Imprinting Effects of Founding Conditions, Structure, and Capabilities on Social and Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction

by

Jason Lortie

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of

The College of Business

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Florida Atlantic University

Boca Raton, FL

August 2016

Imprinting Effects of Founding Conditions, Structure, and Capabilities on Social and Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction

by

Jason Lortie

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the candidate's dissertation advisor, Dr. Gary Castrogiovanni, Department of Management, and has been approved by the members of his supervisory committee. It was submitted to the faculty of the College of Business and was accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE:

Gary Castrogiovanni, Ph.D.
Dissertation Advisor

Stephanie Castro, Ph.D.

Elizabeth Goodrick, Ph.D.

Ciprian Stan, Ph.D.

Roland Kidwell, Ph.D.
Chair, Department of Management Programs

Daniel Gropper, Ph.D.
Dean, College of Business

Deborah L. Floyd, Ed.D.
Dean, Graduate College

07/13/2016
Date

Acknowledgements

I wish to express sincere gratitude to all of my committee members for all of their guidance and support, specifically, Dr. Gary Castrogiovanni for all of his patience, encouragement, and direction during the writing of this manuscript. I would also like to acknowledge Mr. Dave Blyer for his incredible assistance in securing the sample for this research. Finally, I would like to thank my cohort: Dr. Heather Parola, Dr. Lee Jarvis, Dr. Ratan Dheer, and Dr. Kevin Cox for their technical, intellectual, and emotional support.

Abstract

Author:	Jason Lortie
Title:	Imprinting Effects of Founding Conditions, Structure, and Capabilities on Social and Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction
Institution:	Florida Atlantic University
Dissertation Advisor:	Dr. Gary Castrogiovanni
Degree:	Doctor of Philosophy
Year:	2016

My work investigates the effects of founding conditions for organizational founders on the eventual satisfaction founders have with the financial and social outcomes of their organization. First, I introduce two new constructs, social salience and economic salience, which represent the intended social or economic goals of the founder for their organization when they found the new organization. I then utilize organizational imprinting theory to argue that the social and economic salience, along with founders' previous work experience, influence the structure of the new organization via the legal form. I then argue that the legal form influences the specific capabilities that the organization will acquire or create early in the organization's life. Finally, I argue that the capabilities established at founding will influence the eventual satisfaction founders

currently have with their organizations' social and financial outcomes as the capabilities endure over time.

Based on a sample of 150 organizational founders that are still actively managing their organizations, my results support the idea that founding conditions for individual founders influence the capabilities that their organizations create or acquire. Further, founders' current level of satisfaction with the financial and social performance of their organizations is significantly related to these capabilities. These results largely support the process based model of imprinting effects on organizational outcomes, and suggest that founders play a critical role in setting the original imprint of an organization that will endure via organizational inertia, perhaps long after the imprint's originally designed purpose.

Dedication

For those who got me here – Mr. Michael Jennings for teaching me to how to think and write and Dr. Rahul Govind for putting me on this lifelong path. And to all my friends and family who stayed with me the entire way with encouragement and support, while too numerous to name all, I recognize Catherine, Donna, Jessica, and most of all my Wife Bethany.

Imprinting Effects of Founding Conditions, Structure, and Capabilities on Social and Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

Founders of modern organizations vary in terms of the outcomes they are satisfied with when it comes to the organizations they start. For example, founders that start organizations to increase their personal wealth are mostly concerned with the financial outcomes of their organizations while founders looking to help other people or the environment are mostly concerned with the social outcomes of their organizations. As Delgado-Garcia, Rodriguez-Escudero, and Martin-Cruz (2012, p. 408) point out, "satisfaction with (organizational) outcomes is a fundamental measure of success for entrepreneurs" since it is a key factor of founders' future decisions to spend more time, energy, and money on their organizations (Covin & Slevin, 1990; Simon, Houghton, & Savelli, 2003; Westhead, Ucbasaran, & Wright, 2005). However, existing entrepreneurship research has predominantly classified satisfaction with organizational outcomes in terms of financial outcomes of the organization only. This is problematic since organizations have fundamentally changed in terms of the outcomes founders design them to create. While traditional understandings have framed research in terms of financial outcomes, many modern new ventures now stress both financial and social outcomes simultaneously (Katre & Salipante, 2012).

Founders' satisfaction with financial and social organizational outcomes is important since satisfaction will determine whether founders continues with their new organization. Positive financial outcomes from new organizations often lead to a better overall economy for society (Schumpeter, 1936; Schumpeter, 1942). At the same time, positive social outcomes from new organizations often lead to the new organizations filling voids in helping disadvantaged people or the environment that existing governmental or non-governmental organizations have failed to help (Dees, 1998; Dees, 2001; Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009). Therefore, it is important that we understand what affects founders' satisfaction with the financial and social outcomes of their organizations since satisfied founders will continue to build their organizations that do good for society as a whole.

