and operating market-based revenue ventures, triggering ethical and performance dilemmas for their leaders (Dees, 2012; Smith et al., 2012; Yaari et al., 2020). Third, it compares different hybrid models to understand their unique structures and leadership challenges. The fourth section of the review examines hybrid NSE and social entrepreneurship leadership approaches in response to the tensions and competing demands inherent in hybrids, including management practices, leadership roles, and what appears to be missing from the extant SE leadership research. Fifth, this study examines research to review how higher education programs teach NSE and social entrepreneurship concepts. Finally, the study then identifies the recurring NSE and social entrepreneurship components reviewed in the literature to compile a comprehensive NSE leadership competency list to survey leadership preparation programs and evaluate the extent to which they introduce students to these competencies.

Hybrid Organization History

Hybrid organizations, primarily nonprofits incorporating commercial activities to support their mission, are not new in the United States or internationally (Defourny & Nyssens, 2017). In most Western European countries, nonprofits and mutual societies were predominant in social welfare services before World War II. Kerlin (2006) noted that this business behavior started in the United States during the colonial era when community groups sold homemade goods at bazaars to supplement voluntary donations. The practice expanded over the last century with the founding of the U.S.-based Goodwill Industries, a century-old, nonprofit organization featuring thrift stores that generate $6 billion annually (about $18 per person in the U.S.) annually using a donated-goods commercial model. Goodwill supports its mission of enhancing disadvantaged citizens' dignity and quality of life through job training (Gibbons & Hazy, 2017).

When the U.S. federal government launched the Great Society programs in the 1960s, the quest for more equality and civil rights for minorities led to an explosion of civil movements to address these significant societal issues (Ellis, 2010). The transformation in government policy led to significantly expanded funding invested in solving the country's most complex, intractable problems, including health care, housing, and environmental protection, and channeled through nonprofits rather than the extensive yet inefficient government bureaucracy (Crossan et al., 2005; Defourny & Nyssens, 2010).

The U.S. economic downturn in the late 1970s led to welfare entrenchment and critical decreases in federal funding (Salamon, 1997, 2015). Nonprofits considered commercial ventures to fill the gap in their budgets by selling goods and services unrelated to their core mission. Kerlin (2006) reported market-based strategies accounted for the most significant growth in nonprofit income between 1982 and 2006. During this time, nonprofit commercial revenue increased by 219% and, at its peak in 2002, accounted for 57.6% of nonprofit income. Meanwhile, private contributions only grew from 19.9% to 22.2%.

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, consulting firms and institutions sprang up to support nonprofits in exploring commercial ventures. Two prominent examples of this trend are the creation of the Skoll Foundation, an organization that promotes large-scale social change by connecting social entrepreneurs and innovators (Skoll Foundation, 2015), and Ashoka, founded in the 1980s to support individuals and organizations in developing strategies for social change (Drayton & MacDonald, 1993).

According to Drayton (2002), a well-known social entrepreneur and founder of Ashoka, social entrepreneurs exhibit prominent personality traits. Scholars have described this set of individuals as creative, courageous, opportunity sensing, thinking out-of-the-box, and visionary in a social service setting. However, an emerging perspective challenges this accepted view of the social entrepreneur, recognizing the importance of a collective innovation process (Peredo & Chrisman 2006; Spear, 2019), and focusing on the many people within organizations who contribute to entrepreneurial success.

Scholars rarely discussed hybrid organizations and social entrepreneurship in the literature before the year 2000, but they have made impressive breakthroughs in the last decade, especially in the United States and Europe (Battilana, 2018; De Bernardi et al., 2021; Defourny & Nyssens, 2017; Yaari et al., 2020). Hybrid research has grown from 620 studies in 2010 to 1,600 in 2018 (Billis, 2020), partly in response to Dees (2007) urging academics to take these organizations seriously.

Hybrids combine different *logics* in unprecedented ways (Austin et al., 2006; Battilana et al., 2015; Karré, 2022), applying market-based skills to produce income to support their social benefit activities (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Santos, 2012). To help clarify the *logics* concept, Table 1 summarizes social and commercial enterprise logics (Fitzgerald & Shepherd, 2018; Social Enterprise Alliance, 2010). For nonprofits, social values are primary, manifesting in democratic governance, collaborative decision-making, and ethical standards. They sometimes view profit negatively because their financial sources are primarily government contracts, donations, and grants, and their operating logic incorporates their values and traditional funding sources.

Table 1

Logics Summary

Logics	Social	Commercial
Desired outcome	Social value	Economic value/profit
Primary driver	Values-based mission	Market preferences
Tactic	Collaborative	Competitive
Source of legitimacy	Unity of purpose	Market position
Funding source	Contracts and donations	Trading income
Stakeholders	Clients, families, funders, broader community	Customers and owners

On the other hand, for-profits have a competitive market logic, hierarchical top-down governance, and profit maximization as primary features. When they encounter competition or market variations, they often adapt their products and services to engage customers better. The challenge for a hybrid organization is to manage these two competing logics by coupling them in a way that provides the most benefit—for example, using compromise, negotiation, or innovation to achieve a balance between for-profit and nonprofit demands without jeopardizing the organization from within (Pache & Santos, 2013; Smith et al., 2013).

Often, social entrepreneurs set up hybrid organizations to solve social problems, driven by a philanthropic desire to improve society. Thus, they adopt an economical business model at start-up, promoting dual missions (Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012; Yaari et al., 2020) and are accountable to two principal stakeholder groups-beneficiaries and customers (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Roundy, 2017a). Broadly, social entrepreneurs are individuals and social entrepreneurship is the process they use to create sustainable revenues to reduce social inequities (Alegre et al., 2017). The hybrid helps them accomplish their goals (Alter, 2007). These social entrepreneurs are innovators in fields, such as health care, environmental protection, education, and finance, among many others. Social entrepreneurs use social entrepreneurship to develop novel products and services (Doeringer, 2010). Regardless of their focus, successful social entrepreneurs measure their impact differently from standard business entrepreneurs who focus primarily on market share and profit margins. The standard for social entrepreneurs is their ability to solve problems for marginalized people or to bring attention to other societal or environmental issues (Roundy, 2017a).

The most prevalent form of hybrid organization in the United States is a nonprofit adding a commercial venture to support its social cause. This type of nonprofit adopts practices typically associated with a business, focusing more on economic objectives than exclusively social ones (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Defourny & Nyssens, 2017; Smith & Besharov, 2019). As nonprofit hybrid organizations, they combine charity and business as a strategy, functioning as a nonprofit and for-profit at the same time (Ebrahim et al., 2014).

Over the last two decades, the size and influence of the government and nonprofit sectors have increased hybrid development and related management challenges. The United States government formed a tax-exempt category, the 501(c)3 charitable designation, which helped jump-start nonprofit organizations' creation. These nonprofits supply services that the government does not offer or trust the private sector to deliver (Andreasen & Kotler, 2008). Nonprofits are a vital part of modern society, contributing significantly to the U.S. economy.

Jobs in the nonprofit sector have grown faster than those in the for-profit sector in the last 20 years (Bilzor, 2007; National Council of Nonprofits, 2019), employing 12.3 million and making up almost 11% of the total workforce. Furthermore, nonprofits contribute $2 trillion to the economy in products and services government no longer needs to supply. Equally important, charitable nonprofits play a role in creating healthier communities.

The federal and state governments in the United States have expanded significantly since the 1960s, with departments and agencies employing 11 million citizens to fulfill U.S. laws. Moreover, since 1960, annual federal spending has increased significantly, doubling about every 15-20 years to an estimated $7.3 trillion by 2019 (Dilulio, 2017), requiring added workers to manage the resulting service expansion. Experts expect state government spending of $1.02 trillion in 2022, a 9.3% increase compared to 2021 (National Association of State Budget Officers, 2021). Light (2019) explained political maneuvers characterized by hiring caps and freezes have promoted a reliance on nonprofits and government-contracted workers to deliver goods and services even as the number of federal employees has held steady for 70 years.

Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Emergence

Although the mix of social welfare services and profit-oriented commercial practices was a feature of the early hybrids, the recent growth and change in the nonprofit and government sectors have compounded hybridity (Dees & Anderson, 2003; Shier & Handy, 2020). Since 2000, five significant transitions in U.S. culture have led to an overlap across the three major economic sectors—private, public, and nonprofit—resulting in more hybrid nonprofit organizations, often referred to as the *fourth sector* (Battilana & Lee, 2014):

- The 2008 economic collapse contributed to the shift in and growth of economic neoliberalism, defined as a belief in the virtue of a self-regulating market, distrust of the public sector, and the reduced role of the state in the economy, most notably the privatization of state-owned enterprises. Conservative policies, the implementation of public sector austerity, and the corresponding decline in social welfare federal spending have also influenced the shift (Hasenfeld & Garrow, 2012; Phillips & Hebb, 2017).

- Correspondingly, the 2008 financial crisis contributed to a belief, particularly among millennials, that the free market failed the country when it should have contributed more to solving U.S. society's most pressing needs of poverty and a deteriorating environment (Casey, 2015).
- U.S. citizens believe government-directed public policy has failed to address social problems beyond its bureaucratic service delivery, which is antithetical to innovation (Dees, 2012).
- The traditional nonprofit turned to earned revenue to sustain or expand their mission work in an environment of rising costs, government cutbacks, and growing competition for funding (Dees & Anderson, 2003; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Kerlin, 2006).
- The study and practice of business management has gained prestige (Lounsbury & Strang, 2009).

Nothing seen in the last few years with COVID-19 vaccine attitudes would suggest a change in these perspectives (Salmon et al., 2021). Nonprofits, however, seem well-positioned to benefit from these five shifts, adopting entrepreneurial business models to sustain or expand their mission work without substantial government or philanthropic support. Nonprofit boards and stakeholders have felt mounting pressure from budget constraints, underserved groups, increasing competition from for-profit providers, as well as a desire for autonomy to act effectively as entrepreneurs to raise needed revenue (Gammal et al., 2005; Hoefer & Sliva, 2016; Salamon, 2015).

The diminishing of sector differences (Poole et al., 2006) has been partly due to the growth of private sector management philosophy (e.g., market share) in the nonprofit sector (Hood, 1991) and because nonprofits have begun adopting dominant management practices in the field (Dart, 2004). Nonprofit and for-profit organizations have aligned, looking more like the hybrids and requiring distinctive leadership approaches, risk avoidance, competencies, collaboration, and structures (Austin, 2000; Sanders et al., 2015). Warning signs have indicated business-like principles could distract nonprofit managers from their core purpose and undermine the sector's distinct culture (Battilana et al., 2015; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Santos et al., 2015). However, other researchers have found hybridity can bring greater value from multiple logics (Brandsen & Karré, 2011; Santos et al., 2015).

Amid many qualitative hybrid organization studies, Thompson and Williams (2014) offered a correlational study in which they analyzed factors that may increase the likelihood of meeting dual social and income-generating objectives. Although a longitudinal study would have added power to their findings and value to the literature, the authors found business trading activities, specifically from selling goods and supplying services, not grants or contracts, can lead to mission drift, keeping nonprofits from achieving their social mission.

Hybrid organizations can manifest in various ways. For example, they can combine social services with profit making or political organizing (Wells & Anasti, 2019), but most nonprofit, hybrid organizations, however, create separate revenue streams in support of their social mission. Some transition into for-profit businesses (Litrico & Besharov, 2019), while at the same time seeking social change (King & Gish, 2015). In fact, many nonprofit executive leaders already describe their organizations as businesses (Sanders et al., 2015), adding a commercial revenue stream to sustain agency work and reduce dependence on grants and funders. Structurally, hybrids can run the gamut as organizations with smaller projects featuring commercial and social welfare or organizations that run significant commercial activities to address a societal problem (Santos et al., 2015). It is apparent from research conducted by King and Gish (2015), Battilana and Lee (2014), and Dees and Anderson (2003), among others, structure does matter with hybridity. The goal is to choose the best design for a particular situation.

The preeminent theory of hybrid formation and functionality is the social enterprise (SE), a hybrid organization producing sustainable social and economic value through a unified social entrepreneurship strategy aligned with the organization's mission (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Park & Bae, 2020). Although research has yet to provide a consensus definition of SE and social entrepreneurship, most view social entrepreneurs as those who either transform traditional organizations into SEs or who start new SEs by incorporating dual missions in the organization's culture and strategy from its outset (Ko et al., 2021).

What makes SEs different from traditional nonprofits and private-sector organizations with corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives is SEs directly address social needs through the success of their core products and services as a combined strategic imperative. Researchers and practitioners have viewed SE as a "ray of hope in a world filled with poverty, environmental degradation, and moral injustice" (Smith et al., 2013, p. 407). Awarding the 2006 Nobel Peace Prize to the founder of Grameen Bank, Muhammad Yunus, a leading promoter of microfinance SEs, illustrates their expanding influence.

SEs are not motivated to generate profits for traditional shareholders (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012). Instead, they use business expertise to create profits to solve social problems, provide job opportunities for the disadvantaged, and contribute to community development. Various models have emerged that describe the essential feature of SEs as delivering social instead of financial value to their beneficiaries (Crossan et al., 2005; Eldar, 2017; Santos et al., 2015; Vakkuri et al., 2021). These SE models suggest that traditional delineations between nonprofit and for-profit organizations have become less meaningful, part of a new economic paradigm where SEs create social and financial value (Patten, 2017). Nonprofit SEs can use business ventures rather than donations to generate funds. Alternatively, SEs can be transactional for-profits, turning to social impact by developing mutually beneficial contractual relationships with disadvantaged patrons by selling them low-cost products and services. These for-profits reinvest generated revenue into the community, allowing the enterprise to meet multiple objectives while creating additional social wealth and consumer opportunities (Hoefer & Sliva, 2016). Another perspective is that SEs, unlike other organizations, offer utopian entrepreneurial organizing and disregard their political, economic, and social dependence (Mazzei et al., 2021). It is unknown whether SE entrepreneurial ventures can sustain service delivery and profit when public funding decreases (Phillips & Hebb, 2017).

There has been an increase in global SEs, as more organizations see the value of the market to support social welfare. One report showed international investors committed $10.6 billion in social impact investment in 2013 and pledged to invest another 19% by 2016 (Government of Ontario, 2018). In the United States, analysts estimated 25,000 SEs, with 22% reporting earnings of over $2 million in revenues (Thornley, 2013).

Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Tensions

Because SEs seek to solve social problems through business expertise, they combine the efficiency and innovation of the for-profit world with the passion and mission of the nonprofit world (Battilana, Lee, et al., 2012). Consequently, they institutionalize the seemingly incompatible goals of both commercial and social welfare missions in one organization. Conflicting missions and competing stakeholder demands and interests can lead to unclear expectations, power struggles, contradictory strategies, and ethical dilemmas for leaders, creating tensions and threatening their organization's legitimacy (Hoefer & Sliva, 2016; Park, 2020; Rosser et al., 2021). For example, market feedback could come more from customers who contribute to financial stability than from beneficiaries supported by its social mission (Ebrahim et al., 2014).

A few critical studies, however, have labeled these tensions as a core advantage of SEs (Smith et al., 2012; Phillips & Tracey, 2007), as they present an opportunity to enhance legitimacy through ongoing adaptation and innovation rather than an impossible problem to solve (Gigliotti & Runfola, 2022; Hagedoorn et al., 2022; Mongelli et al., 2018; Smith & Besharov, 2019). For instance, SEs could attempt to resolve tensions that surface through their commitment to dual missions by engaging diverse stakeholders in discussion, exploration, and synthesis, what Smith and Tracey (2016) describe as "a virtuous cycle" (p. 459). Leaders can leverage the resulting energy to create beneficial outcomes, resolving these different visions (White et al., 2022) while moving towards an independent business model (Weerawardena et al., 2021). Still, there is some doubt whether SEs generating market revenue can maintain clients' social needs as a priority in the long term (Dacin et al., 2011; Santos et al., 2015).

How SEs balance hybrid logics and adapt to resulting tensions is a topic needing further research (Alexius & Furusten, 2020). Hence, I focus on research that describes tensions to enhance understanding leadership challenges. For instance, researchers have reviewed the prevailing SE literature (Park, 2020; Smith et al., 2013), then summarized SE business tensions:

- *Performing tensions* appear from opposing goals, such as quantitative versus qualitative metrics. The tension-related question for leaders is: How do we define and measure success across conflicting goals?
- *Organizing tensions* are those that emerge from conflicting internal dynamics such as structures, culture, and practices. For example, SEs could increase profits instead of hiring the disadvantaged to achieve a social mission. A critical question is: Who should SEs hire, and how can they best train and socialize them?
- *Belonging tensions* emerge from opposing identities among organizational groups. For example, employees might identify with a social mission over a financial mission. A related question is: How can SEs manage divergent identity expectations among groups and present their hybrid identity to the outside world?
- *Learning tensions* ensue from timelines and growth. For instance, unconstrained business growth could increase, helping in the short-term yet threatening the impact of long-term social goals. The tension-related question for leaders is: How can we manage increased short-term costs to achieve long-term social growth?

Kay et al. (2016) identified several tensions in SEs their leaders must manage (see Table 2). Organization leaders can relieve these tensions through collective decision-making, creating new organizational structures or projects, building trust, and maintaining the SE's social purpose central to its success (Park, 2020). My literature review suggested, however, SEs have ongoing tensions and competing demands even with effective restructuring or disciplined, collaborative decision making (Smith et al., 2013).

Table 2

Types of Tensions in SEs

Managing the enterprise as a business	vs.	Running the enterprise to achieve social objectives
Re-investing any surplus in the SE to expand	vs.	Using any surplus to support more work in the local community
Spending time on leading and managing the SE	vs.	Spending time on local projects
Recruiting people with a business background	vs.	Recruiting people with a community development background

Despite these tensions and mixed reviews, many revenue-generating entrepreneurial SE ventures operating inside nonprofits have upheld the nonprofit's values-based mission (Jager & Beyes, 2010). McBrearty (2007) suggested SE activities operating in the nonprofit sector can succeed when leaders align businesses' trading activities with strategy, core competencies, and mission. One caveat is McBrearty provided evidence that developing commercial ventures in a nonprofit expends disproportionate amounts of senior executive time, and consequently is not always a good choice.

Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Models

This study focuses on the hybrid nonprofit social enterprise (NSE). Despite the urgency of management tensions and controversies resulting from nonprofit hybrid formation, researchers have not reached a consensus on a list of primary leadership competencies essential to NSEs (Battilana, 2018; Ilac, 2018). An NSE has three characteristics that distinguish it from other types of nonprofits and government agencies (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2010):

- Its products, services, and employment of the disadvantaged address social needs.

- Its money-making activity produces revenue that is a significant source of the nonprofit's earned income.
- Though blended with its commercial activities in its strategy and mission, social objectives are its primary purpose.

Notable NSEs are Goodwill, the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), charity:water, and Story Pirates. The U.S.-based Goodwill Industries, a century-old, nonprofit organization, features thrift stores that generate $6 billion annually (about $18 per person in the United States) annually using a commercial model with donated goods (Gibbons & Hazy, 2017). In addition, Goodwill supports the mission of enhancing disadvantaged citizens' dignity and quality of life through job creation and training (Goodwill Industries, n.d.). The YWCA, founded in 1858, empowers women by providing social services such as childcare, housing, and job training (Roundy & Halstead, 2016). Its mission is to end racism; empower women; and promote peace, justice, and dignity for all (YWCA, n.d.). Local chapters have founded for-profit ventures to support the operation, including hotels and cafes.

In 2006, Scott Harrison founded charity:water to bring clean water to every person living without it and pursue an even bigger vision to reinvent nonprofits with an innovative business and social service model (charity:water, n.d.). The SE features two ground-breaking revenue generation programs. First, they have created a community of business leaders who donate a portion of their private holdings to support the SE staff, rewarding high performance through these equity opportunities. Second, they partner with companies to develop mutually beneficial marketing campaigns tailored to each brand.

On a smaller scale, the nonprofit Story Pirates, founded in 2006, provides after-school drama programs to underserved schools. Its mission is to celebrate young people's words and ideas and create confident, literate students equipped with tools for written, verbal, and artistic self-expression (Story Pirates Changemakers, n.d.). To help fund their stage shows, the organization launched a for-profit with the same name to accommodate ticket sales (Littlewood & Holt, 2018) with a licensing agreement linking the two organizations.

When organizations develop a mix of different missions, they can create an unfamiliar hybrid environment in which appropriate support systems, including operational and human resources, do not yet exist (Battilana, Lee, et al., 2012). Innovation can thrive in these hybrid organizations, but it often leads to a constant, competing push-and-pull situation requiring employees to focus on one mission temporarily and then the other.

For many years, the most prominent thought leaders and policy experts have believed that profit-oriented businesses cannot and should not address societal pains (Austin et al., 2006; Battilana & Lee, 2014; Dees, 1998). Some corporations, however, pursue philanthropy programs such as CSR. Still, these programs are non-business activities, neither part of the firm's core mission (Alter, 2007). Alternatively, when nonprofits have attempted to set up revenue-generating streams, these hybrid programs are often unrelated to their core mission—hence neither sustainable nor prosperous (Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012).

