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Sport and Social Entrepreneurship: A Review of a Concept in Progress

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Abstract

Social entrepreneurship represents a new organizational form reflecting a time of societal change. The concept of social entrepreneurship has in recent years received an increased academic interest from the field of sport management. This review therefore aims to outline the scope and focus of, as well as theoretically position, the utilization of the concept of social entrepreneurship in the current body of peer-reviewed research within the field of sport and social entrepreneurship. Thirty-three English language peer-reviewed articles were selected and analyzed using Gartner's (1985) variables of entrepreneurship and three schools of thought within social entrepreneurship. The findings show that the scope of research into sport and social entrepreneurship is limited and that sport plays a minor role in the articles. The articles focus on the processes of social entrepreneurship, but the manner in which the concept of social entrepreneurship is utilized differs between articles and is seldom defined. These findings indicate that much can be done to better understand sport and social entrepreneurship. Emerging directions for future research are provided.

Keywords: Social Entrepreneurship, Development Through Sport, Corporate Social Responsibility, Sport Organizations, Management, Social Innovation

Sport and Social Entrepreneurship: A Review of a Concept in Progress

Sport is often seen as an agent of positive social change due to its democratic, educational and integrational nature (e.g., Coalter, 2007; Eime, Young, Harvey, Charity & Payne, 2013; United Nations, 2015). However, research has shown that the role of sport may be overvalued and can even occasionally be called into question (e.g., Coalter, 2007; Shields & Bredemeier, 2001; SOU 2008:59). This indicates that sport in itself is not guaranteed to lead to a positive nurturing effect. Instead, to be an agent of positive social change, the sporting organization must be characterized by an environment with positive social norms in which sporting results are secondary to social and democratic values (Gould & Carson, 2008).

One possibility to realize the potential of sport is through the use of social entrepreneurship; a relatively new concept albeit one that has quickly gained momentum in scientific circles and occurs today within a large number of scientific disciplines (e.g., education, sociology and political science) (Short, Moss & Lumpkin, 2009).

Social entrepreneurship as a contemporary organizational form has come about in a time characterized by societal change, which has seen the erosion of traditional sector boundaries (Dees & Anderson, 2003; Roper & Cheney, 2005). This deconstruction of sector boundaries has taken place against a backdrop of political and economic upheaval characterized by neoliberal thought (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012; Roper & Cheney, 2005). Consequently, organizations within all sectors of society, and particularly those within the non-profit sector, have been encouraged, and in many cases forced, to compete for a diminishing governmental budget while simultaneously minimizing their excessive dependence of government funding. This redefined role of the state provides an explanation as to the emergence of the concept of social entrepreneurship (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012).

The concept of social entrepreneurship is multifaceted and its meaning differs, as

does the meaning of the concept of entrepreneurship in general (Bygrave & Hofer, 1991), between different schools of thought (Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Defourny & Nyssens, 2010; Hoogendoorn, Pennings & Thurik, 2010). There are, however, two points of consensus between the different schools. Firstly, social entrepreneurship refers to innovative methods of creating and satisfying social values. These organizations typically evolve due to major societal challenges, such as mass migration (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012), or from the failure of institutions (e.g., the government or the market economy) to deliver certain social values to the public (Santos, 2012; Trivedi & Stokols, 2010). This social mission is central to social entrepreneurship (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Dees, 1998). Secondly, any economic profit should be reinvested, wholly or in large part, in the social entrepreneurial organization (Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Defourny & Nyssens, 2010). Through the social aims, profit management and innovation of social entrepreneurship, new forms of organization can emerge at the intersections of societal boundaries. Social entrepreneurial organizations therefore represent a challenge to the traditional boundaries between government, the market economy and civil society (Dees & Anderson, 2003).

The fusion of sport and social entrepreneurship may represent a means of achieving sport's potential for the creation of democratic and social values. This fusion has also gained increased academic interest, which can be seen in various "calls for papers" (e.g., *Journal of Sport Management*, 2015; *Sport Management Review*, 2012) and at conferences (e.g., European Association for Sport Management, 2016). Given this increased academic interest there is a corresponding need for a literature review to both pave the way for additional research (Webster & Watson, 2002, p. xiii), and to act as a starting point for those interested in the fusion of sport and social entrepreneurship. The aim of this review is therefore threefold; to outline the scope and focus of the concept of social entrepreneurship within the current body of peer-reviewed research in the field of sport and social entrepreneurship; to

theoretically position the utilization of the concept of social entrepreneurship within said field; and to set an agenda for future research. Through analyzing the literature, the current paper provides a mapping, as well as theoretical positioning, of studies carried out within the emerging research field of sport and social entrepreneurship.

Theoretical Framework

This review draws inspiration from the format of Hoogendoorn et al. (2010) and Bacq and Janssen's (2011) respective articles. In order to outline and theoretically position the current body of research, this review has two theoretical grounds: 1) the variables of social entrepreneurship (Gartner, 1985), and 2) the multifaceted discussion concerning the field of social entrepreneurship which, within the context of this literature review, will be constrained by the various schools of thought within social entrepreneurship (Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Hoogendoorn et al., 2010). The theoretical framework is presented in its entirety at the end of this section, see *Table 1*.

The Variables of Social Entrepreneurship

Gartner (1985) defines entrepreneurship as comprising four variables: the individual (who is the entrepreneur and how is the entrepreneur regarded?), the organization (how is it structured?), the process (how does entrepreneurship occur?) and finally the environment (how do the other variables relate to their context?). These variables can together, according to Gartner (1985), be seen as "an instrument through which to view the enormously varying patterns of new venture creation" (p. 701).

Although Gartner's theory has its roots in commercial entrepreneurship it is also applicable to the social variant (Bacq & Janssen, 2011). It is the main purpose of the entrepreneurship in question that separates social entrepreneurship from its commercial counterpart – social entrepreneurship strives to create social value, whereas commercial entrepreneurship aims to create financial value (Austin et al., 2006). In both cases the

variables are identical although the content differs. Gartner's (1985) variables correspond closely to the four components Light (2008) found in his study of the concept of social entrepreneurship, either explicitly (entrepreneur and organization) or implicitly (ideas and opportunities). The sole difference between the two is the environment variable, which encompasses all entrepreneurial undertakings (cf. Austin et al., 2006). This variable is among Gartner's (1985) variables, but is absent in Light's (2008) components.

By applying Gartner's (1985) variables as a sorting tool one can illustrate the variables on which research in sport and social entrepreneurship has focused thus far, while simultaneously identifying neglected aspects of research. The variables may also be discussed in relation to three schools of thought that have arisen from earlier research and reviews in social entrepreneurship. These schools form the second theoretical ground for this review.

Schools of Thought in Social Entrepreneurship

The three schools of thought stem from two geographical traditions (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010), namely the Anglo-sphere (comprising the USA and UK) and continental Europe (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012). However, there is no "clear-cut transatlantic divide in the way of approaching and defining social entrepreneurship" (Bacq & Janssen, 2011, p. 387).