One important theory that management researchers have used to explain the financial outcomes of organizations is organizational imprinting theory, which takes into account the biography of organizations and their founders. According to organizational imprinting theory, by ignoring the history of organizations, important explanatory information is being lost when one considers that founding conditions are the most important antecedents for organizational strategy, capabilities, and outcomes (Johnson, 2007; Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013; Stinchcombe, 1965). While these findings are valid in terms of financial outcomes (Carroll & Delacroix, 1982; Shinkle & Kriauciunas, 2012), does the same hold true when one attempts to explain the social outcomes of organizations? Specifically, this question would address the recent call by Wilson and Post (2013, p. 730) who stressed that, "future research can… develop a more elaborated process theory of social business design. Theories of these types (as opposed to variance theories) are important because they help us understand how something comes about (Mohr, 1982) and deal with a sequence of events". Therefore, a process theory of founder financial and social satisfaction can be developed by utilizing imprinting theory to investigate how organization origins affect founders' satisfaction with the outcomes of their organizations.

I intend to investigate the origins of organizations by looking at how imprinting effects shape the current levels of organizational outcome satisfaction of founders. The research question of this manuscript is as follows: What effect does imprinting have on founders' satisfaction with social and financial outcomes of their ventures? Based on this overarching research question, an important methodological contribution of my work is the creation of social and financial satisfaction outcome measures that simultaneously allow for inter- and intra-organization comparisons. Intra-organization comparisons are those comparing social outcomes to financial outcomes within the same organization and inter-organization meaning those comparing social and financial outcomes across organizations. I ask via this research question about the biography of organizations, and whether the history of a venture affects the founder's eventual satisfaction with social and financial outcomes. By answering this question, I believe that a better understanding of the process of organizational outcomes will be developed that can account for not only the traditional financial understanding of organizational outcomes, but also the emerging understanding of social organizational outcomes that is becoming more prevalent over time.

Statement of the Problem

A major issue with the existing entrepreneurship literature is the gap in understanding what influences both the financial and social outcome satisfaction of founders of modern day organizations. Existing studies that look at founders' satisfaction with outcomes do so only with financial outcomes in mind. This is somewhat understandable since traditional entrepreneurship research has predominantly looked at financial outcomes as the only dependent variable that was important at the organizational level of analysis.

However, within the recently developing social entrepreneurship literature, Austin et al. (2006, p. 18) point out that, “a multitude of rich avenues merit further exploration” in terms of explaining and predicting the actions organizations that attempt to maximize both financial and social outcomes simultaneously. While the organizations studied in the entrepreneurship literature have tended to look to maximize shareholder or personal wealth, other organizations exist that look to create social wealth that also seem to fit into the mold of “entrepreneurial” organizations (Austin et al., 2006; Short et al., 2009).

However, organizations very rarely fit neatly into only focusing on one outcome. Often times, founders have many goals for the organizations that they start (Austin et al., 2006; Baum & Locke, 2004; Stewart, Watson, Carland, & Carland, 1999), and attempting to separate organizations according to only a single outcome goal would be a frivolous pursuit. Therefore, any research that does not include both social and financial outcomes is at risk of spurious findings. Instead, I believe that research should attempt to investigate what affects these differing outcomes for organizations in general.

Purpose

The purpose of my study is to identify factors affecting social and financial outcome satisfaction of founders simultaneously. Specifically, I intend to utilize organizational imprinting as the main theoretical lens to explain how the founding conditions of an organization affect the initial organizational structure, the capabilities the organization has at the time of founding, and the current satisfaction with financial and social outcomes.

In addition, I will develop measurement scales that allow for the comparison of social and financial outcomes within and between organizations by focusing on founder satisfaction rather than trying to quantify financial and social outcomes. Satisfaction with financial outcomes has been shown to be a promising avenue for gaining valuable outcome data from organizations that are not publicly traded (Bautista Delgado-Garcia et al., 2012). I will follow in the steps of these initial efforts to create measurement scales that will ask about founders' satisfaction with both financial and social outcomes of their organizations.

Research Question

What effect does imprinting have on founders' satisfaction with social and financial outcomes of their ventures?

Significance of the Study

The results of examining this question makes this study significant to multiple literatures. In terms of the social entrepreneurship literature, my work in this study is some of the first to provide quantitative results that disentangle the antecedents of organizations pursuing both financial and social outcome objectives. My results support and expand the small amount of theory that has been developed on explaining and predicting social and financial outcomes, while also developing a process-based theory of social and financial outcomes that takes into account the history of organizations and their founders.

Further, my work in this study is significant in terms of the strategy, entrepreneurship, and non-profit management literatures in that it is one of the first to quantitatively measure satisfaction with social and financial outcomes simultaneously in a way that allows for statistical testing. This is valuable, as previous research has been stalled by a lack of such quantitative measures. My efforts in this study should spur future research that looks to move past only measuring financial outcomes alone.