Researchers have demonstrated hybrid organizations operating separate social and commercial activities is not the best approach (Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012). A common theme that has emerged from the literature is the hybrid ideal (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Kerlin, 2006; Lee et al., 2014), in which organizers create blended wealth, combining social and commercial purposes into one mission to form an SE. Particularly helpful to managers, this ideal does not require them to choose between a social and a profit mission because they strive to integrate both goals (Pache & Santos, 2013). Hoping to better understand this ideal structure and the associated leadership challenges, I explored and presented research proposing various hybrid SE models.

Continuum Models

Three models best typify the hybrid SE continuum concept (Alter, 2006; Dees, 1998; Stevens et al., 2015). Dees (1998), a widely recognized pioneer in social entrepreneurship, offered one of the first and most helpful models to explain hybrids and delineate their place in the economy. In Table 3, Dees located them at the middle point of a continuum ranging from mainly market-oriented, mainstream business at one end to purely voluntary, charitable, socially based solutions at the other. Dees conceptualized the range of possible models available to social entrepreneurs, from purely humanitarian to profitable and viewed hybridity as occurring when a social entrepreneur creates sustainable social value through market means.

Table 3

Dees's Hybrid Spectrum

Process and stakeholders	Purely Charitable	Hybrids	Purely Commercial
Motives, Methods, & Goals	Appeal to goodwill Mission-driven Social value creation	Mixed motives Balance of social mission and market Social/economic value	Appeal to self-interest Market-driven Economic value creation
Key Stakeholders			
Targeted Customers	Pay nothing	Subsidized rates or a mix of full payers and those who pay nothing	Pay full market rates
Capital Providers	Donations and grants	Below-market capital or a mix of donations and market rates	Market rate capital
Workforce	Volunteers or bare-bone staff	Below-market wages or a mix of volunteers and fully paid staff	Market-rate compensation
Suppliers	Make in-kind donations	Special discounts or a mix of the in-kind and full price	Charge full-market prices

Hybridity occurs when an organization on either end of the spectrum falls short of at least one spectrum dimension and moves along the spectrum toward a compromised form. For example, suppose a charity sees its social programs failing due to lack of public funds. In that case, the agency could create a business venture to support the cause. Dees suggested that social entrepreneurs create social value through stakeholders and the process listed in the first column. For example, a hybrid SE such as Goodwill creates value by employing disadvantaged workforce populations. In contrast, a micro-finance lender creates social value differently by offering loans to poor customers who do not have access to capital. Dees suggested that the essential determinants of hybrid enterprises are motives, methods, and goals aligned with the key stakeholders. The model's weakness is the absence of for-profit and quasi-government hybrids, probably because Dees underscored social entrepreneurship and purely commercial and charitable markets.

Alter (2006) developed a hybrid spectrum distinguishing between two families of hybrid organizations with different purposes (see Table 4). Like Dees (1998), Alter (2006) argued all hybrid organizations organize by motive, accountability, and use of income. Two strong forces, however, also drive SEs; first, they benefit from an innovative, entrepreneurial solution. Second, they need diversification of their funding streams to sustain the business.

Alter's (2006) chief contribution to the literature was setting apart nonprofits with income-generating activities distinct from SEs, arguing that an income-generating endeavor becomes an SE when managers operate it as a business. They meant organizers established it strategically and managed it as an ongoing concern, with growth and revenue targets documented in a business plan. However, Alter proposed nonprofits with income-generating pursuits, socially responsible businesses, and corporations practicing CSR are not SEs because their hybrid ventures do not meet these criteria and not central to their mission. Other researchers have concurred, including Billis (2003, 2010), Crossan et al. (2005), and Leadbeater (2007), that nonprofits with some earned income and CSR businesses are not SEs because they do not integrate dual missions strategically at their core.

Table 4

Alter's Hybrid Spectrum

Organization Type	Traditional Nonprofit	Nonprofit with Income-Generating Activities	Social Enterprise (SE)	Socially Responsible Business	Corporation Practicing Social Responsibility	Traditional For-Profit
			Social Mission Motive Stakeholder Accountability Income reinvested in social programs	Profit-making Motive Shareholder responsibility Profit redistributed to shareholders		

Using an experimental study design, Stevens et al. (2015) audited 270 Belgian SEs, questioning whether their social and economic missions were at two ends of a continuum or independent, whether they were corresponding features of the organization or opposing forces. In Table 5, the authors suggested a continuum model but recommended examining the independence of the two missions. For example, they said resource challenges illustrate competing missions whereby one mission was high and the other was low. It could, however, be a challenge to navigate both perspectives in daily functions. The mindsets needed to focus on one may differ from those required by the other.

Stevens et al. (2015) attempted to determine the existence of social and economic mission constructs using a survey instrument. The researchers used a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the reliability and validity of the constructs, showing how missions relate to one another and influence organizational values, identity, and attention to goals. Stevens et al. found the three organizational factors of *values*, *identity*, and attention to social and economic *goals*, reflect the mission of an SE. *Values* refers to the level of self-and other-regarding principles, *identity* refers to the importance of social relationships compared to products and services, and *goals* include the prominence of social and economic tasks.

Based on their results, Stevens et al. (2015) identified an inverse relationship ($\gamma = -0.96$, $p < 0.01$) between social and economic missions, suggesting that the factors are at the two opposites of a continuum. They concluded that social and commercial tasks in an SE are more likely than not competing for scarce organizational resources where leaders devote greater resources to one of them. The authors cautioned it is theoretically possible for an SE to be high and low in both missions in a particular environment.

Table 5

Stevens et al.'s SE Model

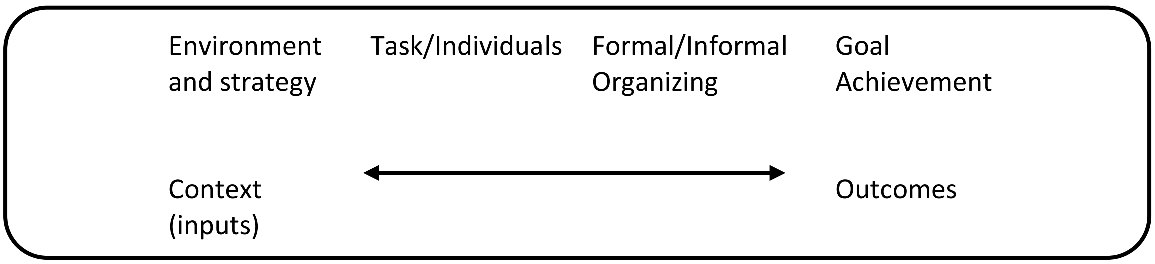
Social Mission	Economic Mission
Other-regarding values	Self-regarding values
Social partnerships paramount	Products and services paramount
Social goals	Economic objectives

Contextual Models

Diochon and Anderson (2009) (see Figure 1) and Casey (2015) (see Figure 2) exemplified the contextual models, attempting to develop conceptual and process-oriented definitions of SE and social entrepreneurship. Drawing on literature, Diochon and Anderson (2009) offered a typology of SE based on the way they organize to foster entrepreneurship or not. For example, the authors described how for-profit or nonprofit organizations are subject to external influence. In the case of a nonprofit, external funders often stipulate expenditures, constraining the organization's self-determination and sustainability—outcomes of the specific SE development process. The environment shapes the strategy that in turn shapes the process.

Figure 1

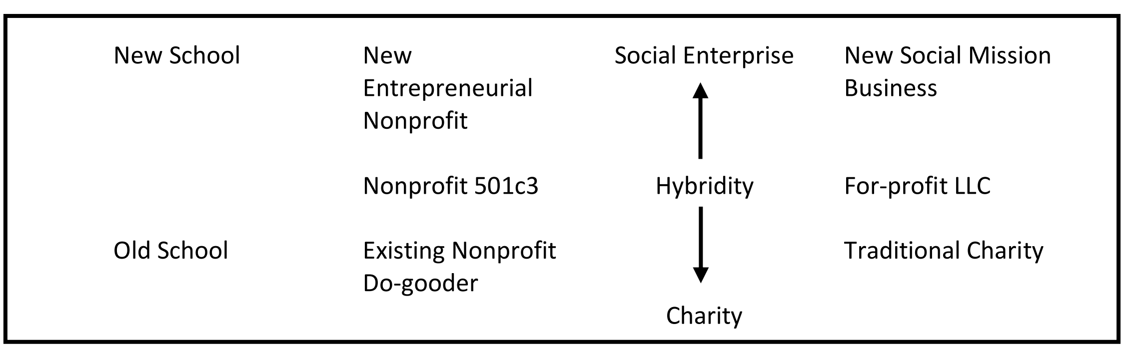
Diochon and Anderson's SE Framework



Casey (2015) did not distinguish different SE forms but emphasized their hybridity. He placed one extreme in the upper right quadrant of the model: the game-changing, market-driven, social mission business. Influential business self-starters lead these organizations using their skills to address social problems. The traditional nonprofit features local activists aiming to do good in the bottom left quadrant. Overall, the model's base shows the area of the increasingly maligned concept of charity. The top represents new SEs, and the middle represents hybridity.

Figure 2

Casey's Hybridization SE Model



Qualitative comparative analysis research has addressed the issue of competing demands in SEs, showing how successful SEs can model *selective combinations* of requests drawn from both social and commercial logics activity (Akhmedova et al., 2022; Pache & Santos, 2013). These studies pointed out how previous research had suggested that organizations are likely to compromise or decouple competing demands when competing for institutional demands, favoring one over the other to ensure success. They demonstrated, however, both for-profit and nonprofit SE organizations could adopt *intact demands* from either logic, surviving over the long run without compromising either one when seeking a sustainable organizing model.

Presenting a different yet potentially functional prototype, Pache and Santos (2013) employed a qualitative multiple case study approach in work integration SEs. They uncovered an SE organizing model suggesting integrating or compromising two competing logics is not always the best strategy. *Selectively combining* practices from each logic may be less costly than compromising because it does not require leaders and staff members to create alternative methods; instead, they can draw efficiently on each logic's strengths, either social welfare or commercial revenue. Missing from their research is (a) how hybrids could best bundle these elements and (b) the leader's role and abilities in selective coupling, a weakness of their study acknowledged by the authors.

Battilana and Lee (2014), Battilana et al. (2015), and Battilana (2018) suggested that to maintain legitimacy over time and reduce tensions, SEs must appeal to their multiple audiences by focusing on *hybrid organizing*. SEs combine various forms by aligning activities, structures, and processes. By doing so, they first deliver commercial and social value simultaneously. One study cites an example of a water service provider tracking and measuring financial goals for investors and social welfare for customers (André et al., 2018). Second, hybrid organizing emphasizes integrating and combining social and economic endeavors as a core mission strategy. Examples include Goodwill Industries and other work integration social enterprises that employ disadvantaged workers in their retail stores (Battilana et al., 2015).

Investigating organizational structure further may be a way to help manage the tensions inherent in a developing SE. Fitzgerald and Shepherd (2018) adopted a qualitative approach with a case study method to examine the compatibility of the dual logic in a nonprofit organization when operating in a business market. If the structure does not suit the context, managers can adjust to achieve better balance. The authors suggested practitioners should look beyond the standard dichotomous view of SEs. Social and commercial elements work in many ways; therefore, no single tactic is correct for managing tensions arising from the dual logic. The implication of Fitzgerald and Shepherd's structural model, somewhat limited because of its case study method, was greater awareness and exploration of these options might encourage nonprofits to create SE efforts in their organizations. The model could provide decision-makers with extra clarity and flexibility when considering various available SE structures available, depending on the organization's growth stage or strategy. However, these authors were in the minority suggesting compartmentalized missions can succeed when one is subordinate.

Additional scholars have contributed to SE knowledge by exploring ethics and social action (Massetti, 2012), moral decision-making (Bull & Ridley-Duff, 2019), logic integration (Bonomi et al., 2021; Litrico & Basharov, 2019), and participatory democracy (Gleerup et al., 2020). The first two authors' main contributions to the literature involved a focus on philosophical motivations that guide actions by reframing SE in terms of moral choices, in other words, how an individual's beliefs shape entrepreneurial decision-making. Litrico and Basharov (2019) analyzed 14 years of Canadian grant application data to show how an SE might evolve.

Essential for SE growth, the *locus of integration* refers to how successfully organizations combine the dual commercial and social welfare logics. Similarly, Bonomi et al. (2021) proposed a bridging institutional logics approach to show how SEs can explore and expand internal boundaries for developing resilient organizational logics. Additionally, Gleerup et al. (2020) defined SEs by their capacity to enhance participatory democratic governance.

Categorical Models

Fowler (2000) suggested three types of SEs: *integrated*, when economic activity produces social outcomes; *re-interpreted*, when a nonprofit maximizes its earned income; and *complementary*, when commercial revenues cross-subsidize the social mission of a related nonprofit. Fowler's foremost influence was the idea that fully mission-integrated SE activities could occur together. Correspondingly, Alter (2006) distinguished SE models based on their mission orientation (from social- to profit-oriented), their consumers, and the extent to which the social programs and business activities were related. Alter identified three core models of SE: *embedded*, when social programs are inherent in business activities, as in Goodwill Industries; *integrated*, when social programs overlap with business activities; and *external*, when business activities are an external source of funding for social programs, typically in health-related nonprofits. Similarly, Ebrahim et al. (2014) proposed a two-category model of *integrated* and *differentiated* types. The integrated type has social missions mixed with its revenue goals or business model, and the differentiated type has social operations separate from its revenue stream. For example, suppose a drug rehabilitation clinic employs clients in its care who utilize its primary services in a revenue-generating venture. The money generated helps clients to earn an income during their program care. The business model would not exist without the social mission, so the two would be bound together, thus classified as *integrated*.

Focusing mainly on U.S. SEs, Young and Lecy (2014) proposed a metaphor for a *social enterprise zoo* in which types of animals seek different things and may interact with one another in different ways. Like most SEs, these zoos combine social and market goals in substantially different ways. The authors proposed a few species of zoo animals. *For-profit business corporations* develop programs of CSR, in which social goals play a less strategic role. *Social businesses* look for an explicit balance between social impact and commercial success. *Commercial nonprofits* prioritize their social mission, and a city developing a public structure with private money is an example of a *public-private partnership*.

To identify and explain challenges different hybrid SEs face, Santos et al. (2015) examined the degree of overlap between an SE's clients and beneficiaries to show how successfully they avoided mission drift and balance competing demands. They found when clients and beneficiaries were separate but served by a dual value chain, as in a *bridging or coupling hybrid,* the challenge of balancing needs was significant, with the risk of mission drift high and financial sustainability difficult. On the other hand, when clients and beneficiaries were the same people, as in a *market hybrid,* in which the focus on commercial goals simultaneously enhances social goals, the risk of mission drift was low and financial sustainability was easy.

Defourny and Nyssens (2021) built on their earlier efforts (2010, 2017) and Santos et al.'s (2015) work to offer a new view of the complexity of existing SE typologies, noting few of them derived from broad experimental evidence. Defourny and Nyssens attempted to clarify typologies by combining diverse principles and resource mixes. They collected income data from 721 SEs worldwide, including market income, grants, fees, and other sources. The result was a group of four major SE models with prescriptions for how leaders could avert mission drift or shifting focus away from their social missions to generate profit. The types included (a) *the* *entrepreneurial nonprofit* model consisting of nonprofits that use earned income to support the social cause*;* (b) *the social cooperative* model encompassing associations with a mutual interest for members; (c) *the social business* model consisting of businesses that develop ventures for a social purpose; and (d) *the public-sector social enterprise* model which reduces costs through greater efficiency. The authors admitted the limitations of their work were the difficulty in categorizing an array of SEs and that their model represented existing organizations that initiate changes resulting in new SE dynamics. Nevertheless, they argued individuals or groups of entrepreneurs could start an organization at any point in the typology depending on the balance of social and economic objectives or legal form.

Succeeding Suchman (1995) and Dart (2004), Park and Bae (2020), based on an inductive multiple case study of 10 SEs in which they scanned and categorized SEs based on the way they gain legitimacy through their creators' hybrid identities and their organizations' hybrid types. This legitimacy view suggests reasons for the prevalence of socially purposed organizations' commercial behavior. Their findings showed each social entrepreneur held a hybrid identity, socially dominant, commercially dominant, or a balanced social and commercial identity. The significant contribution was such legitimacy models explain the considerable influence of an individual social entrepreneur on SE formation and approaches.

These hybrid organization models have attempted to explain the complexity and diversity of SEs in three significant ways:

- Positioned along a continuum from market-based to charity based on motive, purpose, mission, values, accountability, and use of income
- Shaped by the context of the environment, strategy, task, stakeholder demands, and individual social entrepreneurs

- Grouped into categorical schools by structures, principles, legitimacy, relationships, resources, and outcomes

Models have emphasized how social entrepreneurs seek excellence in SE governance. Still, the emergence of a comprehensive model for SE leadership effectiveness exploring the methods leaders use to reduce tensions from conflicting goals by creating blended value, fully integrating dual purposes and missions has not yet occurred. Researchers have addressed leadership as a part of innovative entrepreneurial activity but not central to hybrid SE success. Consequently, the SE typology literature has not arrived at a consensus view of leadership.

Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Leadership

The SE model literature has shown consumer, investor, and economic pressures have significantly increased hybridity. An added challenge in hybrid organizational studies is to explain the emergence of leadership behaviors in NSE organizations containing two traditional environments, social welfare and commercial markets (Schröer & Jager, 2015), and to determine how hybrid NSE leaders need to think and behave.

SE leaders might need to act like nonprofit leaders, solving social problems through delivering services, and like for-profit leaders, influencing market position through customer engagement. Despite the scholarship advancement in the NSE field over the last decade, it is disconcerting to see leadership has not been a significant focus of this research effort (Battilana, 2018; Cornelissen et al., 2021; Ilac, 2018; Jackson et al., 2018). Additionally, established leadership researchers have not focused on the specific framework of hybrid NSE organizations. Jackson et al. (2018) suggested hybrid leadership studies are still in their infancy due to the relatively small sector size and lack of empirical evidence. However, they also surmised the scarcity has been partly due to scholars' lack of interest in distinguishing between leadership in conventional for-profit business and nonprofit or public sectors.

Leadership Compared with Different Sectors

Therefore, to further understand hybrid governance, I reviewed the research on hybrid leadership characteristics in different work contexts compared with the standard nonprofit, government, and for-profit sector leadership qualities (Bozeman & Ponomariov, 2009). Exploring organizational leadership in context is helpful and meaningful because it shows how internal and external forces can shape a person's behavior (Antonakis et al., 2003, Avolio, 2007; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

A critical question in Antonakis et al.'s (2003) research on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is whether measurement and practice of leadership are context-free or context-specific and whether behavior is variable across contexts. Scholars have argued that the context (e.g., situation, followers, personal history, environment, culture) in which people demonstrate leadership can constrain effective behaviors. Conditions that are not similar could require different leadership behaviors to match followers' expectations in other contexts (Lord et al., 2001). Situational contexts considered stable versus fluid can also make a difference in leadership behaviors. For example, in the military, with high conformity and stability, individual leaders may not behave differently. However, leaders have a greater say in their behavior in more fluid and less stable situations as in a private business because of fewer restrictions.

Leadership is also affected by team context. Research has demonstrated leadership depends on multiple variables, including team cohesiveness, collaboration, and autonomy (Antonakis et al., 2003). Avolio (2007) suggested leadership is a function of the leader, the led, and the complexity of the context. Avolio stated leaders are part of the dynamic rather than the dynamic itself, and for leaders to create innovation and collaboration, they may have to create conditions that prompt innovation and reward collaboration rather than developing individuals.

Based on previous studies, nonprofit, public, and hybrid sectors may provide conditions that require different leadership applications. The extant research has shown work context, environment, organizational identity, structure, culture, ethics, strategy, and purpose compel hybrid organization leaders to be different from leaders in other sectors by utilizing different leadership approaches (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Cornelissen et al., 2021; King & Gish, 2015; Heres & Lasthuizen, 2012; Johnson, 2012; Weaver, 2020). For example, Heres and Lasthuizen (2012) conducted qualitative interviews with public, hybrid, and private sector managers regarding ethical leadership. Compared with their private sector counterparts, interviewees viewed public and hybrid organization managers as more generous and accountable to society.

In a similar study, Johnson (2012) interviewed executive leaders who made career transitions from corporate to nonprofit organizations, often in a SE environment. Johnson suggested hybrid executives' authority is more diffused than top corporate leadership. These executives share decision-making with stakeholders and develop softer management approaches, such as consensus building. Additionally, SE leaders have displayed superior agility in shaping solutions and facilitating organizational sustainability by fostering a collaborative, innovative environment (Desiana et al., 2022; Elkington & Hartigan, 2008).

In contrast, competing studies have found these SE and standard sector leaders are fundamentally similar in their leadership approach, competency, motivation, social outlook, and vision (Lukes & Stephan, 2012; Miller-Stevens et al., 2018). Moreover, Miller-Stevens et al. (2018) revealed one significant difference: how hybrid, for-profit B corporation leaders rank innovation and entrepreneurship consistently as more important to their culture and employees than their counterparts in nonprofits. B Corporations are SEs verified by B Lab, a nonprofit organization. B Lab certifies companies to create social and economic wealth for all stakeholders by following a governance method different from a traditional shareholder-centered corporation.