The first two schools of thought, *the Social Innovation* and *the Social Enterprise*, were identified by Dees and Anderson (2006). These schools originated in the 1980s (Dees & Anderson, 2006), although it was not until the end of the 90s that the concept of social entrepreneurship gained momentum in academic circles, both in the US and UK (Bacq & Janssen, 2011). Both schools held the social mission as a central tenet, differing however in terms of the method used to achieve this mission. The two schools were later expanded upon, and to some extent reworked, by Defourny and Nyssens (2010), Hoogendoorn et al. (2010) and Bacq and Janssen (2011). This reworking involved the inclusion of another school, "The

Emergence of Social Enterprises in Europe” (*EMES*), which came about in 1996 as an EU-financed European research network (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010).

In the Social Innovation School of thought the individual is seen as central and is regarded as a visionary who, through the use of innovative solutions and resources, works to create social value or solve social problems in her vicinity (Dees & Anderson, 2006).

Although social goals are considered important, in this school of thought the entrepreneur can form either a for-profit or non-profit organization to implement an economic base upon which the enterprise can function (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Bacq & Janssen, 2011). The organization should show a clear commitment to its social goals (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Defourny & Nyssens, 2010; Bacq & Janssen, 2011). In the case of a profit-making venture, profits should be reinvested in the organization; however, this is not a necessity as long as social value is created (Bacq & Janssen, 2011). Defourny and Nyssens (2010) describe this school of thought as “a question of outcomes and social impact rather than a question of incomes” (p. 42).

According to the Social Enterprise School the main initiative behind social entrepreneurship is taken by governmental or non-profit organizations; accordingly, the individual entrepreneur has a secondary role in this school, organizing and carrying out activities intended to fulfill the organization’s social mission (Bacq & Janssen, 2011). The social goals of the organization are prioritized and the organization is driven with the aid of business-like strategies which ensure independence from donations etc. (Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Defourny & Nyssens, 2010). According to Defourny and Nyssens (2010), some researchers go even further in claiming that the income-generating activities of these organizations should entirely fund the organization. However, the not-for-profit nature of the organization also precludes the payment of dividends (Bacq & Janssen, 2011).

In contrast to the Social Enterprise School, social entrepreneurship within EMES is stimulated by collective, autonomous and democratic actions, for example through cooperative enterprises (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010; Hoogendoorn et al., 2010). The organization is of importance here, although this does not rule out the presence of a charismatic leader figure (Bacq & Janssen, 2011). The enterprise can be for-profit or not-for-profit; nevertheless, its goal is not to maximize profit but instead to promote social development (Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Defourny & Nyssens, 2010). The enterprise can be financed both through the organization's own activities and through economic donations (Bacq & Janssen, 2011). EMES is distinguished from the latter schools of thought by its focus on organizational structure and collective action (Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012).

It may be noted that none of the schools of thought presented concern themselves with the issue of environment (i.e., the context of entrepreneurship). Environment in this context does not refer to the individual characteristics of the schools of thought; instead, it refers to institutional considerations at national, regional and local levels, for example legislation, which to varying extents form the conditions for social entrepreneurship (Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Hoogendoorn et al., 2010).

Insert Table 1 here

Social Entrepreneurship in Relation to CSR and Philanthropy

Social entrepreneurship is often associated or interwoven with two similar concepts: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and philanthropy (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012). CSR, in brief, means that a company takes responsibility for its impact on society by integrating social, environmental and ethical concerns into their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders and society in general (European Commission, 2011). Many corporations have in recent years implemented CSR within their organizations (Trivedi

& Stokols, 2011), and a number of authors argue that CSR can be seen as a part of the broader spectrum of social entrepreneurship (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010). However, although both social entrepreneurship and CSR aim to create a better world there is an important difference between them. The primary goal of social entrepreneurship is to create social value while any profits are either partly or wholly reinvested in the enterprise. CSR projects within corporations, on the other hand, are of secondary importance to the corporation, the main priority being to generate profit. Social entrepreneurship therefore differs from CSR in terms of the enterprise's primary goals and handling of profits (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012; Trivedi & Stokols, 2011). Additionally, CSR, unlike social entrepreneurship, is not necessarily innovative or entrepreneurial (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012). Research has also shown that corporations, in light of their profit-maximizing goals, tend to use CSR as a tool to bolster both commercial relationships (e.g., with stakeholders) and their brand (Rahman, 2014).

Social entrepreneurship and philanthropy are differentiated by the fact that philanthropists are not in themselves innovative; their role is solely to support social entrepreneurship, often in financial terms (Bjerke & Karlsson, 2013). The economic ties between philanthropists and social entrepreneurs are nonetheless significant. For certain social entrepreneurs the ability to attract donations is crucial for the survival of the organization (Austin et al., 2006; Bacq, Hartog & Hoogendoorn, 2013), while for others donations represent one of many possibilities to finance their enterprise (Dees, 2007).

Method

Several databases were used to find relevant scientific articles. This was due to the fact that other reviews showed the concept to be interdisciplinary (Short et al., 2009). Webster and Watson (2002) also state the importance of covering all relevant literature on the reviewed concept rather than a single set of journals or research methodology. Hence, those

databases systematically searched were: ABI/INFORM Global, EBSCO, Science Direct, Cambridge Journal, Oxford Journals, Emerald, Sage Journals, Scopus, Web of Science, JSTOR, Project Muse, Taylor and Francis and lastly Wiley. The databases were chosen to target scientific disciplines in which articles concerning sport and social entrepreneurship were most likely to be found.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The first selection criterion was that articles included in this review were original research featured in peer-reviewed periodicals published before June 2015. A second criterion in common with many other reviews (e.g., Filo, Lock & Karg, 2015), was that only articles published in English were included.

Articles were identified using search strings consisting of relevant terms combined with Boolean logical expressions. This approach is concept-centric (see Webster & Watson, 2002). Therefore, the search strings used to query the databases stemmed partly from the schools of thought previously presented and partly from earlier reviews into social entrepreneurship (Short et al., 2009). The search strings used in this study were:

- "social entrepreneurship" AND sport,
- "social entrepreneur" AND sport,
- "social enterprise" AND sport,
- "social innovation" AND sport,
- "social venture" AND sport

It should be noted that the use of search strings yields results in the form of articles explicitly containing at least one of the utilized strings. Hence, there is a risk that this review analyzes the discourse community of sport and social entrepreneurship rather than the behavior. In other words, articles which in fact deal with social entrepreneurship might not be included if the articles in question use alternative terms with regard to the organization's activities.

Nevertheless, the aim of this review was to outline the scope and focus as well as analyze the manner in which the concept has been utilized in a sporting context, and not explore possible sporting activities which might be classified as social entrepreneurship.