Finally, I also make significant contributions to the existing knowledge on organizational imprinting. Specifically, in this study I simultaneously investigate individual and institutional imprinting effects on organizations, thus investigating the claims put forth by Johnson's (2007) qualitative findings that imprinting is simultaneously an individual and institutional process that the entrepreneur controls. Also, I am one of the first to attempt to validate Maquis and Huang's (2010) theoretical model that has only seen partial quantitative testing. Finally, I take important steps in linking imprinting effects, organizational capabilities, and organizational outcomes, ideas that have received little attention in a single integrated quantitative model. The combination of these contributions extend the current knowledge on organizational imprinting theory.

Conceptual Framework

My conceptual framework for this dissertation is based on two different imprinting theory mechanisms outlined by Marquis and Tilcsik (2013) and Johnson

(2007) that are based on both the environmental and individual levels of analyses. First, organizations bear imprints at the time of their founding based on the institutional factors that are present at the time of organization foundation. Specifically, “organizational structures and capabilities are designed to fit the initial institutional environment and are maintained because of inertial pressures and institutionalization” (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013, p. 208).

A good example of this mechanism is the US banking industry. Marquis and Huang (2010) showed through empirical research that the institutional conditions present during a bank’s founding significantly impacted the bank’s organizational capabilities and subsequent activities. In terms of this study, and in line with Johnson’s (2007) qualitative findings, the institutional environment that individual founders are socialized in and the current institutional environment that founders are attempting to found their organizations in will greatly affect the founders’ outlook on social and financial ideals that will be subsequently imprinted onto their organizations. These imprints will then be maintained through the life of the organization and affect current levels of outcomes.

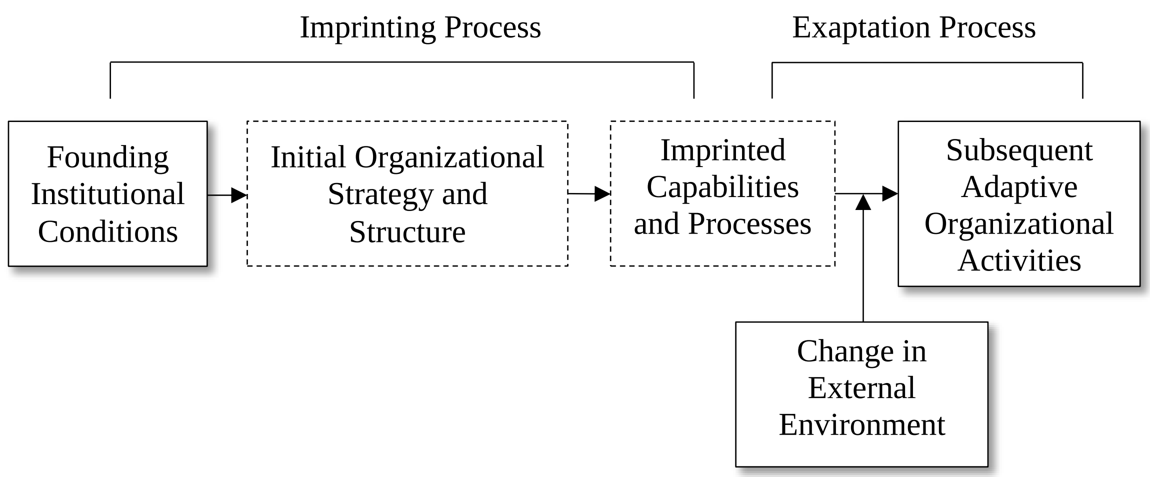
The second imprinting mechanism is that of the individual on the organization at the time of founding. As Marquis and Tilcsik (2013, p. 208) describe, “founders choose initial organizational features based on their background and what is available in the environment, and inertia and institutionalization maintains the mark of these choices over time”. In effect, the founders, influenced by their biography and socialization, imprint on to the organization at the time of organization founding important strategy and capabilities.

A good example of this mechanism would be the high-tech startups of Silicon Valley. Research conducted by Baron and colleagues highlights that the founder of high-tech startups in Silicon Valley is extremely influential in the structure and capabilities of the organization (Baron, Burton, & Hannan, 1999; Baron, Hannan, & Burton, 1999). The founder's blueprint becomes imprinted on the organization and guides future decision-making, structural decisions, managerial insensitivity, and employment models (Baron et al., 1999; Baron et al., 1999). What is most surprising is that the imprint from the founder is often present regardless of whether or not the founder is still with the organization. In terms of this study, the founder's socializations in terms of previous work experience will be imprinted on the organization and maintained throughout the life of the organization.