Transformational Leadership

Felício et al. (2013) conducted a quantitative study evaluating the role of socioeconomic context as a moderating variable between social entrepreneurship and transformational leadership on hybrid organization performance. Results of an online survey of 241 nonprofit social organizations showed in a low socioeconomic environment, transformational leadership, characterized by intellectual stimulation and idealized influence, was relevant in explaining social value and organizational performance. Felício et al. found social entrepreneurship, portrayed by leader initiative, risk-taking, and innovation in higher socioeconomic conditions, provides more significant social wealth and organizational performance support. These findings might be reasonable if we consider that leaders must be transformational in unfavorable environments with low funding streams and community support, focusing primarily on inspiration, resource generation, and collaboration. Conversely, in highly favorable conditions with better community support and available resources, organizations can succeed when leaders model social entrepreneurship behavior by focusing on initiative and innovation capabilities.

Considering the apparent positive connection among transformational leadership, social entrepreneurship, and SE performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Chang & Jeong, 2021; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021), examining the transformational leader is an area worthy of further investigation. SEs are more likely to attain social value, flexibility, and performance if they employ people with strong entrepreneurial and transformational leadership capabilities (BarNir, 2012; Emery, 2020). Transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985, Bass & Avolio, 1994;

Northouse, 2021) maintains a transformational leader motivates followers to accomplish more than initially expected with a higher sense of personal fulfillment, often referred to as extra discretionary effort (Oberfield, 2014).

Furthermore, Burns (1978) stated transformational leaders heighten the consciousness of followers toward higher morals, transcending their self-interest for that of the greater good. In the context of SE, transformational leaders broaden followers' interests and increase acceptance, or internalization, of the vision. These capabilities allow leaders to enhance moral behavior and social wealth by seizing opportunities, stimulating innovation, and managing tensions that arise from opposing missions (Zhu et al., 2016).

Likewise, social entrepreneurship has significant positive relationship with SE performance, transformational leadership, and social capital, i.e., the myriad internal and external relationships employees form with colleagues (Naderi et al., 2019), leading to greater creativity (Stevens et al., 2015). Matzler et al. (2008) noted this positive relationship, indirectly linking transformational leadership and innovative entrepreneurship. Naderi et al. (2019) recommended hybrid SE leaders encourage creative thinking and remove all barriers that inhibit this capability.

Collaborative Leadership

Another question raised by previous research is who governs SE organizations and what factors influence their decision making and leadership. In a qualitative comparative case study investigation, Schmitz (2015) introduced a new subtype of hybrid SE, calling it a socio-economic lighthouse characterized by a high degree of stakeholder participation. In this democratic model, when tensions rise due to market and social impact factors, employees, customers, and investors engage to check decisions, thereby protecting the organization's values.

A workable hybrid leadership style could assume shared management responsibility, almost nonexistent in the standard nonprofit and government sectors.

Similarly, Shier and Handy (2020) found nonprofit leaders engaging in hybrid cross-sector partnerships and social innovation believed they were most effective when approaching internal leadership as a participative effort. In this instance, however, a minor distinction is the leader's role remains hierarchical, yet instead of viewing themselves as the initiators of new ideas or outcomes, they see themselves as those who create opportunities for others.

Contrastingly, research has called for hybrids to invest in their capacity to develop leaders and manage tasks, requiring the board and executive staff to assume a controlling and visible role, leading to better professionalism and sophistication in management (Smith, 2010. Ebrahim et al. (2014) surveyed the literature and theorized a specific part to play for the board and professional staff in governing hybrids. To ensure a successful mission, they suggested both groups play an active role in monitoring and controlling the interaction between the competing social and commercial activities while being accountable to consumers and beneficiaries. Schröer and Jager (2015) proposed a model suggesting the competing activities actively prevent SE leaders from setting single, clear goals. Instead, these fields force them to introduce objectives that eventually create a new hybrid leadership form.

Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Leadership Frameworks

Investigating the origins of the social entrepreneurship and NSE leadership concepts, Bielefeld (2009) and Zahra et al. (2009) identified research issues influencing their continuing development. First, the mixing of terms confused the research and business community. Social entrepreneurship is a term that has not been well defined, whereas investigators understand nonprofit SE as referring to an organization concerned with social and financial returns.

Furthermore, the authors pointed out much research has focused on social entrepreneurs as change agents rather than on groups or critical organizational processes. Researchers have often characterized these people as interested only in new solutions instead of adapting programs.

Bielefeld (2009) and Zahra et al. (2009) argued a better social entrepreneur definition is an individual, organization, or a network of organizations seeking change through innovative ideas to improve social value. For example, Zahra et al. reviewed the prevailing research to propose a typology of social entrepreneurs ranging from those who address local, small-scale needs to those who build new large-scale social systems. The authors suggested a *meaningful inquiry* is a method to measure NSEs' social bottom line, proposing scholars consider purpose (social or business), social context (stakeholder views), and performance metrics (ways to measure outcomes and profits).

Research examining leaders, social entrepreneurs, and NSE organizations creating new organizational forms and identities that bridge the two conflicting logics of profit-making and social gain has taken center stage in the last decade (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Cornelissen et al., 2021; Eiselein & Dentchev, 2020; Park, 2020; Smith et al., 2012, 2013; Tracey et al., 2011). Tracey et al. (2011) introduced a novel lens to view social entrepreneurs and how they set up SEs. The authors conducted a qualitative in-depth case study of Aspire, an SE in England, then coined the term *institutional entrepreneurship* using open coding analysis and suggested that one crucial way new organizations form is through "bridging institutional entrepreneurship" (Tracey et al., p. 60). They contended this process demands social entrepreneurs to fuse the critical elements of different logics that may have little in common at first and, in some instances, might conflict, then build new NSE forms throughout this process.

Ample evidence has supported an NSE *paradoxical leadership* model that embraces how leaders creatively manage tensions from seemingly contradictory yet interrelated goals without prioritizing one (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Park, 2020; Smith et al., 2012, 2013). Smith et al. (2012) authored the central model based on three meta-skills that describe the managing of paradoxical demands of social services and market orientation: (a) *acceptance* involves accepting and embracing the competing demands as possible and learning to live with them, (b) *differentiation* entails recognizing the distinct significance of each domain and thoughtfully focusing on these distinctions, and (c) *integration* involves identifying creative connections between the demands and seeking decision-making synergy.

Management studies that have addressed bridging and embracing different logics have suggested SE leaders should accept conflicting logic using workable solutions rather than choosing one at the expense of the other. In other words, it is about thinking holistically (Dhakal, 2020), accepting competing demands, and recognizing distinctions between them while integrating and exploring complementary synergies (Moreau & Mertens, 2013). Using this framework, other authors have examined similar challenges (Eiselein & Dentchev, 2020; Child, 2020) and suggested actions that could bolster NSE legitimacy and performance over time: (a) *hiring employees* who hold neither logic and socializing them to accept both; (b) *combining and coupling practices* from both logics, to allow employees to develop work habits; (c) *framing away paradox* by keeping an eye on ultimate goals; (d) *communicating a shared common purpose* across stakeholder groups; and (e) *creating flat, agile teams and external partnerships* that help to foster a balance of mission differentiation and integration.

One study addressed similar paradoxical tensions in NSEs (Park, 2020), considering tension-type in determining management approaches as these organizations simultaneously chase both social mission and business excellence. On the one hand, a *performing tension* requires more explicit work expectations or allowing employees to succeed by introducing a new project combining social-business paradoxes. On the other hand, an *organizing tension* requires incorporating stricter efficiency elements or core social values during project planning.

The essential processes involved in facilitating creative spaces for mutual understanding and collaboration (Saz-Carranza & Longo, 2012) and the clever use of minimal resources to support the enterprise's many goals (Wronka-Pospiech, 2016) lead to a greater understanding of SE functioning. Doherty et al. (2014) reviewed and synthesized 129 research articles to illuminate various management processes in response to hybridity challenges. Their results suggested a model that involves managing the conflict of contradictory goals through human resource mobilization, described as tailoring communications with staff, board members, and stakeholders. Developing these competencies requires leaders to shift their thinking to embrace contradictions and move from dilemmas to possibilities (Bartunek, 1988).

Conceptually similar work by Jackson et al. (2018) offered a leadership practices framework observed in NSEs. These scholars argued attempting to reach consensus on an SE leadership definition, as with leadership itself, is unnecessary because researchers have contested the concept for so long. Instead, their goal was to provide a simplified framework that captures the highly contextualized leadership practices observed in NSEs. Jackson et al. used Grint's (2005a) foundational framework, suggesting NSE leadership should be viewed in four distinct ways: (a) leadership as people—who they are and what makes them leaders; (b) leadership as results—what they do and achieve; (c) leadership as a job position—where leaders operate; and (d) leadership as a process—how SE leaders get things done.

Jackson et al. (2018) embraced Grint's (2005a) concept of focusing equally on the leadership process, performance, and results as on the individual. However, they modified and improved Grint's work by adjusting the framework making it more relevant to SEs. The authors suggested that future research focus on how NSE leaders influence many stakeholders and successfully negotiate conflicting goals rather than individual leader traits.

Another framework that describes a facet of NSE organizational leadership is the *entrepreneurial orientation*, or how an organization shows a sustained pattern of social entrepreneurial behavior (Ilac, 2018). Ilac (2018) interviewed SE executives, and identified 10 dimensions, moving from internal transformation elements of self-reflection, values, and envisioning to practical aspects of innovation and stakeholder networking. Central to the model are moments of *self-reflection and values acknowledgment*. Ilac's leadership development framework and behavioral descriptions add to the discussion of hybrid SE leadership and contribute to developing a workable leadership competency list. A word of caution, however, is Ilac's sample size was small and included only Filipino executives. Hence, the findings may not be generalizable globally or culturally.

It is essential to know how NSE leaders manage their organizations over time (Yaari et al., 2020). Building on Adizes's (2004) work, Yaari et al. (2020) found executive directors adopted one of four management roles in organizations that were healthy in the short and long run. These four roles were: *productive* —focusing on results and exceptional performance; *integrator*—connecting people to the organization, integrating people's needs with the task demands; *administrator*—focusing on procedures and processes for control and assessment; and *entrepreneur*—being innovative, creative, and independent.

The central finding of Yaari et al.'s (2020) study helped explain NSE leaders may need to embody all four of these roles to create a successful organization over time. Of paramount importance, however, are the *entrepreneur* and *integrator* roles. Yaari et al.'s findings revealed entrepreneurs from the business world were most concerned with showing a bottom line of social gain in the first stage of creating the enterprise. Because entrepreneurs with a social service background have experience working in social welfare settings, their challenge is to generate profit by raising capital and marketing the enterprise. The integrating director pulls everyone together in the right direction by collaborating internally and externally with key influencers—directors fulfilling the roles of productive and administrative leaders in stabilizing the organization for maximum efficiency. The study's primary limitation was the small sample size and its exclusive concentration on women's initiatives for self-empowerment —nonprofits focused on uplifting disadvantaged women worldwide. Findings from these organizations, though helpful, make it difficult to generalize to leaders or directors in different types of NSEs.

Investigators have defined NSEs somewhat differently, not just as initiatives addressing today's social problems and needs, but as entities that develop and share knowledge throughout a community to effect significant behavioral and systemic change (Kickul et al., 2018). Whereas many researchers have tended to focus on solving problems from a customer-centered perspective, Kickul et al. (2018) suggested that there is usefulness in viewing SEs as problem solvers from a diverse and wide-ranging social entrepreneurship and human-centered approach. The authors suggested that researchers need to understand social entrepreneurship in the larger context of social change and community impact, rather than just creating new ventures. Furthermore, the authors identified an educational benefit of their framework. They proposed defining and understanding social entrepreneurship enables educators to incorporate community impact concepts into the classroom, developing students' abilities to have productive dialogue with beneficiaries, stakeholders, and community leaders experiencing a social problem and needing a social solution or innovation.

NSE identity formation is another area worthy of further consideration. Cornelissen et al. (2021) developed an empirically grounded model of hybrid identity that helps employees revise their understanding of their organization. Drawing on qualitative longitudinal data from the first 3 years of a successful Amsterdam-based SE, the authors showed employees faced extreme business challenges. Employees showed periods of *meaning voids* between their actions and the professed hybrid ideals of the organization, i.e., what leaders said and what they did. Therefore, leaders must realize what is happening to avoid mission drift. They should allow members to form a new, integrative meaning (a process the authors called *rekeying*). Over time, leaders and staff experiment with different identities through practice. Together, they start to recombine aspects of the hybrid's dual mission, forming a new hybrid identity. This model proposes a process in which all contributors collectively arrive at a hybrid identity that integrates competing demands into a coherent whole.

Overall, published research has sought to identify NSE governance, entrepreneurial, and leadership characteristics and compared them with traditional nonprofit prototypes (Felicio et al., 2013; Lukes & Stephan, 2012; Miller-Stevens et al., 2018). Some have featured distinctive SE qualities that may lead to shared value by blending and integrating competing logics (Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012). Others have suggested NSE leadership should be viewed through various lenses, from the individual leader to the leader's position, identity, purpose, process, and social context (Jackson et al., 2018). This view includes bridging institutional forms (Tracey et al., 2011), leadership roles (Yaari et al., 2020), transformational altruism and inspiration (Emery, 2020; Naderi et al., 2019), meaningful inquiry (Bielefeld, 2009), process management (Doherty et al., 2014), self-reflection (Ilac, 2018), community impact (Kickul et al., 2018), holistic thinking (Dhakal, 2020), and identity formation (Cornelissen et al., 2021).

Smith et al. (2012, 2013) and Al Taji and Bengo (2018) argued paradoxical thinking (i.e., the ability to navigate two competing mission demands at once) delineates successful NSE leaders. The potential to integrate conflicting goals to reduce tensions and create organizational success is enticing. Passions related to each demand can offer leaders opportunities to find new sustainable solutions to challenges (Smith et al., 2011).

This review revealed some significant findings on NSE organization leadership:

- Hybrid SE leaders and organization management elements can be similar and differ significantly from homogeneous sectors.
- Effective hybrid NSE leadership is still ambiguous, albeit some consensus reached. Still, the literature coalesces around commonalities, such as reducing tensions and integrating the demands of multiple competing goals, entrepreneurship and innovation, risk-taking, transformational altruism, inspiration, and collaboration.
- The extant literature lacks studies on NSE leadership. Moreover, researchers have not focused on the topic until the last two decades, leaving much for the research community to consider (Battilana, 2018; Jackson et al., 2018).
- Researchers use social entrepreneurship, SE, and NSE terms interchangeably and sometimes more distinctly (Bielefeld, 2009). Bielefeld (2009) suggested this confusion is due to various researchers’ recent interest. Usually, researchers have viewed a social entrepreneur as the leader starting up an SE or NSE using social

entrepreneurship to create a business venture to address societal problems (Roundy, 2017b).

- Qualitative studies have dominated hybrid SE leadership and social entrepreneurship research, providing new and valuable theoretical contributions. Still, there is a need for more quantitative analyses (Capella-Peris et al., 2020; Wronka-Pospiech, 2016).

Prominent scholars in the hybrid NSE and social entrepreneurship fields have stressed the need for additional empirical studies (Battilana, 2018; Bielefeld, 2009) including investigations designed to capture and explain the motivations, background experiences, and competencies of entrepreneurial leaders who are the most likely candidates for creating SE organizations, either through a startup or an enterprise transformation (Cummings et al., 2020). Despite the progression in research that appears to coalesce around primary competencies which contributes to our understanding of leadership best suited to hybrid organizing (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Smith et al., 2012), there is still no consensus on a hybrid NSE leadership competency list.

Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Leadership Training

Adding to the problem, professional preparation programs, including public and business administration schools, may not be addressing hybrid NSE leadership adequately in their curricula (Austin & Rangan, 2019; British Council, 2016; Mirabella & Eikenberry, 2017; Mirabella & Young, 2012; Steiner et al., 2018). Of the 23 undergraduate and graduate education programs in the United States that employ a hybrid SE management or social entrepreneurship focus, most differ in their approach to leadership programs. Many expose students to essential disciplinary hybrid concepts like social entrepreneurship, CSR, and associated marketing strategies (Schlee et al., 2009) but offer little leadership theory and practice (Austin & Rangan, 2019). Austin and Rangan (2019) reported 11% of these courses focused on management skills and leadership represented three percent of the course content. The most prevalent skills in the coursework were marketing skills, expressed as how to succeed in a market environment (37%), and philanthropic skills, defined as how to acquire resources and raise funds (34%). Another study of social entrepreneurship course syllabi in university public administration settings revealed only half of the graduate courses included leadership (Wiley & Berry, 2015). Despite the lack of leadership-specific curricula cited, research has shown social entrepreneurship proficiency to be associated more with learning leadership, collaboration, and empathy than traditional disciplinary content (García-González & Ramírez-Montoya, 2020).

Furthermore, most universities that include SE or social entrepreneurship as a part of their curriculum offer only a few courses. Most supply an overview of the field and do not go beyond informational approaches (Austin & Rangan, 2019; Mueller et al., 2013). These cursory courses tend to create a favorable environment for NSE debate but do not support development of NSE leadership and management competencies (Brock & Steiner, 2009).

Additionally, the limited number of publications in SE research journals related to management education and training (5% of 641 publications studied) shines a light on the lack of interest and support from the research community (Shier & Van-Du, 2018). This lack of research support is evident despite scholars strongly advocating employing SE, NSE, and social entrepreneurship principles and curricula in higher education (Allahar, 2021; Milligan, 2019).

The emergence of the SE concept in higher education was the launch of the Social Enterprise Initiative (SEI) at the Harvard Business School in 1993 (Austin & Rangan, 2019). This foundational program described a nonprofit sector course as “a broadened view to embrace all modalities of sustaining the organization’s mission, including earned income activities and cross-sector collaborations.” (Austin & Rangan, p, 5). Dees introduced social entrepreneurship in the SEI program in 1994 as a 2nd-year MBA course. From 1993 to 2018, Harvard's SEI produced over 400 social enterprise-related research articles and books. Student coursework and engagement include summer internships at SEs or NSEs, fellowship programs, and professional clubs. For example, the SEI program set up a way for students to study relationships among business, government, and public service. Their Leadership Fellows Program gives selected graduates a year-long opportunity to work in NSE or public sector positions.

SEI case-based classroom discussion has explored how SEs operate. According to Austin and Rangan (2019), it is more important how their program engages with students beyond the classroom, meaning practical work inside a social organization on a problem highlighted by the organization's executive team. As of 2019, the SEI offered seven core courses and an array of elective courses in an executive education curriculum engaging over 653 students. Of the courses added since inception, it is important to note, however, only a couple mentioned leadership in their titles.

There are positive signs about SE education when examining the range of SE activities worldwide. Oberoi et al. (2018) describe significant SE engagement in higher education institutions in 12 countries, including dedicated SE support and advice, incubation space, dedicated curriculum modules, and the offering of internships and placements for students. Many of these initiatives, however, have been extracurricular, and there is still little research exploring how institutions apply these concepts in their curricula.

Despite the impressive advancements at large U.S. universities, counting Harvard, Stanford, Duke, Drexel, and DePaul, small colleges like Emory, Berea, Rollins, and Samford, as well as globally at Oxford and Cambridge (Brock et al., 2008), NSE and social entrepreneurship programs are not widespread. A worldwide survey expressed this lack of programs revealing

42% of the faculty members worked in institutions that did not offer a single social entrepreneurship course (Jones et al., 2010; Solomon et al., 2019).

Moreover, the need for SE and social entrepreneurship education is great, as illustrated by studies showing a significant number of undergraduate and graduate students respected the role of business in society and were interested in seeking nonprofit knowledge and skills to make communities better places (Pache & Chowdhury, 2012). On a national scale, 74% of college students in the United States self-identify as leaders who will improve the world's social or environmental challenges (Parris & McInnis-Bowers, 2017). There are significant benefits for students learning about SE, raising awareness of social problems and promoting social justice (British Council, 2016). Hence, these findings call for a response from educators to create learning opportunities to meet the demands of these young, aspiring leaders. Many professional programs, however, may not have the financial support for the development of SE and social entrepreneurship programs (Saeed et al., 2015).

In addition, SEs are practical by design (Weaver, 2021), thus researchers have suggested that educators use experiential learning and student business start-up programs to improve social entrepreneurship education, including student creativity and leadership (Chang et al., 2014; Mason et al., 2020; Mueller et al., 2013). Teachers and students appreciate opportunities that allow students to realize their potential by intentionally focusing on real-world problems (García-González & Ramírez-Montoya, 2020; Solomon et al., 2019). Such studies suggested educators promote community service learning and SE start-ups where aspiring social entrepreneurs gain practical experience managing a hybrid structure, including critical areas distinguishing social entrepreneurs from standard entrepreneurs. For example, students can practice using innovative approaches to create social value and explore social justice.

Other studies have considered the effectiveness of different approaches to SE, NSE, and social entrepreneurship education: innovation and sustainability practice (Barber et al., 2014); hybrid organizing (Mitra et al., 2019); practice-based wisdom, where students learn to examine their viewpoints and intentions through reflective journaling and group sharing (Talmage & Gassert, 2021; Zhu et al., 2016); and developing resilience and action orientation (Blass, 2018).