Selection Procedure

A prerequisite for inclusion in this review was that the article included at least one of the search strings listed above, see *Table 2* for an overview of the selection procedure. An initial 2 539 articles (including duplicates) matched these criteria. A large proportion of these were deemed irrelevant and therefore excluded. Among the causes for exclusion were lack of a specific association between sport and social entrepreneurship; the constituents of the Boolean searches being divided between the main content of the article and the reference list or author biographies; and the word “sport” being found as a substring of a longer string (e.g., transport or passport). In addition, the search results also presented a number of duplicate articles due to the many databases and search strings used.

Sixty articles remained after this filtering procedure. These were then subjected to further screening for two reasons; firstly, via Ulrichsweb, to ensure that they were published in peer-reviewed periodicals; secondly to ensure that they were reviewed original research papers. The fifty-three articles left following this procedure were then scrutinized. A further twenty articles were subsequently excluded on grounds of lack of focus on the combination of sport and social entrepreneurship. Examples of excluded articles include Nolas’ (2009) methodological study and Kissoudi’s (2008) historical review of the relationship between sport and politics. This selection procedure led to this review’s article base consisting of thirty-three articles on sport and social entrepreneurship, see the *Appendix*.

Insert table 2 here

Method of Analysis

The articles were organized and analyzed in three separate stages. The first stage

involved detailing the development of the sum of aggregated knowledge (how the total number of articles on sport and social entrepreneurship has changed over time and in which periodicals these articles were published) and the scientific methods used (i.e., theoretical, qualitative or quantitative). This stage fulfilled the first research objective of this review.

The second stage was to construct a review using both Gartner's (1985) variables and the previously presented schools of thought. The purpose of this stage was to examine which variables of entrepreneurship earlier research had focused on and to which schools of thought the articles could be said to pertain (cf. Webster & Watson, 2002). At this stage the articles underwent deductive analysis using the theoretical framework as a classification scheme, see *Table 1*. Each article was read several times to facilitate categorization. In the event that an article could not be categorized into one of the three schools of thought it was placed in a fourth category, here referred to as the remainder category (cf. Hoogendoorn et al., 2010). Two common reasons why articles were placed in the remainder category were that they were too diffuse in their use of the concept social entrepreneurship¹ or that they were not identifiable as belonging to a specific school of thought². Some of the articles also focused on several of the variables of entrepreneurship and could therefore have been categorized in more than one cell of the matrix shown above. In these cases, the primary focus of the articles was used as a basis for categorization – as a rule this could be discerned from the articles' abstracts.

It is reasonable to assume that an article's focus is determined by the scientific field to which it belongs – for instance, an article published within the field of economics and business administration may deviate wholly in terms of focus and theoretical framework from an article within the field of sports science. However, only two criteria were taken into account in the selection process; firstly, the scientific field into which the article could be categorized, in this case determined by its periodical, and secondly, that the article indeed

dealt with sport and social entrepreneurship. As a result of this process, some article descriptions may have been condensed to include only those sections concerned with sport and social entrepreneurship. Hence, some descriptions of the articles included in this review might be perceived as abstract.

The objective of the third and last stage was to examine how the concept of social entrepreneurship has, from the point of view of the hitherto presented schools of thought, been utilized in relation to sport, regardless of to which scientific disciplines the articles belong.

In an effort to promote transparency through positionality and context, it is worth noting that the author of this review is a member of a Swedish research group studying the fusion of sport and social entrepreneurship. The analysis featured in this review was carried out in a deductive manner in accordance with the theoretical framework described hereafter.

Findings

The findings presented here consist of two sub-sections. The first deals with the scope and focus of research, while the second details and theoretically positions the utilization of the concept of social entrepreneurship in a sporting context.

The Current Scope and Focus of Research

Research into sport and social entrepreneurship is, as shown in *Figure 1*, relatively limited. The first article to approach the topic was published as late as 2004, and slightly over a third of the articles in this review were published during the period 2014 – June 2015. This demonstrates a growing interest in the combination of sport and social entrepreneurship, a trend which is analogous to that shown in Short et al.'s (2009) review on the growing interest in, and use of, the concept of social entrepreneurship in research in general. This suggests that social entrepreneurship is indeed a contemporary concept and an empirical example of a marked shift towards new organizational forms which blur sector lines.

Insert Figure 1 here

The articles demonstrate both similarities and differences to earlier comparable reviews in the field of social entrepreneurship. The first similarity is that the articles were published in periodicals belonging to several scientific disciplines, see the *Appendix* (cf. Short et al., 2009). The majority of the periodicals belong to one of the scientific disciplines in the fields of economics and business administration, although even sports science, political science, medical science, gender studies and development studies are represented. Of these articles only seven were published in periodicals in sport-related disciplines (sport management, sports sociology and sport policy). The second similarity is that the overwhelming majority of the empirically based articles are of a qualitative nature (25 articles) (cf. Hoogendoorn et al., 2010). Conversely, the articles also demonstrate two major differences compared to earlier reviews on social entrepreneurship. Firstly, the majority of the articles are empirical (28 articles) rather than conceptual (5 articles) (cf. Hoogendoorn et al., 2010; Short et al., 2009). Secondly, the articles pertaining to the field of sport and social entrepreneurship cannot be said to belong to a specific school of thought. The majority were placed in the remainder category, usually on the grounds of an all too diffuse treatment of the concept of social entrepreneurship, see *Table 3* (cf. Hoogendoorn et al., 2010).

Insert Table 3 here

Many of the articles focus on the entrepreneurial process (19 articles). Furthermore, few articles (only 13 in total) can be associated with a discernable school of thought (4 articles belong to the Social Innovation School, 6 to the Social Enterprise School and 3 to EMES), see *Table 3*. This indicates that the use of the concept of social entrepreneurship within sport differs from the established use in the dominant schools of thought in research into social entrepreneurship.

A further result is that the role of sport in the articles is often confined to only one of many documented cases of social entrepreneurship. Consequentially, although sport is featured in the articles, they lack a clear sporting focus. One example of an article in which sport has a secondary role is Chew's (2010) research into the new organizational form "community interest company", which investigates how this organizational form can be used as a means for volunteer and charitable organizations to initiate formalized social enterprise activities. Another example is Gibbon and Affleck's (2008) organizational study which shows that there are, within social enterprises, barriers and resistance towards social accounting (i.e., the documentation and articulation by the enterprise of its social impact on the community). Gibbon and Affleck (2008) also postulate how this resistance might be overcome and exemplify this through an organization with swimming as its core activity.

Furthermore, the same empirical data or case often forms the basis for several articles. Examples of this are Gawell's (2013a, 2013b, 2014) case studies of Fryshuset in Stockholm and a number of articles relating to the football club FC United in Manchester (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2015; Kiernan & Porter, 2014). Similarly, Ratten's (2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c) theoretical articles, despite certain differences concerning the primary focus of the articles, feature almost identical theoretical arguments. Ratten's articles attempt partly to develop a theory of sport-based entrepreneurship which includes social entrepreneurship (2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c), partly to clarify the importance of a social entrepreneurial emphasis in sport (2011a, 2011b). Consequentially the amount of research carried out within the field of sport and social entrepreneurship is in practice less than it would first appear based on the number of published articles.