Figure 1 presents Marquis and Huang's (2010) model that they used in evaluating banks' acquisition activities. This model is a good foundation for understanding the imprinting process. First, the organization evaluates the current institutional conditions that are present in the environment at the time of founding. The organization then sets its initial organizational strategies and structure. These strategies and structures then lead to the organization's initial set of imprinted capabilities and processes. Based on existing imprinting research, it is generally understood that these initial capabilities and processes are set within the organization, and it is difficult to change them (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013). Next, Marquis and Huang (2010) theorized that changes in the external environment would require adaptive uses of those established capabilities and processes, a process they labeled as exaptation. Marquis and Huang (2010, p. 1445) theorized that, "certain features developed as adaptive responses to initial environmental conditions can be well suited for some new purposes after environmental changes" since those capabilities imprinted at the time of founding are hard to change or delete. Therefore, rather than change or create new capabilities, organizations are more likely to utilize exiting capabilities and adapt them for uses other than what they were originally designed via exaptation.

Therefore, the model in Figure 1 is a good starting point for this study, however, there is still more to be explored in terms of organizational imprinting theory outside of Marquis and Huang's (2010) work. In terms of organizational imprinting theory, the model itself can be improved upon in two important ways. First, based on the research on organizational founders (Baron et al., 1999; Fauchart & Gruber, 2011; Johnson, 2007; D. J. Phillips, 2005), it is understood that individual founders are very important in terms of setting initial organizational strategy and/or structure. Incorporating individual founders into the model is important to getting a better understanding of the entire imprinting process. Second, the model does not necessarily relate to organization outcomes, and Marquis and Huang (2010) limited their study to that of organizational activities post environmental change. Testing the model in relation to organization outcomes allows for a better understanding of the boundaries and limitations of the model. Finally, while Marquis and Huang (2010) proposed the full model seen in Figure 1, their empirical test only focused on founding institutional conditions, subsequent activities, and changes in the environment. Their study utilized qualitative findings to support their argument that organizational structure and organizational capabilities mediated the model, however, quantitative evidence is lacking. These two extensions of the model as well as the quantitative efforts to test a full version of the model is an important contribution of this study.

Figure 1. A General Model of Imprinting and Exaptation



Note. From Marquis and Huang (2010). Bold boxes represent variables measured and tested by Marquis and Huang while dashed boxes were assumed but not measured or tested.

Summary of Methodology

I utilized a database of respondents sourced from an online web solution company that offers online web donation and event management software to organizations. Organization founders were solicited to complete an online questionnaire through e-mail and phone calls. Existing measurement scales were used for a majority of the constructs of interest while I also be developed four other measurement scales relevant to variables included in my research model. Those measurement scales that I developed were evaluated according to the appropriate scale creation methods (Hinkin, 1998). I then tested the developed hypotheses via structural equation modeling.

Limitations

As with any quantitative study, this study faced the following potential limitations. First, the study was cross-sectional. While the imprinting hypotheses imply a data relevant to the organization at the time of founding and in the current time frame, all data was collected in the current time frame. However, biases should be avoided as the information being collected at the time of founding is more factual in nature and less subject to subjective responses. In addition, responses to certain outcome variables were validated by secondary matched pair responses from managers currently working in the organization. Items were based on past experiences, therefore, recall bias still had an effect on results even though only factual information was being asked to be recalled. Second, the study asked organization founders to fill out an online questionnaire. A possible issue may have been in the overall response rate that is acquired or the small final sample size. I attempted to avoid this limitation by following up on initial survey emails with phone calls and email reminders.

Outside of the above quantitative limitations, it is also feasible that the theoretical model created to explain and predict the phenomenon at hand would not be exclusive. The explanation being developed is only a single explanation grounded in the theoretical models briefly described above. As it can be seen in Chapter 5, my results do not fully support the theoretical explanations I have created. However, my efforts in Chapter 6 allow for future research opportunities that should allow for better models to be developed in the future.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter, I will present a review of the appropriate literatures as they pertain to the research question presented in Chapter 1. Specifically, I will review the following three literatures: the social entrepreneurship literature that has attempted to explain both financial and social outcomes, the literature that has attempted to identify organizations that create social and financial wealth and measure the outcomes of those ventures, and the organizational imprinting literature that looks at individual and institutional sources of imprints.

I have selected these literatures for very specific reasons. First, the reason I have selected the social entrepreneurship literature that has attempted to explain both financial and social outcomes is because I want to see what theories and ideas explain these varying goals of organizations simultaneously. Admittedly, there is a large amount of scholarly work that attempts to explain organizational financial outcomes (i.e. the strategic management and/or entrepreneurship literatures) or social outcomes (i.e. the non-profit management literature) alone. However, my goal is to review the work that attempts to explain both at the same time, and the small, yet growing, literature on social entrepreneurship will allow me to achieve this goal. Similarly, the social entrepreneurship context will provide the most up to date knowledge on how scholars are currently attempting to measure social and financial outcomes simultaneously. Finally, I review the literature on organizational imprinting as it serves as my main theoretical foundation for the theoretical model and hypotheses that I will present in Chapter 3.