Transformational leadership is another topic that has appeared in the SE education literature. Research has suggested programs arrange for aspiring SE leaders to get involved in social entrepreneurial ventures to train them as transformational leaders (Bhutiani et al., 2012; Felicio et al., 2013; Naderi et al., 2019; Snook, 2008). Bhutiani et al. (2012) argued transformational experiences are essential to developing leaders who consistently create social and economic wealth.

Smith et al. (2012) offered two educative settings that adopt transformational over informational approaches. Hosted by Cornell University, a Social Entrepreneurs, Innovators, and Problem Solvers course seeks to develop SE leaders experientially and dynamically. Substantial parts of the curriculum involve students engaging in deep self-reflection to better understand their beliefs. The other framework requires students to complete a consulting project with a local SE. Another setting involves a classroom tool for social entrepreneurs seeking mission integration called the *Big Idea* project, which challenges students to merge their social aspirations with the reality of starting a business. Successful projects depend on students' abilities to create links between these seemingly separate elements. Ashoka recognizes the syllabus of this course as one of the most highly respected syllabi globally (Brock et al., 2008).

It is worthwhile to investigate the growing area of online learning courses to build and share best practices worldwide (Calvo et al., 2020; García-Morales, 2020). According to Calvo et al. (2020) digital education and online courses can inspire young people to consider SE, NSE, and entrepreneurial learning. Calvo et al.'s significant findings showed course design needs to tap into how social entrepreneurs learn, including learning from other social entrepreneurs, working through practical case studies, and discussing issues with their peers.

Curriculum design research has shown acquiring NSE knowledge without real-world experiential opportunities in a university curriculum fails to create optimal student engagement (Oberoi et al., 2018). The majority of NSE research to date, however, has focused on concepts rather than the best way to design experiential curricula. Educators need to apply more innovative approaches to curriculum design, adopting solution-focused teaching alongside real-world experiences of SE and mentoring (Kickul et al., 2018; Schofield, 2021).

The researcher for the proposed study believes that much of the NSE leadership and education research provokes discussions on developing a better understanding of SE and social entrepreneurship. Although the approaches presented have provided leadership and educative value, nearly all have offered theoretical frameworks encompassing the broader field of social entrepreneurship and SE strategy, marketing, and management. Through this study I seek to narrow the focus on defining and developing NSE leadership competencies. To help clarify the needs of NSE leadership, I plan to identify the primary leadership competencies from the extant literature, then use them to assess the extent to which professional preparation programs focus their curricula on NSE leadership.

Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Leadership Competencies

Before discussing the primary NSE leadership competency constructs, it is essential to review how researchers view leadership compared to management. Organizations need both roles to effectively carry out their mission (Bass, 1990; Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997; Kotterman, 2006; Northouse, 2021). To explain the difference between leaders and managers, some have assumed managers and leaders make different contributions (Antonakis & Day, 2018; House, 1977; Kotterman, 2006). Others have argued they might be different types of people (Zaleznik, 1977). Leaders promote change in new approaches and strive to understand and incorporate followers' beliefs (Bass, 1990; Drucker, 1999; Smith et al., 2012). Managers encourage stability, exercise authority, and focus on accomplishment (Antonakis & Day, 2018).

Contrastingly, others have argued successful leadership also requires successful management, embodies similar thinking and behaviors, but goes beyond management and is necessary to obtain results that exceed expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Still, others have viewed leadership as a shared venture or management practice whereby people collaborate and coordinate to accomplish goals (Diamond & Spillane, 2016).

For this study, however, the author follows the literature view that leadership and management are different and focuses principally on leadership, not management. Although both deserve attention, the author uses the leadership perspective that aligns closely with the prevailing SE research on how leaders embrace and balance tensions resulting from conflicting missions. In this case, leadership is people and purpose-driven based on long-term strategy, innovation, entrepreneurship, influence, collaboration, and integration of others' views (Antonakis & Day, 2018) as opposed to management of day-to-day activities and directing and controlling resources, structures, and procedures (Kotter, 1999; Kotterman, 2006).

To determine whether professional MPA curricula allow students to acquire the knowledge and competencies essential to lead NSEs, the researcher needed to understand the existing research about the leadership knowledge and competencies required for success as an NSE leader. The author reviewed and analyzed NSE leadership studies to identify the primary

NSE leadership competency constructs. Studies have suggested leadership competencies at two levels: (a) *primary*, the prominent and specific NSE leadership competencies found in the literature, and (b) *secondary*, competencies that are important but not specific to NSE leadership. This study focuses on the following *primary* NSE leadership competencies to determine whether university preparation programs include them in their curricula.

1. *Balanced integration* is defined as embracing and managing tensions, conflicting goals, and competing demands among social- and profit-oriented missions (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Jackson et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2012).
2. *Creative sustainability* is defined as discovering and pursuing business opportunities, innovating, and taking risks as a social entrepreneur to create social and economic value (Bublitz et al., 2021; Capella-Peris, 2020; Roundy, 2017a).
3. *Inspirational change* is defined as inspiring, motivating, and collaborating as a transformational leader to achieve social and profit-oriented missions (Bhutiani et al., 2012; Chang & Jeong, 2021; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021).

Table 6 shows how these *primary* leadership competencies relate to the study's research questions and survey instrument items.

Table 6

Relationship of Primary NSE Competencies to Survey Items

Primary NSE Competencies	Research Questions	Survey Items (SIs)
1	1	1 - 7
2	2	8 - 14
3	3	15 - 20

Chapter 3: Method

This section outlines specific research procedures carried out during this investigation. This descriptive, nonexperimental study used purposive sampling to identify a sample of Master of public administration (MPA) and Master of nonprofit management (MNM) faculty members to investigate the research questions. Independent variables were not manipulated, nor were causal relationships sought between them (McMillan, 2016).

Sampling

To include enough universities (e.g., 120 MPA and 40 MNM programs) to gather a wide range of views, a sample of 250 MPA and MNM faculty members from the United States, Canada, and Europe was recruited for this study. An a-priori power analysis was conducted (Cohen, 1988; Faul et al., 2007) to determine the minimum sample size required to answer the study's research questions. Results indicated the needed sample size to achieve 80% power for detecting a medium effect at a significance criterion of .05, was a sample of 216 for *t* tests and correlations, with Group 1 having 174 participants and Group 2 having 42 participants. Thus, the sample sizes for Total (n = 250), MPA (n = 183), and MNM (n = 44) were more than adequate. The recruitment process involved a few different strategies:

- contacting MPA and MNM faculty members, department directors, or chairs directly by email or phone to gauge interest with follow-up communication containing additional study details, general timelines, and a survey link;
- contacting MPA and MNM professional associations (e.g., American Society for Public Administration) to ask for participant contact information or a link to the survey in their membership communications and newsletters; and

- seeking referrals from a professional network to contact MPA and MNM program faculty members in the United States, Canada, and Europe.

Procedure

In this investigation, differences between two groups on three dependent variables related to university preparation program curricula were described. For example, the extent to which MPA and MNM programs focus on the three primary nonprofit social enterprise (NSE) leadership competencies represented by a survey of 20 individual program behaviors were examined. The investigator was interested in comparing faculty perceptions across programs and universities, among other comparisons.

The researcher did not control, manipulate, or alter the subjects during the study, relying instead on their survey responses to draw inferences. The research lacked random assignment of participants to conditions; instead, participants were assigned to groups based on their involvement with MPA and MNM programs.

There were a few advantages to nonexperimental research. The research process was very flexible, allowing the investigator to determine demographic categories and seek a broad sample of participants. Another advantage was the researcher delimited the specific characteristics of the sample group for research purposes, such as selecting existing social enterprise (SE), NSE, or social entrepreneurship programs.

Instrument Design

Descriptive studies require that instrumentation and procedures be well described (McMillan, 2016). A 20-item survey was developed using primary leadership competencies derived from the extant literature: (a) balanced integration (BI; Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Battilana et al., 2015; Ilac, 2018; Jackson et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2012; Solomon et al., 2019), (b) creative sustainability (CS; Bublitz et al., 2021; Capella-Peris, 2020; Felicio et al., 2013; Mueller et al., 2013; Roundy, 2017a), and (c) inspirational change (IC; Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012; Bhutiani et al., 2012; Chang & Jeong, 2021; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021; Schmitz, 2015; Shier & Handy, 2020; Yaari et al., 2020). The survey assessed how conventional organizational and business leadership preparation programs address the distinctive leadership needs of the NSE organization in their curricula (see Appendix B).

The survey instrument was available online; hosted by the Qualtrics service; delivered to participants via an email, social media, or website link; and took 15 minutes or less to complete. Before any data were collected, the survey was pilot tested to ensure clarity and validity (Fink, 2017). The researcher made every effort to obtain a high response rate (i.e., 30%–40%), such as keeping the survey concise, sending reminders, and providing intrinsic motivation by establishing a trustworthy, personalized message and reason for participating (Fink, 2017).

Data Collection and Analysis

Survey responses were documented using a 4-point Likert-style scale, asking respondents to reply at the top of the scale with *to a great extent* or at the bottom of the scale with *to a minimal extent*. The author considered the wording and response scale carefully to ensure clarity and judgment accuracy (Fink, 2017). Qualtrics administered the survey, allowing for safe and secure data collection and analysis. All data were collected using the online host’s procedures for data collection, then downloaded electronically to the researcher’s computer for analysis using commercial statistical analysis software (i.e., Excel and SPSS).

Groups were analyzed and compared using measures of central tendency, *t* tests, and correlations. Measures of central tendency used included means and standard deviations. The study featured *t* tests to compare the MPA and MNM program type categorical variable means.

The researcher conducted a correlation analysis to test relationships between variables. In other words, correlation measured how variables were related or moved together. For example, a positive correlation denoted a relationship between two variables that traveled at the same trajectory; as one value went up, so did the other. This study required a particular application of Pearson's product-moment correlation, the point-biserial correlation (r_{pb}), when there is a continuous variable (i.e., the 1 – 4 rating means) and a dichotomous variable (i.e., program type, either MPA or MNM). Correlations are most helpful at the exploratory stage for identifying potential patterns that can be assessed and explored through more rigorous analysis. A correlation coefficient is a way to measure the value of the relationship. Correlation coefficients, however, do not express a causal relationship.

This study adhered to the Belmont principles (McMillan, 2016), including respect for persons, beneficence, and justice. First, informed consent was sought by disclosing to participants all information needed to make an educated decision about participation. Second, the researcher protected study participants from harm by maximizing possible benefits and minimizing potential harms. The author kept in strict confidence any information gathered during the study, including all personal information. Confidentiality is a particular concern for online surveys, so it was necessary to communicate the strength of the study's efforts convincingly to convey that confidentiality would be maintained (i.e., participants were informed that the survey was voluntary, their identities were anonymous, their IP addresses or any identifying information would not be collected, and they could close their browsers and delete their browsing history as an additional security measure). Finally, the researcher ensured participants benefited from the study's findings by making results available upon request.

Chapter 4: Results

Considering their unique dual mission and leadership challenges, nonprofit social enterprises (NSEs) require a different type of leadership from standard nonprofit organizations, a distinctive leadership competency model with specialized social work and business management training (Battilana, 2018; Weaver, 2021). Research has suggested, however, it is challenging for such organizations to acquire leaders with this necessary mix to provide effective management (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Bhati & Manimala, 2011; Mueller et al., 2013; Napathorn, 2018).

In this study, the researcher aimed to explore the extent to which university Master of Public Administration (MPA) and Master of Nonprofit Management (MNM) programs include in their curricula the primary NSE leadership competencies identified in the literature review. The NSE competencies are balanced integration (BI), creative sustainability (CS), and inspirational change (IC), which were explored via a 20-item Hybrid Social Enterprise Survey developed by the author (see Appendix B) with the survey items (SIs) representing an NSE leadership competency as shown in the following research questions:

1. **To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of BI in their curricula (SIs 1–7)?**
2. **To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of CS in their curricula (SIs 8–14)?**
3. **To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of IC in their curricula (SIs 15–20)?**

This chapter outlines the study's results. The first section of the chapter reports survey respondents' demographic information and curricular descriptions, including how their programs address NSE concepts. The second section reports the reliability of the survey's three primary leadership competencies to establish internal consistency and reliability. The remainder of the chapter answers the research questions derived from analyses of central tendency and various inferential statistical tests. The last section provides a summary of the chapter.

Participant Demographics and Curricular Characteristics

Both individual professional and program pedagogical information was requested through the survey, the results of which are reported here. Respondent demographic attributes, program types, instructional choices, and materials were examined, most of which functioned as independent variables for subsequent statistical analyses.

Participant Demographic Attributes

From a pool of 794, 250 participants responded to the survey, representing a 31% response rate. Of that sample, 73% (n = 183) of the respondents worked in an MPA program, 18% (n = 44) worked in an MNM program, and 9% (n = 23) worked in a mixed program, often a combination of public administration and nonprofit management or leadership.

Most respondents (68%; n = 168) reported working between 3 and 15 years in their field. Forty-four percent (n = 111) taught NSE courses, and 26% (n = 65) conducted NSE research. Fifty-two percent (n = 131) were full-time professors, 14% (n = 36) were part-time professors, and 32% (n = 81) were both full-time professors and administrators. Sixty-nine percent (n = 172) of respondents came from public universities, 27% (n = 67) came from private universities, and 4% (n = 10) came from small or liberal arts colleges. Nationally, 23% (n = 58) of these educational institutions were in the Southeast, 17% (n = 42) in the Northeast, 16% (n = 40) in the Midwest, 12% (n = 29) in the Southwest, 10% (n = 25) from the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States, with one response each from Hawaii and Alaska. Seven percent of these institutions were in the Western U.S., 4% in the Northwest U.S., and 3% in the Rocky Mountain

U.S. region. Internationally, 3% (n = 8) were from Europe, and 4% (n = 10) were from Canada, with one response from the Caribbean. These data are arrayed in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 7

Participant Institution Attributes

Faculty institution demographics	Frequency	%
Program		
Master of Public Administration	183	73
Master of Nonprofit Management	44	18
Other	23	9
Institution		
Public university	172	69
Private university	67	27
Small college	10	4
Online university	1	0
Location		
Northeast U.S.	42	17
Mid-Atlantic U.S.	25	10
Southeast U.S.	58	23
Midwest U.S.	40	16
Rocky Mountain U.S.	7	3
Southwest U.S.	29	12
Northwest U.S.	11	4
Western U.S.	17	7
Alaska	1	0
Hawaii	1	0
Europe	8	3
Canada	10	4
Caribbean	1	0

Curricular Characteristics

Traditional in-classroom learning, discussion, and problem-solving teaching procedures were widespread among the programs. Eighty-one percent (n = 198) of all programs featured case studies, 65% (n = 161) featured guest speakers, and 26% (n = 64) used reflective journaling. Experiential learning was less frequently cited than standard curricular features, with

Table 8

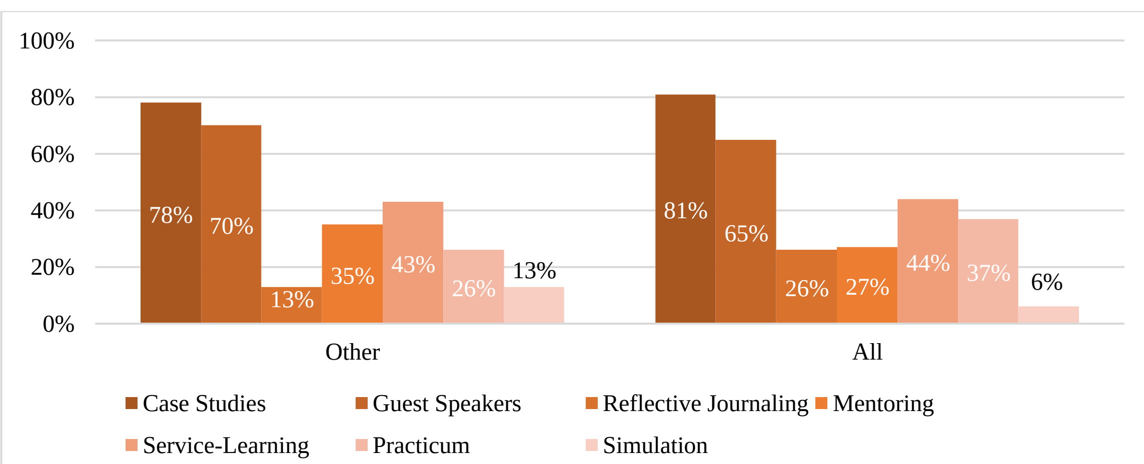
Participant Employment Attributes

Faculty employment demographics	Frequency	%
Role		
Full-time professor	131	52
Adjunct or part-time professor	36	14
Administrator	45	18
Professor and administrator	36	14
Teach NSE	111	44
Research NSE	65	26
Work experience		
0–2 years	18	7
3–5 years	54	22
6–10 years	59	24
11–15 years	55	22
16–20 years	32	13
More than 20 years	30	12

44% (*n* = 109) of the courses featuring service-learning opportunities, 37% (*n* = 92) featuring practicums, 27% (*n* = 67) featuring mentoring, and 6% (*n* = 15) featuring start-up simulations. Case studies and guest speakers, 12% (*n* = 30), were the most frequently cited learning activities combination (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

Program Teaching Procedures, Other and All



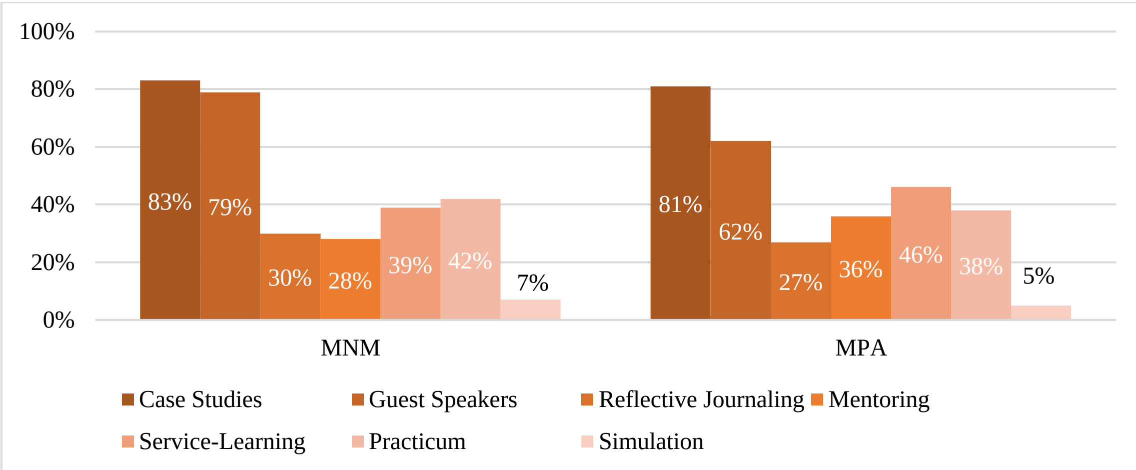
Both similarities and differences were reported among MPA, MNM, and other programs. Eighty-one percent (*n* = 145) of MPA faculty indicated their programs featured in-classroom case studies, 62% (*n* = 111) guest speakers, and 27% (*n* = 48) reflective journaling. Like MPA faculty, 78% (*n* = 18) of other faculty indicated their programs featured in-classroom case studies, 70% (*n* = 16) guest speakers, and 13% (*n* = 3) reflective journaling. In a slightly different pattern, 83% (*n* = 35) of MNM faculty conveyed their programs featured in-classroom case studies, 79% (*n* = 34) guest speakers, and 30% (*n* = 13) reflective journaling. MNM programs reported using more in-classroom case studies, guest speakers, reflective journaling, and a less expansive use of experiential learning activities than MPA and other programs: mentoring (MPA 36%, *n* = 65; other 35%, *n* = 8; MNM 28%, *n* = 12), service learning (MPA 46%, *n* = 84; other 43%, *n* = 10; MNM 39%, *n* = 17), practicum (MPA 38%, *n* = 70; other 26%, *n* = 6; MNM 42%, *n* = 19), and simulation (MPA 5%, *n* = 9; other 13%, *n* = 3; MNM 7%, *n* = 3) (see Figure 4).

Respondents were also asked to report how their programs addressed concepts grounding the NSE field. Their responses offered the first insight toward answering the study's three research questions: to what extent do MPA, MNM, and other programs include the primary NSE leadership competencies of balanced integration (BI), creative sustainability (CS), and inspirational change (IC) in their curricula? A complete listing of curricular descriptions can be found in Appendix C.