The Utilization of the Concept of Social Entrepreneurship in Sport

This section initially gives an overview of the first recognized definition of the concept of social entrepreneurship in sport. A discussion then follows, based on the

theoretical framework, of the utilization of social entrepreneurship in the articles selected for inclusion in this review. These sections are organized according to Gartner's (1985) variables.

The development of sport-based entrepreneurship. Ratten's research (2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c) can be considered pioneering in the field of sport and social entrepreneurship. She was the first and, in the context of the articles included in this review, only person to define social entrepreneurship in sport. Her articles offer some different definitions of the phenomenon. In the article *Developing a theory of sport-based entrepreneurship*, featured in the periodical *Journal of Management & Organization*, social entrepreneurship in sport is defined as "the use of social issues to create change in the sports context. Social entrepreneurship uses sport as a way to encourage solutions to social issues" (Ratten, 2010, p. 561). This definition is process orientated in that it focuses on the use of sport to reach the goals of social entrepreneurship (i.e., finding solutions to social problems), rather than on other variables of entrepreneurship. In a later article the following definition is used: "Social entrepreneurship is defined in the sport context as an organization pursuing a social goal as well as achieving financial benefits" (Ratten, 2011a, p. 320). The latter definition differs from the former in that more variables are considered. The organization, now central according to the latter definition, attempts to achieve social goals while simultaneously achieving some form of financial benefit. These articles tend not to rely on a single school of thought; instead another form of entrepreneurship, called sport-based entrepreneurship (Ratten, 2010, 2011a, 2011c), is constructed. However, an exception to this is the article *Social entrepreneurship and innovation in sports* (2011b), which could be said to belong to the Social Innovation School. This article deals partly with the entrepreneur and the importance of risk-taking, partly with the fact that entrepreneurship can occur in any sector and be financed in any manner (cf. Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Dees & Anderson, 2006).

The individual: the social entrepreneur. Few articles focus on the entrepreneur in particular, be it as an individual or in the context of a company. Cohen and Welty Peachey's (2015) article, as well as that of Gilmore et al. (2011), can be categorized as belonging to the Social Innovation School. Both deal with the entrepreneur as an individual; however, the two articles have a separate focus. Cohen and Welty Peachey's (2015) narrative article describes the case of a female social entrepreneur who enacted positive social change for troubled women through football. An important part of the article is the woman's background; from having been a successful sportswoman she then became an addict living on the street to finally transform her life in her role as a social entrepreneur. In the article, which among other topics deals with the woman's background, experiences, possibilities, social network and personal characteristics (e.g., leadership), the authors conclude that a person's background and personal experiences, such as traumatic experiences, are of considerable importance in the formation of social entrepreneurship.

Gilmore et al.'s (2011) article, on the other hand, deals with what social entrepreneurs can achieve for sports clubs (see also Gallagher et al., 2012). Social entrepreneurs can use their experience, knowledge and social networks in order to mobilize resources, developing innovative solutions to various social problems. Specifically, according to the authors the social entrepreneur can aid clubs by contributing communicative strategies and utilizing their social networks for marketing, sales and lobbying purposes (Gilmore et al., 2011). However, this characterization of social entrepreneurs, as marketing resources of which a sports club may take advantage, presents a picture which differs from earlier research into social entrepreneurship. In the context of this article a social entrepreneur is seen as a person who assists the sport club rather than a person who independently works towards social goals. Consequentially, the role of an entrepreneur in the article is more akin to the work performed by a consultant. The article by Gilmore et al. (2011), then, serves as an example of

conceptual disarray arising from the use of the concept of social entrepreneurship.

Another article that focuses on the individual is Griffiths and Armour's (2014) review which investigates the role of volunteer sports coaches. The authors equate community-based sport with an extensive social enterprise which is run by volunteer coaches (p. 307). Coaches are often assumed to have a degree of influence on the social development of athletes and players; the results of their study, however, show that there is little evidence to support this assumption. Griffiths and Armour are not necessarily of the opinion that all community-based sport clubs are social enterprises in a social entrepreneurial sense. Indeed, any such comparisons might be problematic. Sports clubs and their coaches may not prioritize social value over sporting results. Instead, striving for sporting results promotes selection processes which result in some participants being chosen, while others are omitted (SOU 2008:59).

The Social Enterprise School of thought is represented by Thompson and Doherty's (2006) study in which the authors present eleven examples of social enterprises. One of the companies featured in the study, Genesis, runs a family entertainment center containing a sports hall, among other facilities. Genesis aims to develop and upkeep the community through a number of positive activities, sport being among them. Thompson and Doherty (2006) focus on the company's history and its path towards economic sustainability. The study is therefore comparable to that of Cohen and Welty Peachey (2015) in the sense that it concerns itself with the characteristics, development and growth of a person or company.

In summary, the few articles which focus on the entrepreneur can be seen as belonging to different schools of thought. They use sport as both a goal (Gilmore et al., 2013; Griffiths & Armour, 2014) and a means, as illustrated by Cohen and Welty Peachey's (2015) depiction of football as a means to help troubled women.

The organization. The articles focusing on the organizational variable of social entrepreneurship discuss various organizational possibilities and possible strategic changes

which might help the organization become more successful. Chew (2010), on the one hand, focuses on the decision by charities to found subsidiaries in the form of social enterprises in order to complement their existing organization. In these cases, the subsidiary can contribute with commercial activities, such as a café, thus benefitting the charity both financially and in terms of an increased skillset. The rationale behind the formation of a subsidiary in the form of a social enterprise may differ from case to case; possible reasons are: social (in order to concentrate on the charity's core values without involvement from the public or private sectors), economic (income diversification), legal (tax planning) and strategic (to strengthen the position of the charity). This is exemplified in the article by a charity active within culture and sport; the charity formed a subsidiary, in the form of a social enterprise, in the commercial sector in order to generate income. This structural change can, according to Chew's (2010) theory, be seen as a hybrid of a traditional charity (Bjerke & Karlsson, 2013) and a social enterprise (Bacq & Janssen, 2011).

Walters and Chadwick's (2009) study, on the other hand, describes how football clubs might benefit from changes in their model of governance. This change involves the football clubs forming football community trusts (FCTs) in addition to their existing organizations. In this study, community trusts are seen as being related to CSR and corporate citizenship, although they are in fact independent organizations which utilize the club's name in their work with, for example, social inclusion, health and education in the community. There are several notable strategic benefits associated with the creation of independent community trusts with links to a football club; the club's reputation is improved, its link with the community is strengthened, its brand becomes more recognizable and the talent scouting process is improved.