Purpose

The following are my main purposes with the literature reviews in this chapter. My first main purpose is to collect and organize those studies that exist in the literatures identified above. A systematic search method is described below. My second main purpose is to analyze the appropriate literatures in order to determine the previous research that scholars have conducted that is relevant to the research question of this study. This analysis serves to inform the direction of those literatures in terms of gaps in understandings and possible directions for research. This analysis will also provide important considerations that I will incorporate into my study in this dissertation. In addition, this analysis will inform my theory building efforts in this study towards addressing the research question at hand.

Methods of the Reviews

I used the following search methods to identify sources for the reviews. First, the searches were open to all years up to 2013. Second, I utilized the Web of Science, Academic Search Premier (EBSCOhost), and ABI/INFORM indices to conduct my searches. The academic journals were limited only to those that were indexed by the three databases above. For each of the three topics identified above, I used appropriate search terms that were broad enough in nature to identify appropriate studies. For example, I utilized the following search terms to identify possible articles from the social entrepreneurship literatures: social entrepreneurship, social entrepreneur, social venture, social enterprise, and hybrid social venture. I utilized Boolean search techniques (specifically the use of asterisks for truncated search terms and quotation marks for appropriate term matching) to identify as many articles as possible.

Upon the completion of the first search, I collected all initial articles and utilized forward and backward citation searches to identify any articles that did not appear with the search terms used. I also paid special attention to existing literature reviews as guideposts in my searches of the literature. Any articles that did not come up in the initial searches but were classified in the existing literature reviews or appeared in the forward and backward citation searches were added to my review.

Description and Critique of the Antecedents to Hybrid Social Venture Outcomes Literature

I define the antecedents to hybrid social venture outcomes literature as any study that investigates theories, constructs, or variables that may affect the outcomes of a hybrid social venture. Hybrid social ventures of the most interest since they are those organizations that attempt to simultaneously produce social and financial outcomes via organizational activities. In total, the search methods described above produced 16 academic journal articles. The list of the articles can be seen in Table 1. I will describe and analyze these 16 articles in this section.

Table 1. Explanations of Social Entrepreneurship Outcomes

Authors	Year	Journal	Conceptual/ Empirical	Quantitative/ Qualitative	Sample Size	Antecedents of Performance	Performance Variable	Critique
Weerawardena & Mort	2001	Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing	Conceptual	N/A	N/A	Strategic leadership in terms of a social entrepreneur, Capabilities, Organizational Learning, and Organizational innovation	Sustained Competitive Advantage	Model exists only at the firm level of analysis
Barman	2002	Social Forces	Empirical	Qualitative	1	Differentiation	None - The single case was recognized as a leader amongst competitors	Only a single case was analyzed
Alvord et al.	2004	Journal of Applied Behavioral Science	Empirical	Qualitative	7	Localized approach, Innovation, Organizational Learning, Team Oriented Founders, and Partnerships	None - Cases based on being "successful"	Biased selection of "successful" social entrepreneurs
Brennan & Ackers	2004	Local Economy	Empirical	Qualitative	3	Networks, Research partnerships, and Working partnerships	Creating Revenue, Tons of waste recycled, Providing Local Employment	Analysis of the three cases is very limited
Sharir & Lerner	2006	Journal of World Business	Empirical	Qualitative	33	The Entrepreneur, Environment, Organization, and Process	Goal Achievement, Sustainability, Resources Available for Growth	The study is descriptive in nature and does not build any new theory
Van Slyke & Newman	2006	Nonprofit Management & Leadership	Empirical	Qualitative	1	Creative Thinking, Partnerships, and Resources	Self-Sustainability	The single case study is mostly descriptive in nature with little explanation of theoretical constructs
McDonald	2007	Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly	Empirical	Both	Qual - 3 Quant - 349	Organization Mission	Innovativeness	Innovativeness was assumed to affect subsequent performance, but did not look at outcomes directly

Table 1 (Cont'd). Explanations of Social Entrepreneurship Outcomes

Authors	Year	Journal	Conceptual/ Empirical	Quantitative/ Qualitative	Sample Size	Antecedents of Performance	Performance Variable	Critique
Borch et al.	2008	Journal of Enterprising Communities	Empirical	Qualitative	4	Access to resources and Innovation	Growth/Scaling	Four cases limited to Norway
Herman & Renz	2008	Nonprofit Management & Leadership	Conceptual	N/A	N/A	Boards of Directors, Correct Management Practices, and Responsiveness	Effectiveness	The study is descriptive in nature and does not build any new theory
Palmer & Short	2008	Academy of Management Learning & Education	Empirical	Quantitative	408	Mission Statements	"Quasi-balanced scorecard" of AACSB accredited b-schools	Findings are hard to generalize since the sample and DV were specific to b-schools
Meyskens et al.	2010	Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice	Empirical	Qualitative	70	RBV based Tangible and Intangible Resources	None Specifically	The identified resources were assumed to affect performance, however, performance was not measured
Renko	2012	Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice	Empirical	Quantitative	193	Assessing Social Problems, Innovation and Time Invested	Emergence and Viability	Organizational emergence and viability was the proposed DV, however, only emergence was measured and it serves as a weak performance measure
Teasdale	2012	Housing Studies	Empirical	Qualitative	6	Resource Transfers	Self-Sustainability and Survival	The study is exploratory in nature and does not ground the findings in existing theory
Desa & Basu	2013	Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal	Empirical	Quantitative	202	Organizational prominence and Environmental Munificence	Bricolage and Optimization	Bricolage and Optimization were assumed to affect subsequent performance, but did not look at outcomes directly
FelÍcio et al.	2013	Journal of Business Research	Empirical	Quantitative	281	Social Entrepreneurship and Transformational Leadership	Social Value and Organizational Performance	Social entrepreneurship was measured using "initiative and innovation" constructs that have questionable construct validity.