Figure 5 shows 59% (*n* = 145) of all programs did not feature NSE specifically in their required courses but instead addressed hybrid nonprofit management concepts (e.g., mixing social and revenue goals). Eleven percent (*n* = 28) reported having a major NSE concentration, and another 11% (*n* = 28) reported having a minor NSE concentration. When considered

Figure 4

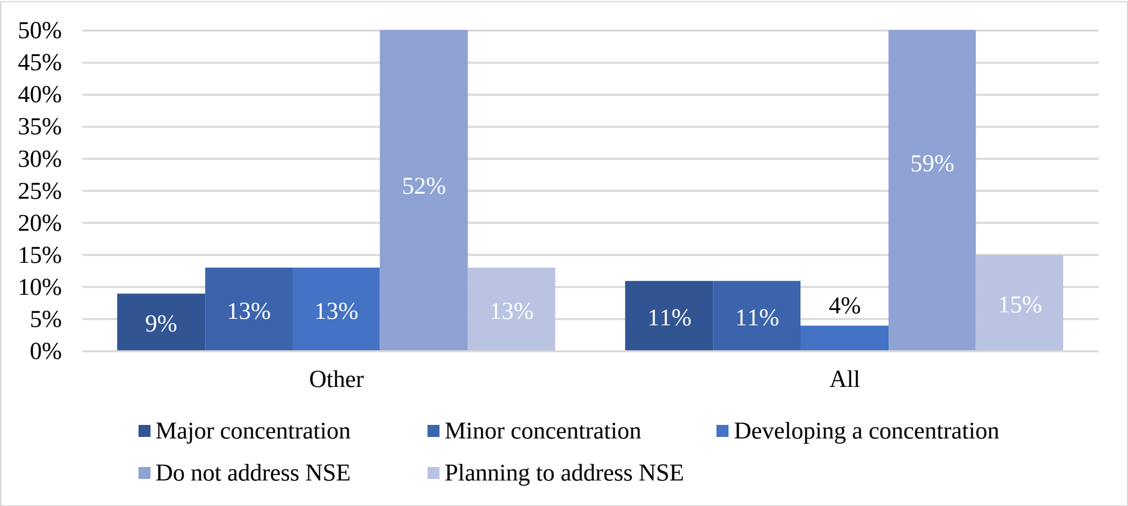
Program Teaching Procedures, MNM and MPA



separately, Figure 6 shows a more substantial number of MPA programs, 62% (*n* = 113), lacked NSE components than did MNM programs at 47% (*n* = 20) and Figure 5 shows other programs at 52% (*n* = 12). Nine percent (*n* = 16) of MPA program faculty reported having a major NSE concentration, 9% (*n* = 17) had a minor NSE concentration, 4% (*n* = 7) were developing either a major or minor NSE concentration, and 16% (*n* = 29) were planning to address NSE concepts. Other programs reported results similar to those of MPA programs, with 9% (*n* = 2) having a major NSE concentration, 13% (*n* = 3) having a minor concentration, 13% (*n* = 3) developing either a major or minor concentration, and 13% (*n* = 3) planning to address NSE. On the other hand, 23% (*n* = 10) of MNM program faculty reported having a major NSE concentration, and 19% (*n* = 8) had a minor NSE concentration. None reported developing either a major or minor NSE concentration, and 12% (*n* = 5) were planning to address NSE concepts.

Figure 5

How Programs Address NSE, Other and All

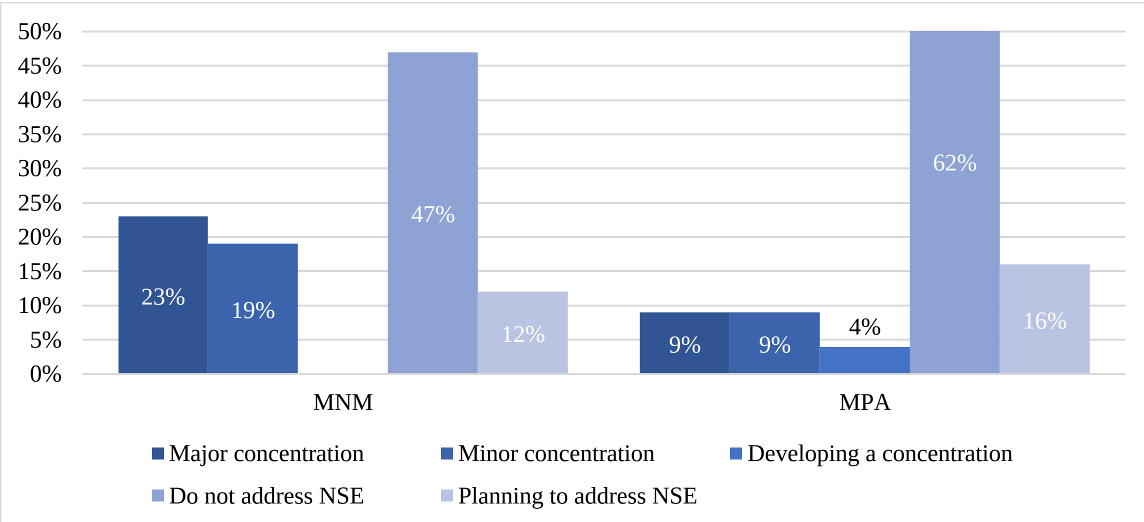


Overall, the sample varied, representing a wide range of geographic regions, with faculty members representing MNM, MPA, and other programs in both private and public universities across the United States, Canada, Europe, and the Caribbean. Curricular descriptions were similar, except MNM programs were less expansive than MPA programs, mainly using the combination of only case studies and guest speakers instead of the more complex mix of teaching methods featured in MPA programs.

Most MPA, MNM, and other faculty members reported their courses covered only hybrid nonprofit concepts, not explicitly addressing NSE or social entrepreneurship. These preliminary results begin to present a pattern of information, indicating these programs do not cover the primary NSE leadership competencies of BI, CS, and IC extensively in their curricula. The next step was to assess the dependability of the Hybrid Social Enterprise Survey used in the study to examine this results pattern further.

Figure 6

How Programs Address NSE, MNM and MPA



Construct Reliability Analysis

An essential step in validating a survey is to examine the extent to which it accurately measures all primary aspects of a construct and does so reliably; thus, a central component of this study involved assessing the internal consistency of the three leadership competency constructs measured by the 20 survey items (i.e., BI, SIs 1–7; CS, SIs 8–14; and IC, SIs 15–20). Cronbach's alpha analyses were conducted for each of these three constructs. The BI construct reflected excellent internal consistency and reliability ($\alpha = 0.93$), with SI 6 and SI 7 least correlated with the other items. Deleting these items would not improve the alpha significantly. The CS construct also showed excellent internal consistency and reliability ($\alpha = 0.92$), with SI 13 being least correlated with the other items. Deleting SI 13 would not improve the alpha. The IC construct also demonstrated excellent internal consistency and was reliable and stable ($\alpha = 0.92$), with no item particularly uncorrelated with other construct items (see Table 9).

These Cronbach's alpha results show the three constructs demonstrate strong internal consistency, and each construct's items correlate well with one another. The previously reported literature also supports the constructs. Given this constructive evidence, survey results are presented next, grouped by research construct.

Table 9

Cronbach's Alpha for BI, CS, and IC Constructs

Construct and Survey Item (SI) My program teaches how to:	Construct M if item deleted	Construct variance if item deleted	Corrected item total correlation	Cronbach's α if item deleted
Balanced Integration Cronbach's α = .93				
1. Limit mission drift	13.90	27.36	0.82	0.92
2. Reduce tensions	13.85	27.10	0.85	0.91
3. Build a core strategy	13.93	26.89	0.84	0.91
4. Recognize mission conflicts	13.76	27.05	0.85	0.91
5. Develop common ground	13.88	27.51	0.83	0.92
6. Negotiate strategy	13.97	29.57	0.63	0.93
7. Target outcomes to the social mission	13.83	28.81	0.63	0.93
Creative Sustainability Cronbach's α = .92				
8. Ensure short- and long-term success	13.31	27.07	0.72	0.92
9. Create innovative solutions	13.50	26.41	0.83	0.90
10. Evaluate the feasibility of solutions	13.38	27.59	0.72	0.91
11. Determine performance indicators	13.37	27.07	0.77	0.91
12. Develop new business models	13.63	27.34	0.75	0.91
13. Develop high-risk projects	13.98	29.27	0.69	0.92
14. Legitimize NSE models	13.50	26.59	0.82	0.90
Inspirational Change Cronbach's α = .92				
15. Develop collective decision making	11.25	19.90	0.79	0.90
16. Increase employee focus on the social mission	11.23	19.82	0.79	0.90
17. Recruit and teach employees	11.54	20.26	0.76	0.90
18. Create a safe environment	11.58	20.21	0.77	0.90
19. Motivate employees	11.32	19.96	0.78	0.90
20. Develop alliances	11.02	20.35	0.72	0.91

Primary Findings

Findings Related to Research Question 1: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of BI in their curricula?

Analyses of central tendency, inferential tests, and correlations were performed to answer this question. This section presents a descriptive analysis of the BI items and their inclusion in MPA, MNM, and other courses. The intent was to understand whether these programs have incorporated BI into their curricula and provide the basis for subsequent inferential analysis and comparison. Table 10 shows the means and variations of the BI SIs by program type. Competency and item scores reflect the degree to which respondents believed the elements were represented in their curricula and ranged from a *minimal extent* (1) to a *great extent* (4).

Table 10

BI Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program Type

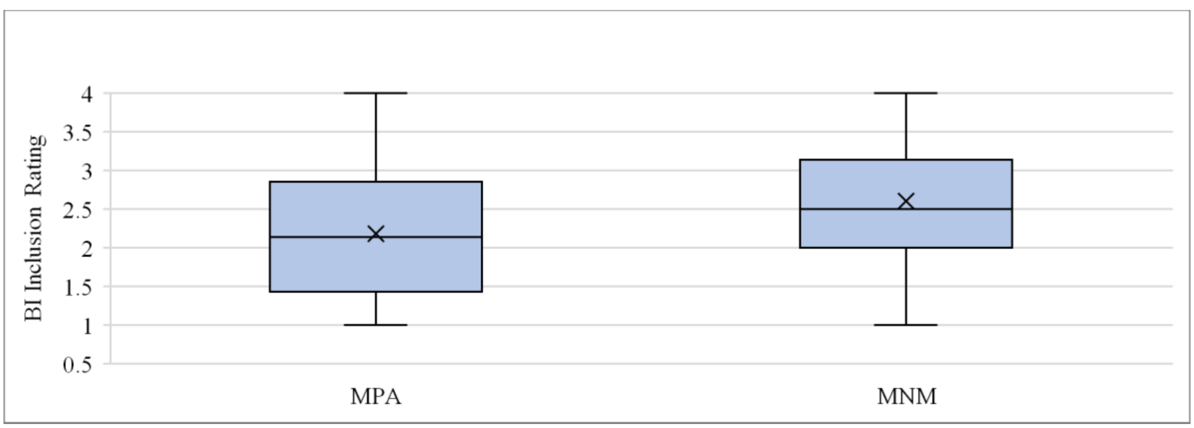
Survey Item (SI)	MPA		MNM		Other	
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
1. Limit mission drift	2.10	.97	2.75	1.01	2.83	1.19
2. Reduce tensions	2.21	1.01	2.59	1.02	2.83	1.03
3. Build a core strategy	2.12	1.04	2.52	1.04	2.87	1.10
4. Recognize mission conflicts	2.28	1.01	2.73	.99	3.04	1.01
5. Develop common ground	2.17	.99	2.59	.97	2.83	.98
6. Negotiate strategy	2.17	.97	2.34	.96	2.39	1.23
7. Target outcomes to the social mission	2.23	1.05	2.73	1.02	2.65	1.27

Based on the data, MPA, MNM, and other programs do not seem to incorporate BI into their curricula to a great extent, although MNM and other programs do so more than MPA programs. These results complement earlier curriculum characteristics that indicated these programs do not cover NSE concepts extensively in their curricula. MNM and other faculty reported BI inclusion competency means, for the most part, in the top half of the 4-point scale (i.e., > 2.5), and MPA faculty members reported BI means, for the most part, in the bottom half of the 4-point scale (i.e., < 2.5). Based on these results, it was worth examining whether these differences were statistically significant.

For this purpose, the researcher used an independent sample *t* test because the groups were dichotomous, from two different populations rather than three: faculty from MPA and MNM programs, excluding those identified as other programs. The Other category represents how respondents described a program that did not fit either the MPA or MNM category, and the small sample size (i.e., 9%) was insufficient to warrant inclusion in these further analyses. Figure 7 shows program-type means and variances for the BI inclusion competency. MNM programs had the higher BI competency means and medians, whereas MPA programs had the higher rating variability.

Figure 7

BI Inclusion Competency by Program-Type Means and Medians



A *t* test demonstrated MNM faculty reported a higher inclusion of the BI competency in their curricula than MPA faculty. MNM faculty reported their programs included six of the seven BI SIs in their courses to a significantly greater extent than MPA faculty (see Table 11).

Table 11

BI Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program-Type Differences

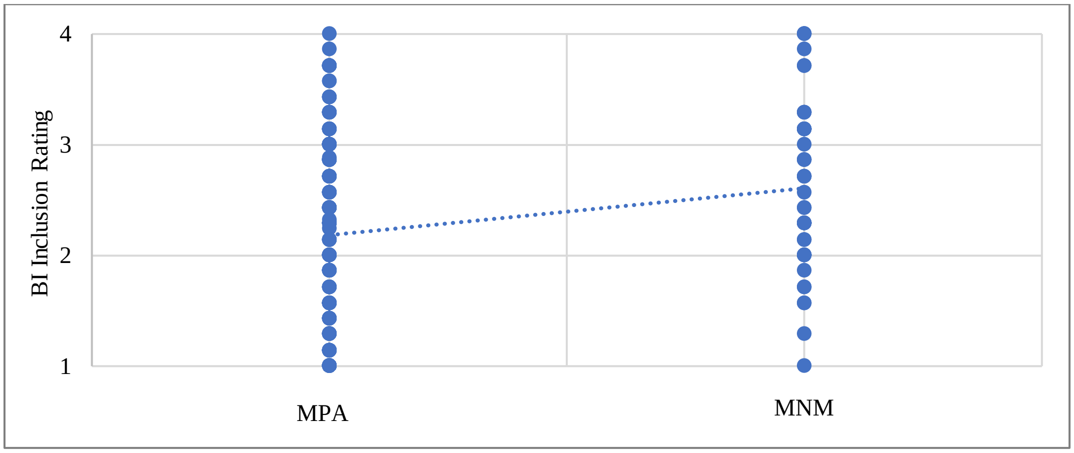
Survey Item (SI)	MPA		MNM				
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
1. Limit mission drift	2.10	.97	2.75	1.01	−3.93	<.001	.66
2. Reduce tensions	2.21	1.01	2.59	1.02	−2.21	.028	.42
3. Build a core strategy	2.12	1.04	2.52	1.04	−2.31	.022	.38
4. Recognize mission conflicts	2.28	1.01	2.73	.99	−2.64	.009	.44
5. Develop common ground	2.17	.99	2.59	.97	−2.53	.012	.42
6. Negotiate strategy	2.17	.97	2.34	.96	−1.06	.289	.18
7. Target outcomes to the social mission	2.23	1.05	2.73	1.02	−2.83	.005	.48

Cohen's *d* measure of effect size was medium (*d* = 0.5) for BI item 1 and small for the remaining BI SIs (Cohen, 1988). Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated the *t* tests had met the assumption of homogeneity of variance and normality for all BI SIs (see Appendix D). Based on effect size results, SI 1 had the most significant mean differences. MPA and MNM programs do not incorporate BI into their curricula to a great extent, although MNM programs do so to a greater extent than MPA programs, particularly for SI 1.

A correlation was used to assess whether inclusion of BI in program curricula is associated with program type. Because program type was converted to a dichotomous variable based on the small number of other programs point biserial correlations were performed to assess whether there was a significant association between program type and BI curriculum content. Figure 8 shows the program-type bivariate correlations scatterplot for the BI inclusion competency. The figure shows a positive slope moving slightly upward to the right and indicates a positive relationship between the BI SI ratings and MPA or MNM program type.

Figure 8

BI Inclusion Competency by Program-Type Correlations



Correlations were statistically significant for the BI inclusion competency (r_{pb} [225] = .196, p = .001) and six BI SIs. When the independent variable was MNM, the BI SIs had significantly higher ratings than when the independent variable was MPA. The effect size (r_{pb}) approached medium strength (i.e., $r_{pb} \pm .243$) for SI 1, yet small or negligible for the other BI SIs (Cohen, 1988; see Table 12).

Table 12

BI Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program-Type Correlations

Survey Item (SI) My program teaches how to:	r_{pb}	n	p
1. Limit mission drift	.254	227	< .001
2. Reduce tensions	.146	227	.028
3. Build a core strategy	.153	227	.022
4. Recognize mission conflicts	.173	227	.009
5. Develop common ground	.166	227	.012
6. Negotiate strategy	.071	227	.289
7. Target outcomes to the social mission	.185	227	.005

These results confirm MPA and MNM programs do not cover the primary NSE balanced integration (BI) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, suggesting MNM programs do this substantially better than MPA programs, particularly for BI SI 1.

Findings Related to Research Question 2: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of CS in their curricula?

Analyses of central tendency, inferential tests, and correlations were performed to answer this question. This section presents a descriptive analysis of the CS SIs and their inclusion in the MPA, MNM, and other courses. The intent was to understand how these programs incorporated CS into their curricula and provide the basis for subsequent inferential analysis and comparison. Table 13 shows the means and variations of the CS SIs by program type.

Table 13

CS Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program Type

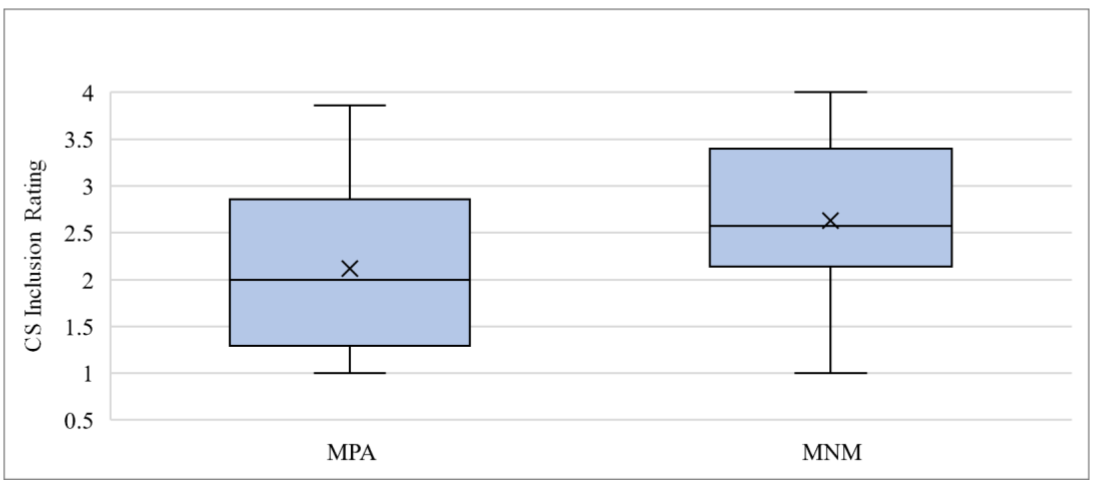
Survey Item (SI)	MPA		MNM		Other	
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
8. Ensure short- and long-term success	2.31	1.09	2.93	1.04	2.91	1.20
9. Create innovative solutions	2.08	1.03	2.91	.98	2.61	1.12
10. Evaluate the feasibility of solutions	2.26	1.04	2.59	.99	3.09	.95
11. Determine performance indicators	2.30	1.06	2.61	.97	2.92	1.03
12. Develop new business models	2.02	1.02	2.57	1.04	2.39	1.08
13. Develop high-risk projects	1.71	.84	2.14	1.03	1.87	.87
14. Legitimize NSE models	2.14	1.07	2.68	.98	2.61	.99

Results indicated MPA, MNM, and other programs do not appear to incorporate CS into their curricula to a great extent, although MNM and other programs do so more than MPA programs. These results complement earlier curriculum characteristics results that indicated these programs do not cover NSE extensively in their curricula. MNM and other faculty reported CS SI means, for the most part, in the top half of the 4-point scale, and MPA faculty members reported CS SI means, for the most part, in the bottom half of the 4-point scale. Based on these results, it was worth examining whether these differences were statistically significant.

For this purpose, the researcher used an independent sample *t* test because the groups were from two different populations: faculty from MPA and MNM programs, excluding those identified as other programs. Figure 9 shows program-type means and variances for the CS competency. MNM programs can be seen to have the higher CS means and medians, whereas MPA programs have the higher rating variability.

Figure 9

CS Inclusion Competency by Program-Type Means and Medians



A *t* test demonstrated MNM faculty reported significantly higher inclusion of the CS competency in their curricula than MPA faculty. Furthermore, MNM faculty reported their programs included five of seven CS SIs in their courses to a greater extent than MPA faculty (see Table 14).