In summary, those articles in this review which concentrate on the organization variable focus primarily on how organizations can strengthen their position through structural

changes (i.e., the formation of subsidiaries, community trusts and use of social accounting).

The fact that the concept of social entrepreneurship is used strategically both within the articles and by the organizations themselves draws parallels to CSR activities in the sense that the enterprise has matters other than social as their primary focus (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012; Rahman, 2014). Generally speaking, sport is not the primary focus of these articles, although sport does feature in Walters and Chadwick's (2009) study as a means to strengthen both the community and the sports club.

The process. Two parts of the processes of entrepreneurship are particularly apparent in the articles. The first part deals with the enterprise's goals and activities and the second concerns how the enterprise finances its activities.

The enterprise's goals and activities. In keeping with earlier research, the goal of social entrepreneurship is to help marginalized and vulnerable members of society (Austin et al., 2006; Dees, 1998), and sport is seen as a suitable means for the facilitation of social integration and the development of social capital (United Nations, 2015). Many articles focus on the work of enterprises in building social networks and social capital in order to bring about increased societal inclusion and remedy various social maladies. Webber et al. (2015) feature a successful organization which helps young people in psychosis to develop their social networks through sport. The fact that sport can lead to an improvement in mental health is also shown by Pringle and Sayer's (2004) study which focuses on a social entrepreneurial project aiming to promote young men's mental health through football, though not necessarily through sporting participation. The study shows that organizational integration with a football club at their stadium, in association with the use of football metaphors in place of clinical terms (e.g., "nurse" becomes "manager" and "client" becomes "player") can lead to certain demographics, in this case young men, taking advantage of services they otherwise would have declined. Preliminary results were positive.

Sherry and Strybosch (2012) carried out a separate study which analyzes the influence of a social entrepreneurial organization on the development of its members' social capital. Through interviews with homeless and disadvantaged members of Australia's Community Street Soccer Program they examine how the program improves its members' social capital. The advantages of using sport to achieve improved social capital (see also Ratten, 2011b), apart from social interaction, include increased confidence, motivation and self-identity.

Other studies with similar themes to those mentioned are Gawell's (2013a) study of how an organization can use sport to reach out to disaffected youths, and those of Kiernan and Porter (2014) and Kennedy and Kennedy (2015), both featuring the sports club FC United. FC United can be considered a reaction to commercialization within football (Kiernan & Porter, 2014) and was founded as a response to Malcolm Glazer's purchase of Manchester United FC (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2015). The club prioritizes inclusivity, a characteristic reiterated by its cooperative corporate structure. It aims to engage young people and stimulate local participation in football, be it as players or coaches, while minimizing costs. The club and its stadium, which was partly built with the help of a community share sale (Kiernan & Porter, 2014), are available for use by the community and disadvantaged groups (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2015; Kiernan & Porter, 2014). It is worth noting that the two articles dealing with FC United discuss social entrepreneurship in terms deriving from EMES and its focus on cooperatives (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010). Hassanien and Dale (2012) also describe a social entrepreneurial enterprise which aids and provides activities for disadvantaged sections of the community. In this case, the enterprise aims to make sport accessible and affordable to all, making use of business-like strategies in order to pursue its goals, although not at "the expense of the wider social role" (p. 86).

Another point of departure is that sporting events, such as the Special Olympics, might fall under the umbrella of social entrepreneurship as these can also catalyze societal

change (Smith, Cahn & Ford, 2009). The concept is described from the standpoint of the Social Enterprise School, given that the generation of income comes from business-like strategies (Bacq & Janssen, 2011), only to later provide details of the donations and other financial contributions which the Special Olympics receives. The specific details of the Special Olympics' generation of profits through business-like methods are left undeveloped in the article.

Even though many of the articles in the field of sport and social entrepreneurship deal with the strengthening of the individual's social capital and networks, there are also other examples of how sport can be used to reach and help marginalized members of society. An example is the study by Sanders et al. (2014) of a football club which had founded a financially independent charity, the aim of which was to contribute to societal development through education. The charity was itself situated in the football club's stadium, as in Walters and Chadwick (2009), and was first and foremost directed at hard-to-reach groups in society. Two results were particularly pertinent in this case. Firstly, the charity's efforts in the sphere of education proved successful, with a large number of hard-to-reach learners continuing on to further educational programs. Secondly, the stadium itself, as a result of its areas designated for study and other facilities, became an important community resource. Another example is Hayhurst's (2014) article which deals with an NGO program which uses sport as a means to promote gender equality in Uganda. The organization uses martial arts in its program to strengthen girls' status in society, educational level and competence in questions of domestic violence, conflict management and leadership skills. In the course of the article, martial arts are also attributed a major role in the facilitation of female economic empowerment on account of physical training and the personal characteristics that are instilled through martial arts (e.g., responsibility, dependability and industriousness).

Enterprise financing. Access to economic resources is a necessity to ensure the

continuity of enterprises and their activities. Two articles feature examples of how social entrepreneurial organizations in the field of sport finance their operations using strategies commonly seen in business world. Hayhurst (2014) studies a NGO that encourages girls and women to grow and sell nuts, partly with aim to finances the organization's martial art training for girls. The second example is of an organization that uses sport to reach out to disaffected youths. Westlund and Gawell (2012) study how the organization finances approximately 90 percent of its activities through its ability to build social capital with actors within the public, private and civil sectors, for example by running a school, providing a number of services and managing various projects. The remaining financing comes from donations and external funding.

Social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurs are, in certain articles, instruments for the financial survival of sports clubs. Gallagher et al. (2012) suggest that clubs should make use of social entrepreneurship and in particular social entrepreneurs and their business skills, experience and contact networks; these social entrepreneurs then increase the flow of money into the clubs (see also Gilmore et al., 2011). The exact definition of social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurs is not apparent. However, the use of social entrepreneurs as a tool to obtain the resources necessary for economic survival contradicts theories of social entrepreneurship. In such cases the individual aiding the sport clubs should be seen as a consultant rather than a social entrepreneur, and the role of the consultant can at best be compared with that of a philanthropist (Bjerke & Karlsson, 2013). Either way, Gallagher et al.'s (2012) use of the concept of social entrepreneurship is not clearly defined.

Another area of focus are the different tactics which McNamara et al. (2015) propose to be of importance when social ventures mobilize external resources and generate income. The proposed tactical categories are: appeal, persuasion, guidance, negotiation, leverage and cooption. The authors show how, through the use of these tactics, one social venture was able

to not only organize and conduct the Special Olympics World Summer Games 2003, but also to change attitudes towards people with learning and intellectual disabilities.