General observations. One of the first general findings about the literature is the very short history. The literature is very young, with the first published study appearing in 2001. In addition, the range of outlets of publications is very varied with articles appearing in entrepreneurship, education, management, marketing, political science, sociology, and general business journals. These findings are not particularly surprising based on the review by Short el al. (2009) who found that the general social entrepreneurship literature was young and varied. Since the antecedents of outcomes literature is a subset of the general social entrepreneurship literature, my findings here are to be expected.

Another important general observation about the literature is the nature of the studies. 11 of the 16 studies were either conceptual with no empirical study, or, qualitative with case studies. In addition, a large majority of these cases studies utilized a small sample size of cases with seven articles using a sample size of less than 10. These findings also mirror existing findings of the larger social entrepreneurship literature and are characteristic of a young stream of research where developing theory from qualitative case studies is valuable for a previously unstudied phenomenon (Eisenhardt, 1989; Short et al., 2009).

Important findings. The findings of the literature so far are very diverse. This diversity is valuable as it provides a large number of potential antecedents for hybrid social venture outcomes. My review found that these early studies can best be organized based on the levels of analysis: the level of the organization and the level of the individual.

In terms of the organizational level of analysis, there have been important insights. One of the main findings has been the importance of the organizational mission in affecting eventual hybrid social venture outcomes. For example, McDonald's (2007) qualitative theory building and quantitative theory testing study is an exemplar. His study of hospital administrators found that a hybrid social venture's mission focused on supporting and implementing innovations had a direct result on actual innovation in the organization (McDonald, 2007). This finding was supported by another empirical study of 409 AACSB accredited business schools in the United States (Palmer & Short, 2008). Palmer and Short's (2008) research showed that business school outcomes in terms of finances, student rankings, and employee learning and growth were directly related to mission statement content. Mission statements ultimately guide decision-making and behavior in organizations, and these studies show that hybrid social ventures utilize their mission statements to reinforce the dual economic and social goals of the organization.

Authors have also shown that resources, and Barney's (1991) classic resource based view ideas, are important for hybrid social venture outcomes. Following classic RBV thinking, authors have investigated how tangible and intangible resources can be extremely important for social entrepreneurs (Meyskens, Robb-Post, Stamp, Carsrud, & Reynolds, 2010). Meyskens et al.'s (2010) content analysis study of Ashoka fellows showed that social entrepreneurs utilize and combine their tangible and intangible resources in their value-creation process and operational processes. Meyskens et al.'s analysis of the 70 Ashoka fellows in terms of resources has also been supported by in depth case analyses. For example, an in depth analysis of a community redevelopment project showed that the social entrepreneur was fixated on the stream of resources that he could drive into the community revitalization project in order to make sure it was sustainable and survived (Van Slyke & Newman, 2006). Another team of researchers in their in depth case study pointed out in their main findings that, “ventures emerge through a dualistic process, where resource configuration and creative practice interact to constitute complex community ventures” (Borch, Forde, Ronning, Kluken, & Alsos, 2008, p. 120). Borch et al. (2008) point out that the mobilization of those resources were of utmost importance to community based venture success, and Teasdale (2012) found that resource transfers into the social venture from multiple sources was what led to hybrid resource mixes that gave the organization an advantage. Finally, Desa and Basu (2013) showed how organizational prominence (how well known the venture is and how established it is with stakeholders) was an important organizational resource that was a predictor of bricolage and optimization. For Desa and Basu (2013), bricolage and optimization activities were important antecedents of subsequent outcomes. All of these articles show, similar to existing research in the entrepreneurship and strategy literatures, resources have been identified as an important antecedent to hybrid social venture outcomes at the organizational level.