Table 14

CS Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program-Type Differences

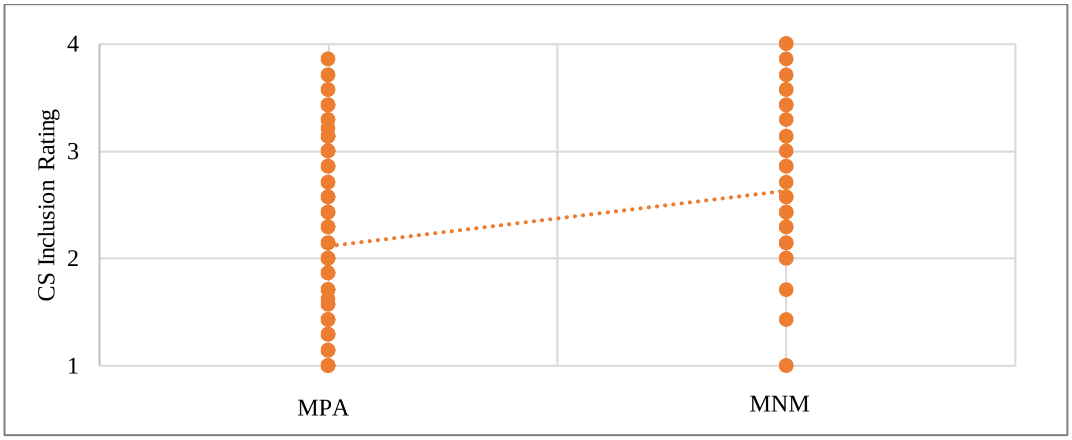
Survey Item (SI)	MPA		MNM				
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
8. Ensure short- and long-term success	2.31	1.10	2.93	1.04	−3.43	< .001	.58
9. Create innovative solutions	2.08	1.03	2.91	.98	−4.84	< .001	.81
10. Evaluate feasibility of solutions	2.26	1.04	2.59	.99	−1.89	.060	.32
11. Determine performance indicators	2.30	1.06	2.61	.97	−1.80	.070	.30
12. Develop new business models	2.02	1.02	2.57	1.04	−3.11	.002	.54
13. Develop high-risk projects	1.71	.84	2.14	1.03	−2.90	.004	.49
14. Legitimize NSE models	2.18	1.07	2.68	.98	−3.06	.002	.51

Cohen's *d* measure of effect size was large (d = 0.8) for SI 9 and medium (d = 0.5) for SIs 8, 12, and 14 (Cohen, 1988). Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated the *t* tests had met the assumption of homogeneity of variance and normality for all CS SIs (see Appendix D). Based on effect size results, SIs 8, 9, 12, and 14 had the most statistically significant program-type mean differences. MPA and MNM programs do not incorporate CS into their curricula to a great extent, although MNM programs do so to a greater extent than MPA programs, particularly for SIs 8, 9, 12, and 14.

A correlation was used to assess whether inclusion of CS in program curricula is associated with program type. Because program type was converted to a dichotomous variable based on the small number of other programs, a point biserial correlations were performed to assess whether there was a significant association between program type and CS curriculum content. Figure 10 shows the program-type bivariate correlations scatterplot for the CS inclusion competency. The figure shows a positive slope moving slightly upward to the right and indicates a positive relationship between the CS SI ratings and MPA or MNM program type.

Figure 10

CS Inclusion Competency by Program-Type Correlations



There were slight positive correlations between CS SIs and program type. Correlations were statistically significant for the CS inclusion competency (r_{pb} [225] = .238, p = <.001) and five of seven CS SIs. When the independent variable was MNM, the SIs had significantly higher ratings than when the independent variable was MPA. The effect size (r_{pb}) was large (i.e., r_{pb} ± .371) for SI 9, approached medium strength (i.e., r_{pb} ± .243) for SI 8, yet small or negligible for the other CS SIs (Cohen, 1988; see Table 15).

Table 15

CS Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program-Type Correlations

Survey Item (SI) My program teaches how to:	r_{pb}	n	p
8. Ensure short- and long-term success	.223	227	< .001
9. Create innovative solutions	.370	227	< .001
10. Evaluate the feasibility of solutions	.125	227	.060
11. Determine performance indicators	.119	227	.070
12. Develop new business models	.208	227	.002
13. Develop high-risk projects	.190	227	.004
14. Legitimize NSE models	.200	227	.002

These results confirm MPA and MNM programs do not cover the primary NSE creative sustainability (CS) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, suggesting MNM programs do this substantially better than MPA programs, particularly for CS SIs 8, 9, 12, and 14.

Findings Related to Research Question 3: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of IC in their curricula?

Analyses of central tendency, inferential tests, and correlations were performed to answer this question. This section presents a descriptive analysis of the IC SIs and their inclusion in the MPA, MNM, and other courses. The intent was to understand how these programs incorporated IC into their curricula and provide the basis for subsequent inferential analysis and comparison. Table 16 shows the means and variations of the IC SIs by program type.

Table 16

IC Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program Type

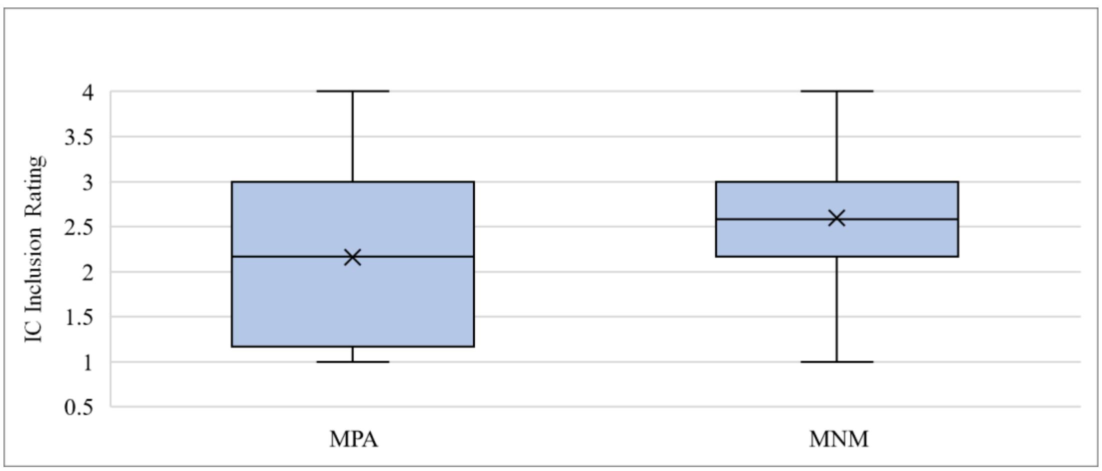
Survey Item (SI)	MPA		MNM		Other	
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
15. Develop collective decision making	2.26	1.06	2.61	.95	2.39	1.16
16. Increase employee focus on the social mission	2.25	1.09	2.64	.94	2.65	1.15
17. Recruit and teach employees	1.95	1.02	2.41	1.06	2.17	1.03
18. Create a safe environment	1.93	1.03	2.20	1.03	2.26	1.10
19. Motivate employees	2.15	1.03	2.77	1.01	2.22	1.13
20. Develop alliances	2.43	1.08	2.93	.95	2.98	1.00

MPA, MNM, and other programs do not seem to incorporate IC into their curricula to a great extent, although MNM and other programs do so more than MPA programs. These results complement earlier curriculum characteristics that indicated these programs do not cover NSE extensively in their curricula. MNM and other faculty reported IC SI means, for the most part, in the top half of the 4-point scale, and MPA faculty members reported IC SI means, for the most part, in the bottom half of the 4-point scale. Based on these results, it was worth examining whether these differences were statistically significant.

For this purpose, the researcher used an independent sample *t* test because the groups were from two different populations: faculty from MPA and MNM programs, excluding those identified as other programs. Figure 11 shows program-type means and variances for the IC competency. MNM programs had the higher IC means and medians, whereas MPA programs had the higher rating variability.

Figure 11

IC Inclusion Competency by Program-Type Means and Medians



MNM faculty reported significantly higher inclusion of the IC competency in their curricula than MPA faculty. Furthermore, MNM faculty reported their programs included five of six IC SIs in their courses to a significantly greater extent than MPA faculty (see Table 17).

Table 17

IC Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program-Type Differences

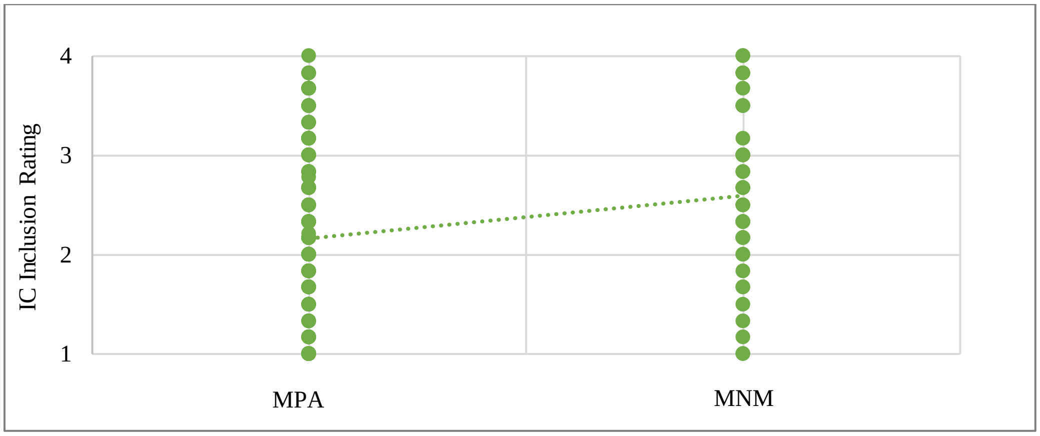
Survey Item (SI)	MPA		MNM				
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
15. Develop collective decision making	2.26	1.06	2.61	.95	−2.02	.045	.34
16. Increase employee focus on the social mission	2.25	1.09	2.64	.94	−2.16	.032	.36
17. Recruit and teach employees	1.95	1.02	2.41	1.06	−2.66	.008	.45
18. Create a safe environment	1.93	1.03	2.20	1.03	−1.60	.111	.27
19. Motivate employees	2.15	1.03	2.77	1.01	−3.60	< .001	.61
20. Develop alliances	2.43	1.08	2.93	1.01	−2.83	.005	.48

Cohen's *d* measure of effect size was medium ($d = 0.5$) for SI 19 and small for the IC competency and other IC SIs (Cohen, 1988). Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated the *t* tests had met the assumption of homogeneity of variance and normality for all IC items, except for SI 20 (see Appendix D). Based on effect size results, SI 19 had the most significant program-type mean difference. MPA and MNM programs do not include IC in their curricula to a great extent, although MNM programs do so to a greater extent than MPA programs, particularly for SI 19.

A correlation was used to assess whether inclusion of IC in program curricula was associated with program type. Because program type was converted to a dichotomous variable based on the small number of other programs, point biserial correlations were performed to assess whether there was a significant association between program type and IC curriculum content. Figure 12 shows the program-type bivariate correlations scatterplot for the IC inclusion competency. The figure shows a positive slope moving slightly upward to the right and indicates a positive relationship between the IC SI ratings and MPA or MNM program type.

Figure 12

IC Inclusion Competency by Program-Type Correlations



There were slight positive relationships between the IC SIs in university curricula and program type. Correlations were statistically significant for the IC inclusion competency (r_{pb} [225] = .193, p = .002) and five of six IC SIs. When the independent variable was MNM, the IC SIs had substantially higher ratings than when the independent variable was MPA. The effect size (r_{pb}) approached medium strength (i.e., r_{pb} ± .243) for SI 19, yet small or negligible for the other IC SIs (Cohen, 1988; see Table 18).

Table 18

IC Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Program-Type Correlations

Survey Item (SI) My program teaches how to:	r_{pb}	n	p
15. Develop collective decision making	.133	227	.045
16. Increase employee focus on the social mission	.142	227	.032
17. Recruit and teach employees	.174	227	.008
18. Create a safe environment	.106	227	.111
19. Motivate employees	.234	227	< .001
20. Develop alliances	.185	227	.005

These results confirmed MPA and MNM programs do not cover the primary NSE inspirational change (IC) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, suggesting MNM programs do this substantially better than MPA programs, particularly for IC SI 19 (i.e., motivate employees).

Ancillary Findings

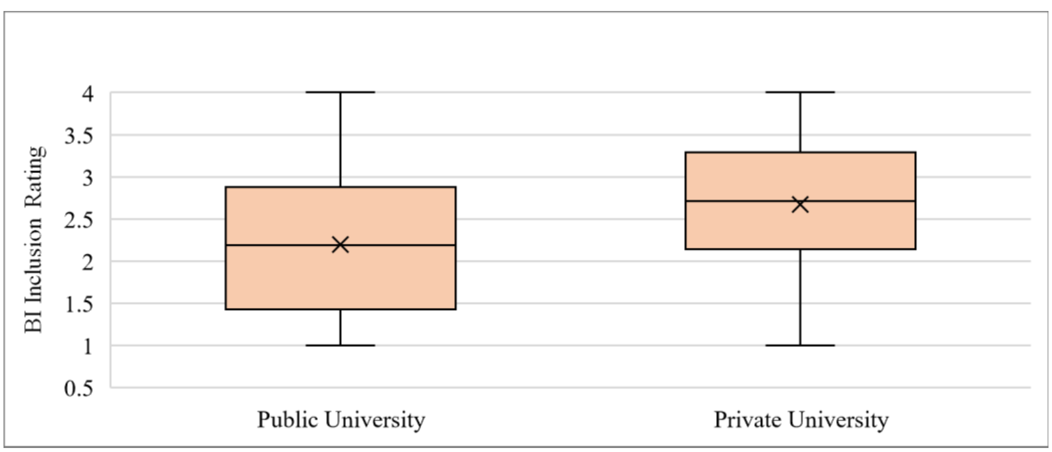
Ancillary findings were noted in relationship to the institution-type independent variable. These are reported below.

Balanced Integration Ancillary Findings

Although not directly related to the study's primary research questions, the independent variable of institution type (i.e., public or private universities) provide additional insights into understanding the incorporation of the BI inclusion competency into program curricula. Figure 13 shows institution-type means and variances for the BI competency. As with the program-type boxplots, private universities have the higher BI means and medians, and public universities have the higher rating variability.

Figure 13

BI Inclusion Competency by Institution-Type Means and Medians



A t test demonstrated private university faculty ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .78$) reported significantly higher inclusion of the BI inclusion competency into their curricula than public university faculty ($M = 2.19$, $SD = .87$). Furthermore, private university faculty said their programs include all seven BI SIs into their courses to a significantly greater extent than public university faculty (see Table 19).

Cohen's d measure of effect size was medium ($d = 0.5$) for SIs 1 and 3 yet small for the other BI SIs (Cohen, 1988). Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated that the t tests had met the assumption of homogeneity of variance and normality for all BI SIs (see Appendix E). Based on effect size results, BI SIs 1 and 3 had the most significant institution-type BI mean differences. Public and private institutions do not incorporate BI into their curricula to a great extent, although private institutions do so to a significantly greater extent than public institutions, particularly for SIs 1 and 3.

Table 19

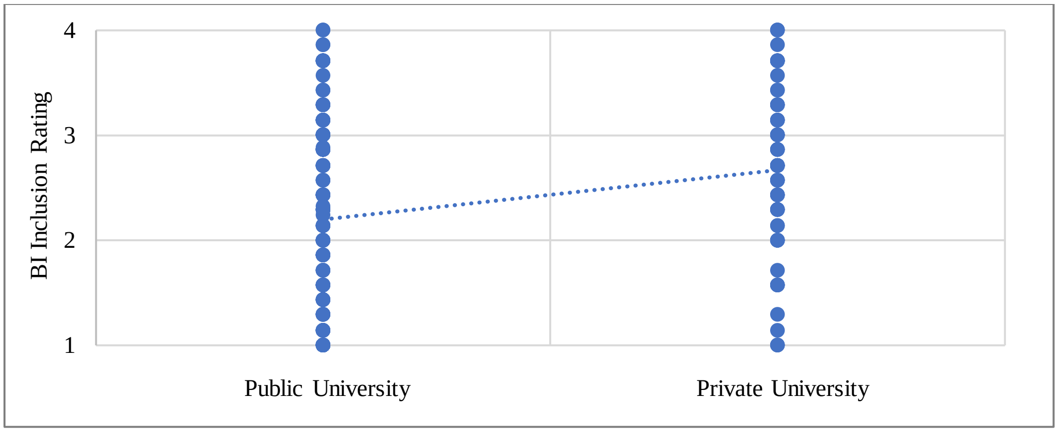
BI Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Institution-Type Differences

Survey Item (SI)	Public		Private				
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
1. Limit mission drift	2.15	1.04	2.72	.93	−3.91	< .001	.56
2. Reduce tensions	2.23	1.03	2.69	.96	−3.11	.002	.45
3. Build a core strategy	2.10	1.04	2.72	1.06	−4.12	< .001	.59
4. Recognize mission conflicts	2.32	1.03	2.81	.99	−3.32	.001	.48
5. Develop common ground	2.18	.99	2.67	1.02	−3.42	< .001	.49
6. Negotiate strategy	2.14	.97	2.43	.99	−2.10	.037	.30
7. Target outcomes to the social mission	2.27	1.06	2.66	1.11	−2.48	.014	.36

In addition to program type, the researcher ran point biserial correlations to determine any potential relationships between BI and institution type. Figure 14 shows the institution-type bivariate correlations scatterplot for the BI inclusion competency. The figure shows a positive slope moving slightly upward to the right and indicates a positive relationship between the BI SI ratings and private or public institution type.

Figure 14

BI Inclusion Competency by Institution-Type Correlations



There were slight positive correlations between the BI SIs in university curricula and institution type. Correlations were statistically significant for the BI inclusion competency (r_{pb} [237] = .243, p = < .001) and all seven SIs (see Table 20).

Table 20

BI Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Institution-Type Correlations

Survey Item (SI) My program teaches how to:	r_{pb}	n	p
1. Limit mission drift	.247	239	< .001
2. Reduce tensions	.198	239	.002
3. Build a core strategy	.258	239	< .001
4. Recognize mission conflicts	.211	239	.001
5. Develop common ground	.217	239	< .001
6. Negotiate strategy	.135	239	.037
7. Target outcomes to the social mission	.159	239	.014

When the independent variable was private university, the BI SIs had significantly higher ratings than when the variable was public university. The effect size (r_{pb}) was medium-strength (i.e., r_{pb} ± .243) for BI SIs 1 (i.e., limit mission drift) and 3 (i.e., build a core strategy), yet small for the remaining BI SIs (Cohen, 1988).

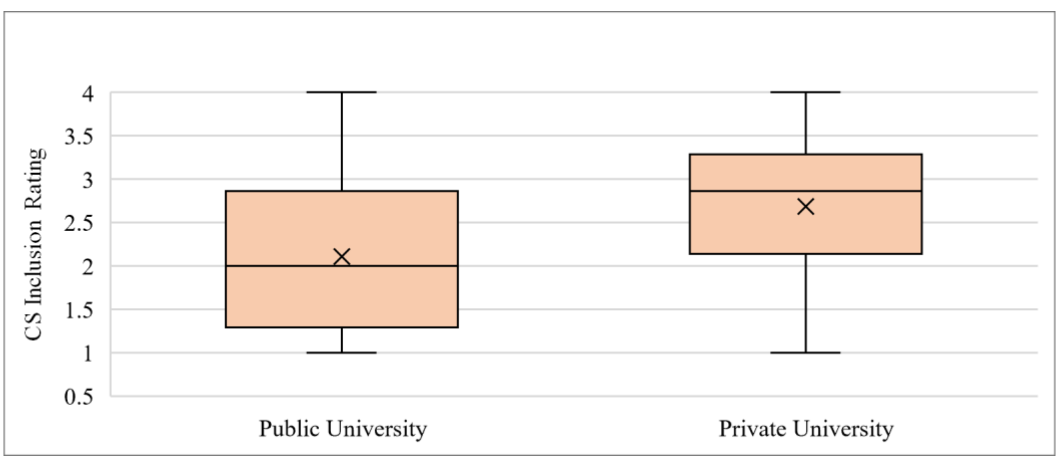
These results confirmed public and private universities do not include the primary NSE BI leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, suggesting private universities did this substantially better than public universities, particularly for BI SIs 1 (i.e., limit mission drift) and 3 (i.e., build a core strategy).

Creative Sustainability Ancillary Findings

The independent variable of institution type (i.e., public or private universities) provided additional insights to understand the incorporation of the CS leadership competency into program curricula. Figure 15 shows institution-type means and variances for the CS inclusion competency. As was seen in the program-type boxplots, private universities had the higher CS means and medians, whereas public universities had the higher rating variability.

Figure 15

CS Inclusion Competency by Institution-Type Means and Medians



A *t* test demonstrated private university faculty (M = 2.68, SD = 76) reported significantly higher inclusion of the CS inclusion competency into their curricula than public university faculty (M = 2.11, SD = .85). Furthermore, private university faculty said their programs included all seven CS SIs into their courses to a statistically significant greater extent than public universities (see Table 21).

Cohen's *d* measure of effect size was large (d = 0.8) for SI 9 and medium (d = 0.5) for SIs 8, 10, 12, 13, and 14 (Cohen, 1988). Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated that the *t* tests had met the assumption of homogeneity of variance and normality for all CS SIs, except for SI 10 (see Appendix E). Based on effect size, CS SIs 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, and 14 had the most significant institution-type CS mean differences. Public and private institutions do not incorporate CS into their curricula to a great extent, although private institutions do so to a significantly greater extent than public institutions, particularly for SIs 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, and 14.