Wicker et al. (2013) provide another solution to the many financial challenges that sport clubs face. This solution is for the club, in the spirit of social entrepreneurship and in accordance with the Social Enterprise School, to increase their commercial revenues, although this is not without its consequences. The clubs' incomes tend to stem from a small number of revenue streams which can result in volatile revenues and economic vulnerability. Coates et al. (2014), comprising to a large degree the same authors as the study by Wicker et al. (2013), present some additional findings, which suggest that sporting organizations with a strong service orientation, through which they obtain revenue, have less financial concerns than sports clubs primarily focused on the wellbeing of their own members. In these articles, the authors draw parallels between sports clubs which focus on increasing their commercial revenues and the spirit of social entrepreneurship.

To summarize, sport is, in the articles focusing on the processes, used to promote inclusion and/or help people on the margins of society (Gawell, 2013a; Hassanien & Dale, 2012; Hayhurst, 2014; Kennedy & Kennedy, 2015; Kiernan & Porter, 2014) by building up their social network (Webber et al., 2015), social capital (Ratten, 2011b; Sherry & Strybosch, 2012), health (Pringle & Sayers, 2004) and level of education (Sanders et al., 2014). Closer inspection of the goals of the enterprises reveals various interpretations of the term "social" in the concept of social entrepreneurship. In the articles about FC United (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2015; Kiernan & Porter, 2014) and in the article about Special Olympics (Smith et al., 2009) sport is in itself seen as 'social'. Nevertheless, it is not necessarily the case that competitive sport leads to positive social change (Gould & Carson, 2008).

In addition, social entrepreneurial organizations in the field of sport finance their operations through strategies akin to those in the business world (Hayhurst, 2014). Social

entrepreneurship can also be used to ensure the economic survival of sports clubs (Gallagher, 2012; Wicker et al., 2013).

The environment: contextual relations. The last variable of social entrepreneurship is environment, a variable which must always be considered in any social entrepreneurial undertaking (Austin et al., 2006; Gartner, 1985). Three separate contextual relations can be discerned from the articles in this review: (a) the relationship between social entrepreneurship and commercial sector companies; (b) the relationship between social entrepreneurship and institutions (governmental, cultural, legal and political); and (c) the manner in which organizations relate to and are possibly influenced by the evolving discourse of social entrepreneurship.

The fact that certain articles deal with the relationship between companies and social entrepreneurship is hardly surprising given that companies and other financial backers are essential to successful social entrepreneurship (Austin et al., 2006; Bacq et al., 2013). These articles focus not only on how companies, in various ways, support social entrepreneurial organizations (Hayhurst, 2011; Ingstad et al., 2014), but also on the motives these backers have for their financial contributions (Hayhurst, 2011; Miragaia Marques et al., 2015).

Ingstad et al.'s (2014) study has the Social Innovation School as its theoretical base in the sense that it focuses on, and continually refers to, the social entrepreneur as an individual and the fact that their enterprises can adopt any desired legal form (Bacq & Janssen, 2011). The study features two enterprises which use sport to develop the self-confidence, communicative abilities and teamworking skills of participants. The study shows that philanthropic venture capitalists can lend support to social entrepreneurs in a multitude of ways. Forms of support presented in the article, apart from economic support, are: legitimation, outreach, recruiting, mandating, strategizing, mentoring, consulting and operating. Hayhurst (2011) shares a similar conviction, namely that financial backers can

contribute in more ways than simple economic support. Hayhurst's study deals with multinational corporations, which through CSR finances Sport, Gender and Development programs in developing countries. A portion of the corporations' resources are directed towards the organizations within the program; by educating their members and helping the organizations present a more professional profile, the organizations can, in turn, attract more donors. Hayhurst (2011) claims that there are traces of post-colonialism in the actions of the corporations, for example the fact that the corporations use social entrepreneurs in their advertising to legitimize themselves and their products. Another study which reports a similar finding is that of Miragaia Marques et al. (2015), which found that corporations use CSR in order to maximize their own profits, in this case by lending support to sports projects. The advantage for the corporation is not only an improvement of the corporation's reputation and credibility but also an increase in motivation among the corporation's employees. Additionally, the article indicates that corporations employ CSR because it has been normalized. However, and as can be seen in the arguments put forward by both Hayhurst (2011) and Miragaia Marques (2015), CSR-strategies can be used by social entrepreneurial organizations, regardless of the corporations' incentives.

The other relationship which can be discerned from the articles concerned with the context of social entrepreneurship is that between institutions and social entrepreneurship. In Ratten's (2011a) article, in which social entrepreneurship and sport is defined as "an organization pursuing a social goal as well as achieving financial benefits" (p. 320), the importance of institutional bodies is emphasized. Ratten states that: "entrepreneurship occurs in a variety of settings often influenced by social structures" (p. 320). Social entrepreneurship in the sporting sector, according to Ratten (2011a), also takes place within innovative programs, although the examples given in this study are somewhat ambiguous in terms of their relation to social entrepreneurship. One such example is the collaboration between

Ashoka (an organization which works to support social entrepreneurs) and Nike. Another example is one philanthropist's donation to his alma mater to allow the renovation of its sports facilities (Ratten, 2011a). Neither the collaboration between Ashoka and Nike nor the philanthropist's donations contribute towards social goals; instead they support and sponsor social entrepreneurs and their enterprises (Bjerke & Karlsson, 2013). Cooperation and support can certainly be of importance (Austin et al., 2006; Bacq et al., 2013; Dees, 2007) but should not, in accordance with the theories presented in this review, be classified as social entrepreneurship (Bjerke & Karlsson, 2013).

Gawell (2013b, 2014), in a manner similar to Ratten (2011a), gives an overview of the importance of institutions in the development of social enterprises. Legal, political and cultural institutions affect the growth and scope of activities of social enterprises. For instance, both an enterprise's working practices and methods of finance are influenced by the laws and political constraints in force. An example of how the relationship between institutions and social entrepreneurship can affect an organization's activities is that of Fryshuset, which includes a basketball club among its activities. Fryshuset founded a school as a part of their organization in 1992, following a reform of the Swedish school system the same year. The ability of an organization to adapt to fluctuations in institutions, contexts, trends and demands from financiers is of the utmost importance (Gawell, 2013b, 2014).

The third relationship that can be observed is of another character. Dey and Teasdale's (2013) article has its roots in the Social Enterprise School and deals with the manner in which social entrepreneurial organizations relate to, and are possibly influenced by, the discourse on social enterprises in the UK. This British study shows that the discourse did not affect the fifteen organizations included in the study to the extent the researchers had first predicted. For example, the general manager of one sports club took an active stance against the discourse based on ideological reasons; the manager had severe doubts

concerning the motives behind the British government's promotion of social enterprises. The government's main objective, according to the manager, was to facilitate cutbacks in the public sector rather than institute any societal improvements (Dey & Teasdale, 2013).