The next organizational level based variable that has been identified as affecting outcomes is innovation. Innovation has been shown to be an important part of the “entrepreneurship” aspect of social entrepreneurship, and authors have begun to link this to outcomes. Weerawardena and Mort (2001) were the first to connect innovation to a sustained competitive advantage in their conceptual investigation of hybrid social ventures. It was proposed that organizations exhibiting higher degrees of social entrepreneurship would possess the capabilities needed to achieve higher degrees of organizational intensity and subsequent levels of sustained competitive advantage (Weerawardena & Mort, 2001). Barman (2002) connected innovation to differentiation for nonprofits strategic responses to competition. As Alvord et al. (2004) found in their case studies, successful social entrepreneurship uses innovations that mobilize existing assets of marginalized groups. Examples included the Grameen Bank and micro loans that mobilized the assets of poor and marginalized people or the Green Belt Movement that started tree planting initiatives by mobilizing remote villagers' capacity to work together to solve problems (Alvord et al., 2004). While innovation may lead to sustained competitive advantage, Renko (2013) found that planned innovations and the novelty to the market could hold back the eventual emergence and outcomes of social ventures due to the increased difficulty in producing the innovation. While innovation can lead to sustained competitive advantages for hybrid social ventures, innovation can also limit success due to the difficulty in producing a novel idea to the market.

While missions, resources, and innovation have been identified as important antecedents of outcomes at the organizational level, authors have also identified specific individual level constructs as well. Many of the qualitative studies performed have identified the social entrepreneur themselves as the most important antecedent of outcomes. For example, Herman and Renz (2008) point out that individual board member's emotional commitment and individual performance levels are both related to organizational outcomes. It was also pointed out that individual managers were more likely to use "correct management practices" in successful organizations (Herman & Renz, 2008, p. 403). Sharir and Lerner (2006) found that dedication (individual resolve to the venture), previous experience, and the individual's social network were all important factors for successful social entrepreneurs. Their study of 33 social ventures in Israel found that these individual level factors all affected how well the social ventures achieved their stated goals, were able to sustain their programs, and were able to have resources available for future growth. Social networks have also been identified as an important aspect of success for recycling organizations in Liverpool (Brennan & Ackers, 2004). Finally, recent research has shown that leadership plays an important role in the outcomes of social ventures (Felicio, Goncalves, & Goncalves, 2013). Specifically, Felicio et al. (2013) found that transformational leadership styles in social entrepreneurs were significantly related to the social value created and organizational outcomes of 241 non-profit social organizations in Portugal. Taken together, these studies show that the individual entrepreneur is an important determinant of success.

Critiques of the literature. In the section above, I have reviewed the studies that have linked the outcomes of social ventures to a number of different antecedent variables. In this section, I will outline a number of critiques that limit the validity of these findings and their usefulness for current knowledge and future research.

My first main critique is the large number of outcome variables and measurement scales that have been used. For example, the review summarized in Table 1 shows outcome variables such as tons of waste recycled (Brennan & Ackers, 2004), growth (Borch et al., 2008), survival (Teasdale, 2012), and effectiveness (Weerawardena & Mort, 2001) to name a few. Even more troubling is that some studies do not even attempt to measure the success of the organizations that they study, and instead, select them based on the idea that the organizations selected “were regarded as successful social entrepreneurship” (Alvord et al., 2004, p. 264). The large number of outcome variables, and the context specific nature of the outcome variables, limits the overall generalizable nature of the findings.

In addition to the issue of the variance of outcome variables used, there is also an issue with the actual value of those variables as indicators of organizational outcomes. For example, McDonald's (2007) study of organizational missions and innovativeness assumes that there is a link between innovation and organizational outcomes; however, the study does not actually investigate this claim in the hybrid social venture context. This is similar to other studies that instead investigate mediators to outcomes. For example, bricolage and optimization (Desa & Basu, 2013), emergence (Renko, 2013), and sustainability (Sharir & Lerner, 2006; Van Slyke & Newman, 2006) were all assumed to mediate a relationship with outcomes. While there is existing research from the entrepreneurship and strategy literatures that may support these links, there is limited research that supports these links in the social entrepreneurship literature.

My next main critique is the number of small sample sized based qualitative studies that dominate this literature. Many of the findings summarized above are based on qualitative studies with sample sizes of less than 10 cases. While qualitative case studies are valuable for building new theory (Eisenhardt, 1989; Short et al., 2009), many of the qualitative studies listed in Table 1 are descriptive in nature, and do not attempt to create new theory.

Finally, many of the studies analyzed above approach the phenomenon from a simplistic point of view, and fail to recognize social entrepreneurship as a process that incorporates many interacting effects. As Mair and Marti (2006, p. 37) note, "we view social entrepreneurship as a process of creating value by combining resources in new ways". While many of the studies above highlight processes such as innovation or resource transfers, the studies do so without looking at multiple interacting effects or statistical approaches that can estimate the amount of variance being explained. Instead, many of these studies look at a single explanatory variable and do so in a way that does not estimate how important that single variable actually is (i.e. interviews and other qualitative methods). These methods, and the theoretical models of those studies, ignore the process-oriented nature of the social entrepreneurship phenomenon and how the process involves multiple, interacting effects.