Table 21

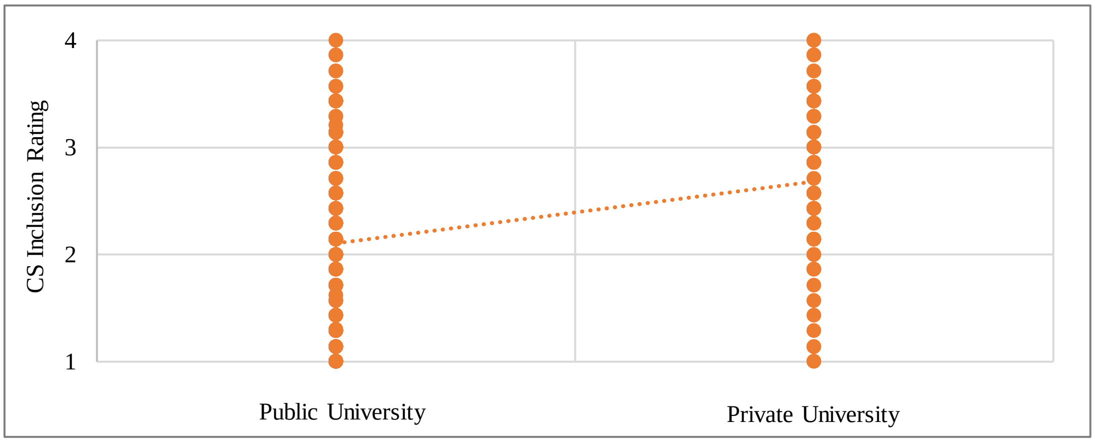
CS Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Institution-Type Differences

Survey Item (SI)	Public		Private				
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
8. Ensure short- and long-term success	2.33	1.14	2.87	.93	−3.61	< .001	.49
9. Create innovative solutions	2.08	1.01	2.85	.97	−5.32	< .001	.77
10. Evaluate the feasibility of solutions	2.22	1.08	2.82	.89	−4.41	< .001	.58
11. Determine performance indicators	2.29	1.07	2.76	.99	−3.14	.002	.43
12. Develop new business models	1.99	1.01	2.60	1.06	−4.10	< .001	.59
13. Develop high-risk projects	1.69	.85	2.15	.91	−3.70	< .001	.53
14. Legitimize NSE models	2.15	1.07	2.73	.93	−3.94	< .001	.57

In addition to program type, the researcher ran point biserial correlations to determine any potential relationships between CS and institution type. Figure 16 shows the institution-type bivariate correlations scatterplots for the CS inclusion competency. The figure shows a positive slope moving slightly upward to the right and indicates a positive relationship between the CS item ratings and private or public institution type.

Figure 16

CS Inclusion Competency by Institution-Type Correlations



There were slight positive correlations between the CS SIs in university curricula and institution type. Correlations were statistically significant for the CS inclusion competency (r_{pb} [237] = .300, p = < .001) and all seven CS SIs (see Table 22).

Table 22

CS Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Institution-Type Correlations

Survey Item (SI) My program teaches how to:	r_{pb}	n	p
8. Ensure short- and long-term success	.216	239	< .001
9. Create innovative solutions	.327	239	< .001
10. Evaluate the feasibility of solutions	.254	239	< .001
11. Determine performance indicators	.200	239	.002
12. Develop new business models	.257	239	< .001
13. Develop high-risk projects	.234	239	< .001
14. Legitimize NSE models	.248	239	< .001

When the independent variable was private university, the CS SIs had significantly higher ratings than when the independent variable was public university. The effect size (r_{pb}) was medium strength for SI 9 (i.e., create innovative solutions), SI 10 (i.e., evaluate the feasibility of solutions), SI 12 (i.e., develop new business models), SI 13 (i.e., develop high-risk projects), and SI 14 (i.e., legitimize NSE models; Cohen, 1988).

These results confirm public and private universities do not cover the primary NSE CS leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, suggesting private universities did this substantially better than public universities, particularly for CS SIs 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, and 14.

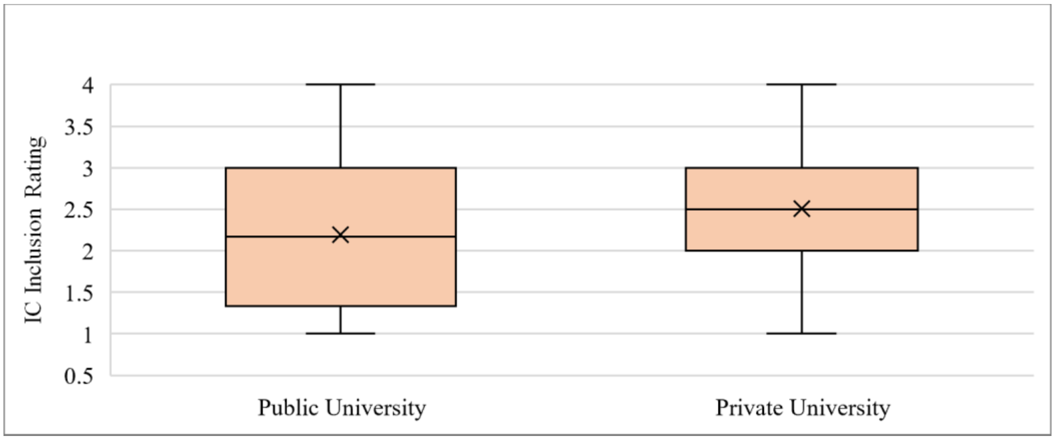
Inspirational Change Ancillary Findings

Although not directly related to the study's primary research questions, the independent variable of institution type (i.e., public or private universities) provided additional insights to understand the incorporation of the IC leadership competency into program curricula. Figure 17 shows institution-type means and variances for the IC inclusion competency. As was seen in the program-type boxplots, private universities have the highest IC means and medians, whereas public universities have the highest rating variability.

A *t* test demonstrated private university faculty (*M* = 2.51, *SD* = .78) reported significantly higher inclusion of the IC competency into their curricula than public university faculty (Public *M* = 2.19, *SD* = .91). Furthermore, private university faculty said their programs included three of six IC SIs into their courses to a statistically significant greater extent than public universities (see Table 23).

Figure 17

IC Inclusion Competency by Institution-Type Means and Medians



Cohen's d measure of effect size was medium (d = 0.5) for SI 20 (Cohen, 1988), yet small for the other IC SIs. Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated that the t-tests had met the assumption of homogeneity of variance and normality for the IC SIs (see Appendix E). Based on effect size, SI 20 (i.e., develop alliances) had the most significant institution-type IC mean difference. Public and private institutions do not include IC in their curricula to a great extent, although private institutions do so to a significantly greater extent than public

Table 23

IC Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Institution-Type Differences

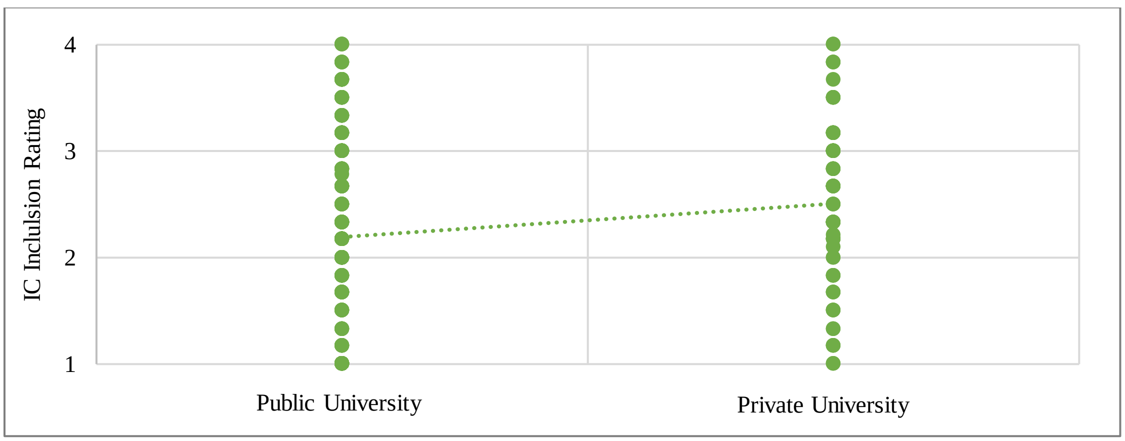
Survey Item (SI)	Public		Private				
My program teaches how to:	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
15. Develop collective decision making	2.26	1.08	2.63	.90	−2.70	.014	.36
16. Increase employee focus on the social mission	2.27	1.10	2.68	.96	−2.83	.008	.39
17. Recruit and teach employees	2.02	1.05	2.19	1.00	−1.17	.254	.17
18. Create a safe environment	1.98	1.05	2.10	1.02	− .83	.415	.12
19. Motivate employees	2.19	1.05	2.48	1.04	−1.92	.057	.28
20. Develop alliances	2.44	1.08	2.96	.92	−3.75	< .001	.50

institutions, particularly for SI 20.

In addition to program type, the researcher ran point biserial correlations to determine any potential relationships between IC and institution type. Figure 18 shows the institution-type bivariate correlations scatterplots for the IC inclusion competency. The figure shows a positive slope moving slightly upward to the right and indicates a positive relationship between the IC SI ratings and private or public institution type.

Figure 18

IC Inclusion Competency by Institution-Type Correlations



There were slight positive correlations between the IC SIs in university curricula and institution type. Correlations were statistically significant for the IC inclusion competency (r_{pb} [237] = .160, p = .014) and three IC SIs (see Table 24). When the independent variable was private university, the IC SIs had significantly higher ratings than when the independent variable was public university. The effect size (r_{pb}) approached medium strength for SI 20 (i.e., develop alliances), yet small for the other IC SIs (Cohen, 1988).

Table 24

IC Inclusion Competency Survey Items by Institution-Type Correlations

Survey Item (SI) My program teaches how to:	r_{pb}	n	p
15. Develop collective decision making	.159	239	.014
16. Increase employee focus on the social mission	.171	239	.008
17. Recruit and teach employees	.074	239	.254
18. Create a safe environment	.053	239	.415
19. Motivate employees	.123	239	.057
20. Develop alliances	.222	239	< .001

These results confirmed public and private universities did not include the primary NSE IC leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, suggesting private universities did this substantially better than public universities, particularly for IC SI 20.

Summary of Findings

Examining curricular descriptions, 59% (n = 145) of all programs did not feature NSE specifically in their required courses, but instead addressed hybrid nonprofit management concepts. For each program, 62% (n = 113) of MPA, 47% (n = 20) of MNM, and 52% (n = 12) of other program faculty reported their program curricula did not single out NSE concepts, but instead embedded them within nonprofit hybrid coursework. MNM programs reported using more in-classroom case studies, guest speakers, and reflective journaling, and a less expansive use of experiential learning activities, such as mentoring, service learning, and practicums than MPA and other programs.

Research Question 1: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of balanced integration (BI) in their curricula?

The results indicated MPA and MNM programs did not include the NSE BI leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, that showed MNM programs did this substantially better than MPA programs, particularly for BI SI 1 (i.e., limit mission drift).

Research Question 2: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of creative sustainability (CS) in their curricula?

The results showed MPA and MNM programs did not include the NSE creative sustainability (CS) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, showing MNM programs did this substantially better than MPA programs, particularly for CS SI 8 (i.e., ensure short-term and long-term success), SI 9 (i.e., create innovative solutions), SI 12 (i.e., develop new business models), and SI 14 (i.e., legitimize NSE models).

Research Question 3: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of inspirational change (IC) in their curricula?

The results indicated MPA and MNM programs did not cover the NSE IC leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, that showed MNM programs did this substantially better than MPA programs, particularly for SI 19 (i.e., motivate employees).

Ancillary Findings

The results indicated public and private institutions did not include the NSE balanced integration (BI) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, that showed private institutions did this noticeably better than public institutions, particularly for BI SIs 1 (i.e., limit mission drift) and 3 (i.e., build a core strategy).

The findings showed public and private institutions did not incorporate the NSE creative sustainability (CS) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, showing private institutions did this noticeably better than public institutions, particularly for CS SI 8 (i.e., ensure short- and long-term success), SI 9 (i.e., create innovative solutions), SI 10 (i.e., evaluate the feasibility of solutions), SI 12 (i.e., develop new business models), SI 13 (i.e., develop high-risk projects), and SI 14 (i.e., legitimize NSE models). Although indicating a significant difference, SI 13 was low on the scale for both institution types.

Finally, the results indicated public and private institutions did not cover the NSE inspirational change (IC) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula. There was statistical support, however, that showed private institutions did this noticeably better than public institutions, particularly for IC SI 20 (i.e., develop alliances).

This study's results showed neither program type focuses strongly on teaching the BI, CS, and IC leadership competencies. MNM programs, however, appear to cover six well and more extensively than MPA programs. Additionally, private institutions appear to teach eight leadership competencies well and more extensively than public institutions. All of these results will be further discussed in the next chapter, which will offer both an examination of the implications for practice and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter presents the study's rationale, purpose, survey response rate, and primary findings discussion. Ancillary findings, conclusions, implications, and research recommendations are followed by concluding remarks.

Rationale for the Study

Nonprofit social enterprises (NSEs) are an increasing presence as a force for social change. Like other successful organizations, NSEs need exceptional leaders who can execute creative strategies to solve social problems and develop substantial revenue and profit. Considering their unique dual mission and leadership challenges, NSEs require a different type of leadership from standard nonprofit organizations, a distinctive leadership competency model with specialized social work and business management training (Battilana, 2018; Weaver, 2021). Research has suggested, however, that it is challenging for such organizations to acquire leaders with the necessary blend of skills to provide effective management (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Bhati & Manimala, 2011; Mueller et al., 2013; Napathorn, 2018; Salamon et al., 2003; Smith & Darko, 2014). Moreover, as NSE organizations and related training are not widespread (Austin & Rangan, 2019), few job candidates have extensive experience or formal education in NSE leadership (Battilana, Lee, et al., 2012; Napathorn, 2018).

Operational problems, including mission drift or favoring one type of operation over another and the corresponding managerial tensions these disagreements can engender, arise when founders lack the leadership training to balance and maximize social and commercial interests and objectives (Stevens et al., 2015), which is a threat, in this unique hybrid situation, to organizational sustainability and legitimacy (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Mueller et al., 2013; Rosser et al., 2021; Yaari et al., 2020).

Study Purpose

To address these problems, this study aimed to determine whether university preparation programs (i.e., the master's degree in public administration [MPA] and the master's degree in nonprofit management [MNM]) incorporate NSE organizations' central leadership competency needs into their curricula. Three NSE leadership competencies derived from the literature — balanced integration (BI), creative sustainability (CS), and inspirational change (IC) — were used to develop a 20-item survey to assess the extent to which MPA and MNM program curricula enable students to acquire these essential leadership competencies. To this purpose, the researcher answered the following questions.

Research Question 1: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of balanced integration (BI) in their curricula?

Research Question 2: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of creative sustainability (CS) in their curricula?

Research Question 3: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of inspirational change (IC) in their curricula?

The following definitions and procedures explain how the researcher intended to measure the primary NSE leadership competencies:

- BI is defined as embracing and managing tensions, conflicting goals, and competing demands among socially- and profit-oriented missions (Al Taji & Bengo, 2018; Jackson et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2012) measured by participants' responses to Survey Items (SIs) 1–7.
- CS is defined as discovering and pursuing business opportunities, innovating, and taking risks as a social entrepreneur to create social and economic value (Bublitz et al., 2021;

Capella-Peris, 2020; Roundy, 2017a) measured by participants' responses to Survey Items (SIs) 8–14.

- IC is defined as inspiring, motivating, and collaborating as a transformational leader to achieve socially- and profit-oriented missions (Bhutiani et al., 2012; Chang & Jeong, 2021; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021) measured by participants' responses to Survey Items (SIs) 15–20.

Survey Response Rate

Faculty were recruited from various public and private universities in the United States, Canada, and Europe. The researcher contacted 794 faculty members with a response rate of 31% for a final sample of 250 faculty members. The study sought to include enough participants and universities to gather a wide range of views based on various attributes (e.g., institutional size, geographic location, or Carnegie classification).

Primary Findings Discussion

Examining curricular descriptions, 59% (n = 145) of all programs did not feature NSE specifically in their required courses but instead embedded them within nonprofit hybrid coursework. For each program, 62% (n = 113) of MPA, 47% (n = 20) of MNM, and 52% (n = 12) of other program faculty reported their program curricula did not single out NSE concepts. MNM program curricula featured traditional in-classroom learning activities like case studies and guest speakers, often combined with one experiential learning activity like service learning. In comparison, MPA program curricula revealed in-classroom activities combined with various experiential learning activities. It is conceivable MNM programs feature fewer learning activities because they focus solely on nonprofit concepts, including NSE, and MPA programs must cover a more comprehensive range of concepts.

Previous research has neither theorized nor proposed one program type (i.e., MPA vs. MNM) more effective at teaching NSE competencies. This study's results showed neither program type focuses strongly on teaching the BI, CS, and IC leadership competencies. MNM programs, however, appear to cover six well and more extensively than MPA programs. The Other category represents how respondents described a program that did not fit either the MPA or MNM category and the small sample size (i.e., 9%) was insufficient to warrant inclusion in these further analyses. The following section explores the three research questions' results.

Research Question 1: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of balanced integration (BI) in their curricula?

The results indicated that neither MPA nor MNM programs incorporated BI extensively in their curricula. MNM programs, however, incorporated BI into their curricula to a greater extent than MPA programs, a finding for which there was statistical support, particularly for SI 1 (i.e., limit mission drift). These BI statistical results demonstrated that mission drift presents a common, if not the most common, difficult-to-overcome challenge for NSEs (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Santos et al., 2015; Smith & Besharov, 2019; Stevens et al., 2015; White et al., 2022). MNM faculty may be more aware of or have more experience with mission drift, having taught or researched subjects central to nonprofits and NSEs. Being familiar with the most prominent challenge of limiting mission drift may explain why MNM programs are more likely to include this BI leadership competency in their coursework.

Limiting mission drift is an important skill for MPA students to learn. Incorporating it into MPA curricula – and additional NSE principles – could broaden their appeal, perhaps producing more qualified NSE executive candidates for the job market.

Research Question 2: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of creative sustainability (CS) in their curricula?

The results showed that neither MPA nor MNM programs incorporated CS extensively in their curricula, although MNM programs again reported incorporating CS concepts more extensively than MPA programs, a finding for which there was subsequent statistical support that was particularly strong for SI 8 (i.e., ensure short- and long-term success), SI 9 (i.e., create innovative solutions), SI 12 (i.e., develop new business models), and SI 14 (i.e., legitimize NSE models). These creative sustainability results reinforce the idea that creating short- and long-term success through innovative solutions is particularly critical for NSEs to thrive (Alter, 2006; Bublitz et al., 2021; Dacin et al., 2011; Greenwood et al., 2011; Park & Bae, 2020). A challenge for future studies might be to learn how MNM programs emphasize this essential CS social entrepreneurial competency in their curricula. MNM faculty may be more familiar with the NSE dual mission challenge and how entrepreneurial solutions can lead a nonprofit or an NSE to success in an ever-tightening funding environment. As with Research Question 1, many MNM faculty have taught or researched nonprofits and NSEs, becoming intimately familiar with their primary financial challenges.

Research Question 3: To what extent do MPA and MNM programs include the primary NSE leadership competency of inspirational change (IC) in their curricula?

The results indicated that neither MPA nor MNM programs included IC extensively in their curricula, although MNM programs again showed the inclusion of IC concepts more consistently than MPA programs, a finding for which there was subsequent statistical support, particularly robust for SI 19 (i.e., motivate employees). Motivating employees to achieve dual-mission results is challenging for NSEs to accomplish (Bhutiani et al., 2012; Chang & Jeong, 2021; Naderi et al., 2019; Sari et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2012). MNM faculty members may be more aware of and, therefore, highlight in their coursework more of the practical day-to-day human resource challenges within nonprofits and NSEs. This suggestion may be particularly valid for NSEs, which must rely on skilled and motivated personnel to accomplish their competing dual missions in intense environments.

Also, to the extent that most faculty choose disciplines consistent with their interests and values, MPA faculty members may be more oriented toward public service programs where goals are more explicit and focused. Once again, many MNM faculty have taught or researched nonprofits and NSEs, becoming familiar with their essential human resource challenges.

Ancillary Findings Discussion

Findings reported in this section relate to the independent variable of institution type (i.e., public or private), collected with selected demographic attributes but not expressed as a research question. An unexpected finding of this study was that MPA and MNM programs incorporated nine leadership competencies across the three NSE constructs more extensively at private universities than at public universities.

Balanced Integration Ancillary Findings

Results indicated that neither public nor private institutions incorporate the balanced integration (BI) leadership competency comprehensively in their curricula, although private university programs again reported the inclusion of BI principles more often than public university programs. There was subsequent statistical support, particularly strong for SI 1 (i.e., limit mission drift) and SI 3 (i.e., build a core strategy). Successful NSEs strategically combine commercial and social missions at their core (Ebrahim et al., 2014; Litrico & Besharov, 2019; Park & Bae, 2020) to ensure a balanced strategy and prevent mission drift or shifting focus away from the social mission to economic objectives (Santos et al., 2015; White et al., 2022). As was the case with program-type differences, private university faculty may be more aware of or have more experience with specific NSE operations, including the tendency to drift away from the social mission and the importance of building a core strategy to prevent this from happening.