In summary, three relationships can be discerned in the articles which focus on the environment of social entrepreneurship. The first is the relationship between companies (or other financiers) and social entrepreneurship. Often companies finance social entrepreneurship through a CSR enterprise and the incitement behind CSR is, as previous research has shown (Rahman, 2014), often profit-based rather than altruistic. The company profits, or at least believes itself to profit, by supporting the activities of social entrepreneurial organizations (Hayhurst, 2011; Miragaia Marques et al., 2015). The second relationship is that between various institutions and social entrepreneurship. Institutions have a central role to play since these constitute a framework for the nature of social entrepreneurship and the kinds of activities organizations may pursue (Gawell, 2013b, 2014). The last relationship that Dey and Teasdale's (2013) study demonstrates is that organizations in the UK are not noticeably influenced by discourse into social entrepreneurship.

Conclusions and an Agenda for Future Research

This review has outlined the scope and focus of, and theoretically positioned, the peer-reviewed articles' utilization of the concept of social entrepreneurship published in the field of sport and social entrepreneurship. The review shows a sharp increase in research interest into the subject of sport and social entrepreneurship, above all during the past two years. This indicates that social entrepreneurship within sport management is a concept in progress. Existing research is almost exclusively qualitative, often based on case studies, and has been carried out for the most part in scientific disciplines other than sports science. Accordingly, the role of sport in the majority of articles is limited. Often sport is included in the research articles in passing as a result of one case study, among several, featuring some

form of sporting enterprise. Also of note is that, of the thirty-three articles featured in this review, many of them deal with a limited number of cases (FC United and Fryshuset) and authors (Gawell, 2013a, 2013b, 2014; Ratten, 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c). One possible consequence of this is that the field is more limited than the actual number of articles may suggest.

In terms of content the majority of the articles focus on the processes of social entrepreneurial organizations (i.e., their goals, activities and finances). Those organizations described in the studies focus to a large degree on various ways of increasing the social capital and networks of marginalized members of society.

Three conclusions can be drawn concerning the articles' utilization of the concept of social entrepreneurship. Firstly, few of the articles can be said to belong to any of the three schools of thought within social entrepreneurship. This is a result of the authors either using the concept in an all too diffuse manner or alternatively presenting all schools of thought without choosing one in particular (see notes 1 and 2). Secondly, the concept is sometimes used in a sense similar to CSR and philanthropy (Ratten 2011a, 2011c) and, as is the case with these concepts, social entrepreneurship is often used, or can be used for promotional purposes, for instance to improve reputation and economy, within both commercial organizations (Hayhurst, 2011; Miragaia Marques et al., 2015) and sports organizations (Gallagher et al., 2012; Gilmore et al., 2011; Sanders et al., 2014; Walters & Chadwick, 2009). Thirdly, the articles relate to sports in three different ways: (a) as a form of conceptual and theoretical development (e.g., Ratten, 2010); as a goal, for instance in the form of the Special Olympics (Smith et al., 2009); and (c) as a means to help marginalized people (e.g., Cohen & Welty Peachey, 2015), to strengthen people's social networks (Webber et al, 2015), social capital (e.g., Ratten, 2011b) and to change attitudes in society (McNamara et al., 2015).

In conclusion, sport and social entrepreneurship represents an emerging field in interdisciplinary research circles in a time of societal change. However, the definition and understanding of several key concepts related to this field are open to interpretation and lack consensus. This is true of both social entrepreneurship (Short et al., 2009) and entrepreneurship in general (Bygrave & Hofer, 1991), but with the addition of sport the field becomes even more complicated and diffuse. Few researchers define the concept of sport and social entrepreneurship, giving rise to potential misinterpretations and diffuse and imprecise research. Scientific research is defined by precision and the use of well-defined concepts; any deviation from this simply serves to make already diffuse concepts all the more ambiguous. The concept of sport and social entrepreneurship runs the risk, as can be seen in this review, of what Sartori (1970) calls “conceptual stretching”. This means that concepts become vague and devoid meaning. That being the case, the concept’s *raison d’être* might be questioned and the field of research itself discredited, resulting in the loss of a deeper understanding of these new organizations in a sporting context that are innovatively driven by social incentives rather than financial gain or sporting success (cf. Gould & Carson, 2008). At present, however, there is little or no clarity within the available research as to what a social entrepreneurial perspective might bring to sports science. The introduction of new terms (e.g., social entrepreneur) for existing concepts (e.g., consultant) does not contribute to research; instead, it risks leading to an increase in conceptual confusion.

In order to fortify the upcoming scientific field of sport and social entrepreneurship, the conceptual work needs to be continued. This review constitutes a contribution to this work. Bygrave and Hofer (1991) state that “good science has to begin with good definitions” (p. 13) and the findings of this review indicate that much can, and must, be done, to better understand and narrow the conceptual fusion of sport and social entrepreneurship, thereby rendering the concept more precise and homogeneous. Qualitative empirical studies

emanating from a sporting context must be carried out in order to better understand the fusion of sport and social entrepreneurship. However, future research should also collect quantitative data, making it possible to conduct broader research beyond the context of each particular case study and facilitating generalizations.

A specific example of future research, bearing in mind Gartner's (1985) variables, would be research exploring the motives behind engagement in social entrepreneurship within a sporting context, drawing inspiration from Cohen and Welty Peachey (2015). Additionally, studies of social entrepreneurs who have not succeeded in their endeavors could potentially increase the base of knowledge. Future research must also address the other variables of entrepreneurship. For instance, in terms of the organizational variable, studies on the attitudes of social entrepreneurial organizations towards the double bottom line of financial performance and positive social impact would be of interest, given the importance of this balance within social entrepreneurship. There is also a need to explore the extent to which different organizational forms (e.g., cooperatives, corporations, foundations, non-profit organizations) affect social entrepreneurial organizations. As regards the process variable, research must be conducted into what sport can bring to social entrepreneurship and vice versa. Another potential topic for future research concerns how social organizations can achieve their articulated social goals through their use of networks. Finally, given the role the environment variable has on social entrepreneurship there is a need to look beyond the entrepreneur and the organization to societal factors. One potential research topic would then be the attitudes of citizens and politicians towards social entrepreneurship within a sporting context. An alternative avenue of research would be a comparative analysis of legislation in different countries, which may either stimulate social entrepreneurship or prevent social entrepreneurs from realizing their visions.

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Notes

¹These are: Coates et al. (2014), Franco & Pessoa (2014), Gallagher et al. (2012), Hayhurst (2011), Pringle & Sayers (2004), Ratten (2010), Ratten (2011c), Sanders et al. (2014), Sherry & Strybosch (2012), Walters & Chadwick (2009), Webber et al. (2015), Westlund & Gawell (2012).

²These are: Chew (2010), Gawell (2013a), Gawell (2013b), Gawell (2014), McNamara et al. (2015), Miragaia Marques et al. (2015), Ratten (2011a).