Creative Sustainability Ancillary Findings

Similarly, neither public nor private institutions reported incorporating the creative sustainability (CS) leadership competency extensively in their curricula, although private university programs again incorporated CS more consistently than public university programs, a finding for which there was subsequent statistical support, robust for SI 8 (i.e., ensure short- and long-term success), SI 9 (i.e., create innovative solutions), SI 10 (i.e., evaluate the feasibility of solutions), SI 12 (i.e., develop new business models), SI 13 (i.e., develop high-risk projects), and SI 14 (i.e., legitimize NSE models). Private universities may employ faculty with business experience better suited to covering the CS competency because of their affinity with social entrepreneurial concepts.

Financial factors may help to explain the institution-type creative-sustainability result, particularly with how private institutions seek funding, from whom they seek funding, and how they construct their foundations. One may expect decisions about curriculum design to reflect donors' choices and social and business values and needs. Private universities may be more vulnerable to this influence as they rely more on private funding than public universities.

Inspirational Change Ancillary Findings

Finally, results indicated that neither public nor private institutions covered the inspirational change (IC) leadership competency extensively in their curricula, although private university programs included IC principles more than public university programs, a finding for which there was subsequent statistical support, particularly strong for SI 20 (i.e., develop alliances). Successful NSEs inspire and mobilize stakeholders (Battilana, Pache, et al., 2012; Ebrahim et al., 2014; Park & Bae, 2020; Tracey, 2016) to ensure a balanced strategy and prevent mission drift or shifting focus away from the social mission to economic objectives (Santos et al., 2015; White et al., 2022). It is unclear why private university programs included this IC concept more than public university programs. Like the CS competency, private universities may employ faculty with sales and business experience better suited to covering the IC competency because of their affinity with mobilizing and influencing others.

A closing word on the context of NSE leadership is warranted. As explored in previous chapters, it is difficult to separate the topic of NSE leadership performance from its unique context (Avolio, 2007; Weaver, 2020). NSEs contain two traditionally different environments: social services and commercial markets (Schröer & Jager, 2015). These organizations develop innovative and sustainable solutions to our most critical social ills through successful business practices. Without considering this context, the primary leadership competencies identified in this study could apply to most management roles consistent with the common understanding of management performance. Considering this context, however, NSE executives face myriad leadership challenges, managing services to solve social problems and directing businesses by influencing market position through customer engagement. Future researchers and practitioners should view the study’s findings through this unique lens.

Conclusions and Research Recommendations

The survey data suggest that neither MPA nor MNM programs address specific nonprofit social enterprise (NSE) leadership competencies adequately in their curricula, focusing primarily on broad nonprofit concepts. Some of the faculty ratings and comments (see Appendix C) suggested they have struggled to cover the wide range of required knowledge and resources and seem stretched too thin to cover specific NSE competencies fully. Having too much to cover in their courses could explain the relative sparseness of NSE leadership competency inclusion. It could be that faculty and administrators do not value the concepts embedded in nonprofit social enterprises. It may be time for the NSE sector to better champion their cause within higher education, demonstrating to faculty and administrators how their programs could incorporate these leadership competencies while expanding students' opportunities to contribute to NSEs' needs. When attempting to explain this limited curricular coverage, however, it is essential to bear in mind that social enterprises, most particularly NSEs, are a new organization type, having grown substantially over only the last two decades (Abramson & Billings, 2019; Dean, 2014; Haigh et al., 2015), and NSE research has increased considerably only in the past decade (Battilana, 2018; Billis, 2020). MPA and MNM curricula may not have caught up with this new kind of organization's prevailing concepts and research needs. Still, faculty have not incorporated these contemporary leadership concepts. Further study may be warranted to investigate these impediments to developing new NSE leaders.

MPA and public university programs had substantially lower ratings than MNM programs on several SIs, pointing to improvement opportunities. For these programs and universities, teaching the BI competency, including building a core strategy and limiting mission drift in a dual mission environment, is the best opportunity for them to broaden their curricula and appeal, producing more qualified NSE executive candidates. Teaching CS competency, including planning for success, creating and evaluating innovative solutions, and developing and legitimizing new business models, are also great opportunities for them. Finally, teaching the IC competency, specifically how to motivate employees and develop alliances, is the best opportunity for MPA programs and public universities to broaden curricula.

Several areas for further investigation were identified from the primary and ancillary findings. These opportunities to broaden the research in the field are discussed below.

- Four SIs – negotiate strategies (SI 6), develop high-risk projects (SI 13), recruit employees (SI 17), and create a safe environment (SI 18) – reflected the lowest program-type means. Qualitative studies focusing more on the relative omission of these particular leadership items can assist researchers in understanding why MPA and MNM programs do not incorporate them more extensively.
- Six SIs – limit mission drift (SI 1), ensure short- and long-term success (SI 8), create innovative solutions (SI 9), develop new business models (SI 12), legitimize NSE models (SI 14), and motivate employees (SI 19) – reflected that MNM programs included them more broadly than MPA programs. Further investigation may be warranted to investigate how MNM faculty incorporate these SIs and what stakeholders could do to introduce them into MPA curricula.
- The survey revealed critical faculty and administrator comments on how MPA programs must cover a broader and more varied curriculum than MNM programs, leaving less time to cover general nonprofit and specific NSE concepts. Since the survey did not attempt to determine perceptions of the value of NSE principles among participants, focusing instead simply on their inclusion in MNM and MPA curricula, further study could incorporate an examination of the extent to which MPA programs find NSE concepts valuable additions to the MPA curriculum. Perhaps not solely the lack of time impedes the inclusion of NSE thinking in MPA programs.

- The finding that private institutions reported more incorporation of NSE concepts into their MNM or MPA programs than public institutions is worthy of follow-up. As many private universities have affiliations with religious denominations that are 501(c)(3) nonprofit organizations, it is conceivable these relationships result in private institutions' being more knowledgeable of and committed to NSE principles consistent with their religious mission. Additional research could focus on these potential affiliations.
- The independent variable of institution type, public versus private university, may not be a well-defined nominal variable that could benefit from further clarification. There are many variations of public and private universities, from small teaching colleges to large research institutions, from highly selective institutions to less selective ones. Future studies could focus on distinguishing institution types in a more granular fashion.
- There were moderately-strong mean differences and associations for institution type, mainly with the balanced integration (BI) and creative sustainability (CS) competencies. Additional studies could explore factors that influence private universities' greater emphasis on NSE BI and CS training than public universities' programs.
- Another influencing factor in curriculum development is the accreditation process. Such oversight typically leads programs to ensure the standards the nationally recognized accrediting association sets are met to maintain membership. It would be worth investigating whether accrediting bodies in the MPA and MNM arena incorporate NSE principles into their institution's accreditation standards. If the "what gets measured is what gets taught" adage is true, this could help to explain the light presence of NSE principles in current curricula.

- While this study focused exclusively on MPA and MNM programs, the extant research has also examined master of business administration and master of social work program curricula, finding these types of programs do sometimes expose their students to general nonprofit concepts, but not necessarily to NSE concepts (Austin & Rangan, 2019). Future researchers in the NSE field could benefit from learning how these program types incorporate NSE training into their curricula.
- Along the same lines, the literature indicated that it is elite universities, both public and private (e.g., the University of California-Berkeley, Harvard, and Stanford), that have emphasized NSEs, often pioneering the concept and building entire NSE programs (Brock et al., 2008). Future research could perhaps improve understanding of the importance of NSE instruction by providing a closer look at why and how these programs were formed, developed, and implemented.
- The author identified three nonprofit social enterprise leadership competencies from the current research: balanced integration (BI), creative sustainability (CS), and inspirational change (IC). While documented in the existing literature, these competencies were used for the first time in this study to examine the extent to which university preparatory programs exposed students to these concepts. The next logical step would be to validate this NSE leadership profile through a more comprehensive and large-scale study, perhaps via a Delphi study of current NSE leaders and/or academics.
- From a practitioner standpoint, it would also be beneficial to identify the extent to which NSE leadership employment practices are aligned with academic performance standards. A cooperative corporate-university arrangement could improve the field for practitioners and those who prepare them.

- Finally, the data for this study were collected in the summer of 2022 as the COVID-19 global pandemic slowed. Little is known about the effect(s) of the pandemic on the social enterprise sector. One can observe, however, that the pandemic has produced new societal challenges and exacerbated old ones, meaning social enterprise is still necessary (Oberoi et al., 2021). Researchers could examine whether the pandemic has transformed prior or created new NSE leadership competencies and whether postsecondary educational programs are accommodating them.

Concluding Remarks

This research aimed to determine the extent to which MPA and MNM university preparation programs include NSE organizations' central leadership competencies in their curricula to prepare students to lead NSEs. Although the results showed these programs and institutions do not teach these competencies comprehensively, they offered new insights into their differences. The primary finding is that MNM programs and private universities incorporated several NSE leadership competencies into their curricula substantially more than MPA programs and public universities. It is hoped that NSE managers, program faculty members, and scholars will find the outcomes of this study useful when recruiting leaders, making programmatic decisions, and formulating a future research agenda.

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Appendix A: IRB Approval Letter

Office of Research Integrity
Institutional Review Board
One John Marshall Drive
Huntington, WV 25755

June 9, 2022

Bobbi Nicholson, PhD
Leadership Studies, COEPD

RE: IRBNet ID# 1923369-1
At: Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral)

Dear Dr. Nicholson:

Protocol Title: [1923369-1] Training Future Hybrid Social Enterprise Leaders: A Research-Based Instructional Needs Analysis

Site Location:	MU	
Submission Type:	New Project	APPROVED
Review Type:	Exempt Review	

In accordance with 45CFR46.104(d)(2), the above study was granted Exempted approval today by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Designee. No further submission (or closure) is required for an Exempt study **unless** there is an amendment to the study. All amendments must be submitted and approved by the IRB Chair/Designee.

This study is for student Robert Adams.

If you have any questions, please contact the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/ Behavioral) Coordinator Lindsey Taylor at (304) 696-6322 or l.taylor@marshall.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

Sincerely,

Bruce F. Day, ThD, CIP
Director, Office of Research Integrity

Office of Research Integrity
Institutional Review Board
One John Marshall Drive
Huntington, WV 25755

FWA 00002704

IRB1 #00002205
IRB2 #00003206

June 28, 2022

Bobbi Nicholson, PhD
Leadership Studies, COEPD

RE: IRBNet ID# 1923369-2
At: Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral)

Dear Dr. Nicholson:

Protocol Title:	[1923369-2] Training Future Hybrid Social Enterprise Leaders: A Research-Based Instructional Needs Analysis

Site Location:	MU	
Submission Type:	Amendment/Modification	APPROVED
Review Type:	Exempt Review	

The amendment to the above listed study was approved today by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Degree. This amendment is an addition to the targeted research participants.

This study is for student Robert Adams.

If you have any questions, please contact the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/ Behavioral) Coordinator Lindsey Taylor at (304) 696-6322 or l.taylor@marshall.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

Sincerely,

Bruce F. Day, ThD, CIP
Director, Office of Research Integrity

Appendix B: Hybrid Social Enterprise Survey

The title of this dissertation research study is "Training Future Hybrid Nonprofit Social Enterprise Leaders: A Research-Based Instructional Needs Analysis."

You are invited to participate in a research project to determine whether MPA/MNM curricula allow students to acquire essential leadership knowledge and competency to lead nonprofit social enterprises (NSEs). The study is being conducted by Robert Adams, a doctoral student at Marshall University, approved by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board (IRB).

This online survey is comprised of 20 items and will take no more than 10 minutes to complete. Your replies will be anonymous, so do not type your name anywhere on the form.

There are no known risks involved with this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and there will be no penalty or loss of benefits if you choose not to participate in this research study or withdraw. If you decide not to participate, you may leave the survey site. You may also choose not to answer any question by simply leaving it blank.

Your IP address will not be collected, and once you complete the survey, you can delete your browsing history for added security. Your responses will remain anonymous. No one will be able to identify you or your responses, and no one will know whether you participated in the study. Completing the online survey indicates your consent for the answers you supply to be included in the response pool.

If you have any questions about the study, you may contact Dr. Bobbi Nicholson at 304-746-2094 or Robert Adams at 407-920-6435. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Marshall University Office of Research Integrity at (304) 696-4303.

By completing this survey, you confirm that you are **18** years of age or older.

You may print this page for your records. Thank you in advance for your willingness to share your knowledge and experience.

Sincerely,
Robert Adams, EdD Candidate – Co-Investigator
Dr. Bobbi Nicholson, Advisor – Principal Investigator

We are examining the pedagogical content included in preparation programs designed to teach leadership competencies for executives in nonprofit social enterprise (NSE) roles. Please indicate the extent to which your preparation program includes the following content and/or concepts. (1 = to a minimal extent, 4 = to a great extent).	Rating
1. My program teaches how to limit mission drift while trying to balance conflicting social and economic missions.	
2. My program teaches how to reduce tensions created by conflicting goals among the social mission, the commercial mission, and stakeholder expectations.	
3. My program teaches how to build a core strategy that incorporates conflicting dual missions.	
4. My program teaches how to recognize potential mission conflicts among dual mission and stakeholder expectations.	
5. My program teaches how to develop common ground among dual missions and stakeholders.	
6. My program teaches negotiation strategies the are useful for finding solutions to mission conflicts inherent in dual mission NSEs.	
7. My program teaches that the primary positive outcome of an NSE must be targeted toward the social mission, even at the expense of the commercial mission and other stakeholders.	
8. My program teaches methods for both short-term and long-term NSE success.	
9. My program teaches the importance of creating innovative business solutions to social problems.	
10. My program teaches how to evaluate the feasibility of solutions to social problems that are not currently available in the NSE marketplace.	
11. My program teaches how to determine the right performance indicators to measure value-based and economic-based goals.	
12. My program teaches how NSE leaders develop new business models.	
13. My program teaches that high risk social projects should be developed even if there is a significant possibility of failure.	
14. My program teaches how new social entrepreneurship models can be legitimized by finding existing examples where the model proved successful.	
15. My program teaches how to develop collective decision-making approaches with conflicting dual missions.	
16. My program teaches techniques for increasing employee focus on the larger social mission rather than the commercial mission.	

17. My program teaches how to recruit and teach employees who embrace the social mission over the commercial mission.	
18. My program teaches the importance of creating a safe psychological environment for employees who want to discuss dual mission tradeoffs.	
19. My program teaches the best methods of motivating employees to achieve the organization’s value-based and economic-based goals.	
20. My program teaches how NSE's can develop alliances with other dual mission organizations (NGOs, governments, philanthropies, foundations, etc.) by outlining their constraints and resources.	

Demographic Questions	
1. How would you describe your educational institution?	
a. Public university b. Private university c. Online university d. Small independent college e. Liberal arts college f. Technical college 2. Please indicate where your institution is located. 3. What is your role? a. Full-time faculty b. Adjunct or part-time faculty c. Administrator (e.g., department chair, program director, dean) 4. How does your program address nonprofit SE? a. We have a major concentration in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship. b. We have a minor concentration or area of emphasis in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship. c. We are developing a major and/or minor in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship. d. We cover nonprofit hybrid concepts, but not specifically SE or social entrepreneurship in our required courses. e. We do not currently address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship. 5. Which of the following are available in your courses? a. Case studies b. Guest speakers c. Reflective journaling d. Receiving mentoring opportunities e. Service-learning opportunities	

f. Practicum opportunities g. Simulated start-ups h. None of the above 6. Do you teach on the topic of nonprofit SEs? a. Yes b. No 7. Do you research on the topic of nonprofit SEs? a. Yes b. No 8. How long have you taught in the MPA/MNM program at your current institution? a. 0-2 years b. 3-5 years c. 6-10 years d. 11-15 years e. 16-20 years f. More than 20 years	

Appendix C: Curricula Descriptive Information

Question	Frequency	%
How does your program address NSE?		
All (N = 249)		
We have a major concentration in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	28	11
We have a minor concentration or area of emphasis in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	28	11
We are developing a major and/or minor in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	10	4
We cover hybrid nonprofit concepts, but not specifically SE or social entrepreneurship in our required courses.	145	59
We do not currently address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship	1	.4
Other: We are planning to address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship.	37	15
MPA (N = 183)		
We have a major concentration in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	16	9
We have a minor concentration or area of emphasis in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	17	9
We are developing a major and/or minor in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	7	4
We cover hybrid nonprofit concepts, but not specifically SE or social entrepreneurship in our required courses.	113	62
We do not currently address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship	1	.5
Other: We are planning to address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship.	29	16

MNM (N = 43)		
We have a major concentration in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	10	23
We have a minor concentration or area of emphasis in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	8	19
We are developing a major and/or minor in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	0	0
We cover hybrid nonprofit concepts, but not specifically SE or social entrepreneurship in our required courses.	20	47
We do not currently address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship	0	0
Other: We are planning to address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship.	5	12
Other (N = 23)		
We have a major concentration in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	2	9
We have a minor concentration or area of emphasis in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	3	13
We are developing a major and/or minor in nonprofit SE or social entrepreneurship.	3	13
We cover hybrid nonprofit concepts, but not specifically SE or social entrepreneurship in our required courses.	12	52
We do not currently address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship	0	0
Other: We are planning to address nonprofit hybrid SE or social entrepreneurship.	3	13

Sample Comments:

"We cover NSE Concepts in a nonprofit management concentration in the MPA program and in core curriculum courses."
"It (NSE) is covered in our Management and Leadership course but only one chapter dedicated to this area of study."
"We don't specifically address NSEs, but we do account for the 'business' realities of keeping a non-profit alive."

"The concept comes up in our MPA nonprofit concentration. There is simply too much to cover in a nonprofit management concentration to include that much emphasis on social enterprises."
"NSE is taught as part of our courses on nonprofit management."
"We offer a Graduate Certificate in nonprofit management. Some social entrepreneurship concepts are covered in one course that is part of the certificate. The course is an elective in the MPA Program."

Which of the following are available in your courses?

All (N = 249)		
Case studies	198	81
Guest speakers	161	65
Reflective journaling	64	26
Mentoring opportunities	67	27
Service-learning opportunities	109	44
Practicum opportunities	92	37
Simulated start-ups	15	6
None	7	3
Combinations with the highest frequencies		
Case studies only	19	8
Case studies and guest speakers	30	12
Case studies, guest speakers, reflective journaling, mentoring, service learning, and practicums	22	9

MPA(N = 183)		
Case studies	145	81
Guest speakers	111	62
Reflective journaling	48	27
Mentoring opportunities	65	36
Service-learning opportunities	84	46
Practicum opportunities	68	38
Simulated start-ups	9	5
None	18	10
Combinations with the highest frequencies		

Case studies only	15	8
Case studies and guest speakers	17	9
Case studies, guest speakers, reflective journaling, mentoring, service learning, and practicums	18	10
MNM (N = 43)		
Case studies	35	83
Guest speakers	34	79
Reflective journaling	13	30
Mentoring opportunities	12	28
Service-learning opportunities	17	39
Practicum opportunities	18	42
Simulated start-ups	3	7
None	2	5
Combinations with the highest frequencies		
Case studies only	3	7
Case studies, guest speakers, and reflective journaling	3	7
Case studies, guest speakers, and practicums	3	7
Case studies, guest speakers, service learning, and practicums	3	7
Case studies and guest speakers	10	23
Case studies, guest speakers, reflective journaling, mentoring, service learning, and practicums	5	12
Other (N = 23)		
Case studies	18	78
Guest speakers	16	70
Reflective journaling	3	13
Mentoring opportunities	8	35
Service-learning opportunities	10	43
Practicum opportunities	6	26
Simulated start-ups	3	13

None	2	9
Combinations with the highest frequencies		
Case studies, guest speakers, and mentoring	3	13
Case studies and guest speakers	2	9
Case studies, guest speakers, and service learning	2	9
Case studies, guest speakers, mentoring, service learning, and practicums	2	9

Appendix D: Program-Type Levene's Test for BI, CS, and IC Survey Items (SIs)

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		
Item	*F*	*Sig.*
1	.31	.58^
2	.00	.99^
3	.09	.76^
4	.33	.57^
5	.00	.99^
6	.04	.84^
7	.50	.48^
BI	2.62	.10^
8	1.28	.26^
9	.27	.60^
10	.34	.56^
11	1.47	.23^
12	.33	.56^
13	1.60	.20^
14	.50	.48^
CS	1.12	.28^
15	1.82	.18^
16	3.39	.07^
17	.69	.41^
18	.02	.90^
19	.22	.64^
20	6.15	.01†
IC	2.12	.15^

^. Equal variances were assumed. † . Equal variances were not assumed.

Appendix E: Institution-Type Levene's Test for BI, CS, and IC Survey Items (SIs)

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		
Item	*F*	*Sig.*
1	1.89	.17^
2	1.70	.19^
3	.14	.70^
4	1.38	.24^
5	.31	.58^
6	.50	.48^
7	.22	.64^
BI	3.91	.25^
8	6.92	.20^
9	.40	.53^
10	8.89	.00†
11	2.13	.15^
12	1.60	.21^
13	.03	.86^
14	2.74	.10^
CS	2.57	.11^
15	5.41	.12^
16	4.95	.23^
17	.06	.81^
18	.01	.94^
19	.01	.91^
20	10.34	.00†
IC	3.62	.16^

^. Equal variances were assumed. † . Equal variances were not assumed.