Table 1

Summary of schools of thought and their relationship to Gartner's (1985) variables

Variable	School of thought		
	Social Innovation School	Social Enterprise School	EMES
Individual	The entrepreneur as an individual in focus.	The organization is central.	The organization is central.
Organization	The organization has limited role and can either be for-profit or non-profit. In the case of profits, these should be reinvested in the enterprise but not necessarily on the premise that social values are strengthened.	The organization is central and not-for-profit. Dividends are therefore not permitted.	The organization is central and should be democratic and autonomous. Can be for-profit or non-profit, and can therefore distribute profits to its members on the condition that the organization does not seek to maximize profit.
Process	The social mission is central. There should be a clear relationship between the enterprise and its social goals. The enterprise must generate income in order to function and allow for the continuation of work towards creation and strengthening of social values.	The social mission is central. To achieve this, the social mission is combined with business-like strategies which allow the social enterprise to function independently.	The social mission is central. To achieve this social mission, an enterprise is run which relates directly to the social mission. The enterprise is financed both of its own financial accord and its ability to attract donations.
Environment	There is no discernible difference between the schools of thought with respect to environment. Instead, differences are apparent at national, regional and local levels owing to varying institutional contexts (e.g., legislation and attitudes to social entrepreneurship). These same institutional contexts create a framework which to a large degree determine the nature of social entrepreneurship.		

Note. Adapted from Bacq and Janssen (2011), Dees and Anderson (2006), Defourny and Nyssens (2010) and

Hoogendoorn et al. (2010).

Table 2

Overview of selection procedure

Step 1: 2539 (Total number of original research papers, including duplicates)
Step 2: 60 (Selected original research papers excluding duplicates and following initial read-through)
Step 3: 53 (Selected original research papers excluding conference papers etc.)
Step 4: 33 (Selected original research papers following a qualitative assessment of relevance)

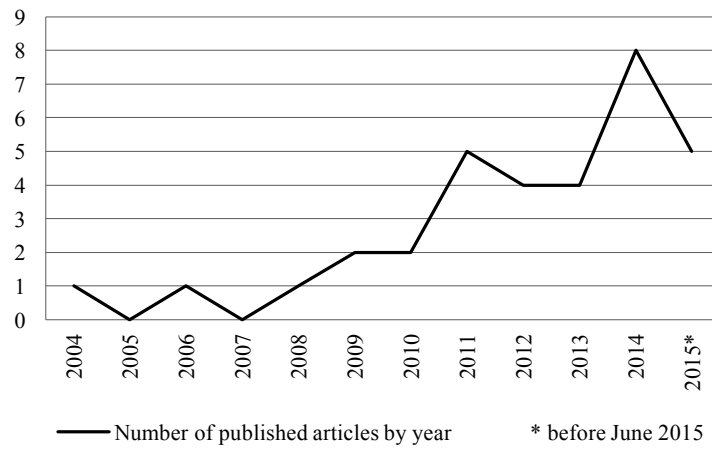


Figure 1. Number of published original research articles in peer-reviewed journals by year.

Table 3

Overview of articles' focus and use of the concept of social entrepreneurship

Variable	School of thought			Remainder Category
	Social Innovation School	Social Enterprise School	EMES	
Individual	Cohen & Welty Peachey (2015) Gilmore, Gallagher & O'Dwyer (2011)	Thompson & Doherty (2006)		Griffiths & Armour (2014)
Organization			Gibbon & Affleck (2008)	Chew (2010) Walters & Chadwick (2009)
Process	Ratten (2011b)	Hassanien & Dale (2012) Hayhurst (2014) Smith, Cahn & Ford (2009) Wicker, Feiler & Breuer (2013)	Kennedy & Kennedy (2015) Kiernan & Porter (2014)	Coates, Wicker, Feiler & Breuer (2014) Franco & Pessoa (2014) Gallagher, Gilmore & Stolz (2012) Gawell (2013a) McNamara, Pazzaglia & Sonpar (2015) Pringle & Sayers (2004) Ratten (2010) Ratten (2011c) Sherry & Strybosch (2012) Sanders, Heys, Ravenscroft & Burdsey (2014) Webber, Reidy, Ansari, Stevens, Martins & Morris (2015) Westlund & Gawell (2012)
Environment	Ingstad, Knockaert & Fassin (2014)	Dey & Teasdale (2013)		Gawell (2013b) Gawell (2014) Hayhurst (2011) Miragaia Marques, Martins Nunes, Kluka & Havens (2015) Ratten (2011a)

Appendix

List of articles included in the study

	Author(s)	Scientific field (discipline)	Approach
1.	Chew (2010)	Political Science (public administration)	Empirical
2.	Coates et al. (2014)	Sports science (sport management)	Empirical
3.	Cohen & Welty Peachey (2015)	Sports science (sport management)	Empirical
4.	Dey & Teasdale (2013)	Political science (public administration)	Empirical
5.	Franco & Pessoa (2014)	Political science (public administration)	Empirical
6.	Gallagher et al. (2012)	Economics and business administration (marketing)	Empirical
7.	Gawell (2013a)	Social studies	Empirical
8.	Gawell 2013b)	Economics and business administration (entrepreneurship)	Empirical
9.	Gawell (2014)	Political science (public administration)	Empirical
10.	Gibbon & Affleck (2008)	Economics and business administration (entrepreneurship)	Empirical
11.	Gilmore et al. (2011)	Economics and business administration (entrepreneurship)	Conceptual
12.	Griffiths & Armour (2014)	Sports science (sport policy)	Empirical
13.	Hassanien & Dale (2012)	Economics and business administration (management)	Empirical
14.	Hayhurst (2011)	Development studies	Empirical
15.	Hayhurst (2014)	Gender studies	Empirical
16.	Ingstad et al. (2014)	Economics and business administration (finance)	Empirical
17.	Kennedy & Kennedy (2015)	Sports science (sports sociology)	Empirical
18.	Kiernan & Porter (2014)	Sports science (sports sociology)	Empirical
19.	McNamara et al. (2015)	Economics and business administration (management)	Empirical
20.	Miragaia Marques et al. (2015)	Economics and business administration (marketing)	Empirical
21.	Pringle & Sayers (2004)	Medical science (social medicine)	Empirical
22.	Ratten (2010)	Economics and business administration (management)	Conceptual
23.	Ratten (2011a)	Economics and business administration (entrepreneurship)	Conceptual
24.	Ratten (2011b)	Economics and business administration (entrepreneurship)	Conceptual
25.	Ratten (2011c)	Economics and business administration (entrepreneurship)	Conceptual
26.	Sanders et al. (2014)	Sports science (sports sociology)	Empirical
27.	Sherry & Strybosch (2012)	Sports science (sports sociology)	Empirical
28.	Smith et al. (2009)	Economics and business administration (business ethics)	Empirical
29.	Thompson & Doherty (2006)	Economics and business administration (social economics)	Empirical
30.	Walters & Chadwick (2009)	Economics and business administration (management)	Empirical
31.	Webber et al. (2015)	Medical science (social medicine)	Empirical
32.	Westlund & Gawell (2012)	Economics and business administration (cooperative economics)	Empirical
33.	Wicker et al. (2013)	Economics and business administration (finance)	Empirical