Inferences for forthcoming study. The main issue that is present in the literature is the lack of solid theoretical groundings of the studies presented above. As many of the studies are basic case analyses or descriptive in nature, there is a lack of theory building that explains and predicts the phenomenon. Another major critique from the review above was the lack of process orientated studies that acknowledge the history and biography of the hybrid social ventures and their founders. A majority of the articles reviewed were cross sectional in nature, or descriptive of current and recent events.

Based on these observations, I have developed the research question for the forthcoming study: What effect does imprinting have on founders' satisfaction with social and financial outcomes of their ventures? By asking this question, I aim to move the literature in many import directions. First, I believe that this question helps address the process of social entrepreneurship. Specifically, as a process that sometimes emerges from traditional for-profit or non-profit organizations; or, as one that is driven by individuals that have experience in for-profit or non-profit fields prior to running a hybrid social venture. Second, I believe that existing arguments from the imprinting literature can answer this question, specifically, when it is framed as a process oriented issue.

In addition, I will address some of the empirical issues that I commented on above in the forthcoming study. For example, in this study I will directly relate my theory to hybrid social venture outcomes instead of relying of assumed mediators or indicators. The forthcoming study will also be based on solid quantitative methods utilizing a large sample size and measures that have evidence supporting their reliability and validity. In the next section, I will review the existing measurement issues in the hybrid social ventures literature in order to show why new measures need to be developed and validated in order to identify and quantify social and economic intentions and outcomes.

Description and Critique of the Measurement of Hybrid Social Ventures Literature

I define the measurement of hybrid social ventures literature as those studies that either attempt to identify social entrepreneurship or measure the outcomes of social entrepreneurship though quantitative methods. In total, my search resulted in a total of 10 articles that fit this description. This small number of studies is not surprising. As Short et al. (2009) found in their review, only 16 of the 72 articles reviewed used some type of quantitative methods. However, of those 16 articles, 14 of the articles reviewed were descriptive in nature, and would not necessarily fit into my definition above. Short et al. (2009) pointed out that many of these early quantitative studies were attempting to describe social entrepreneurs and their specific characteristics. Therefore, researchers were manually selecting samples of what they considered were social entrepreneurs instead of trying to delineate quantitatively social entrepreneurs from other populations.

Table 2. Measuring Social Entrepreneurship

Authors	Year	Journal	Identification/ Performance	Measure(s)	Sample Size	Items Provided	Critique
Kaplan	2001	Nonprofit Management & Leadership	Social Venture Performance	Balanced Scorecard	4	Yes	The balanced scorecard is a practitioner tool and offers little use to academic inquiry
Sawhill & Williamson	2001	Nonprofit Management & Leadership	Social Venture Performance	Study Specific	30	No	Reviews existing practitioner measures of success
McDonald	2007	Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly	Social Venture Identification	Study Specific	349	Yes	Measure developed is specific to hospital missions
Palmer & Short	2008	Academy of Management Learning & Education	Social Venture Performance	Balanced Scorecard Specific to Business Schools	408	Yes	Specific measure to business schools
Renko	2012	Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice	Social Venture Identification	PSED Specific	193	Yes	Measures were specific to the PSED data set and were limited in their validity and generalizability to other samples
Felicio et al.	2013	Journal of Business Research	Both	Study Specific	241	No	Specific items were not outlined and the indices used had questionable validity
Lepoutre et al.	2013	Small Business Economics	Social Venture Identification	Study Specific	150k+	Yes	Used as a part of the GEM survey in order to measure national levels of social entrepreneurship
Zhang & Swanson	2013	Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing	Both	Study Specific	202	Yes	The items used for identification appear leading or confusing for respondents and many perofmance measures were single indicators

Further, since these early studies were simply describing characteristics of social entrepreneurs, they were limited attempts at measuring hybrid social venture outcomes. A full list of all nine articles is displayed in Table 2.

General observations. My first general observation of this literature is that there has been relatively equal effort in measuring social venture outcomes and social venture identification. Three articles have attempted to measure identification, five have attempted to measure outcomes, and two articles have attempted both simultaneously. Second, sample sizes have been relatively robust, lending credence to the findings of the articles. Also, it is promising to see that most of the articles provide the survey items used, as this should help future research coalesce around standard survey measures assuming they are reliable and valid. However, it is interesting to note that most of the studies have used study specific measures and have not yet begun to build surveys based on existing work. While this is somewhat disappointing, it is not entirely surprising as it will be seen based on the in depth review below.

Important findings and critiques of the identification literature. I will discuss the important findings and critiques along the lines of the two main topics of the literature, the identification of social ventures and the outcomes of social ventures. I will first start with the five articles that have attempted to identify social ventures quantitatively. McDonalds' (2007) approach to identification revolved around the mission of the organization. His scale of four items intended to measure the shared vision/mission of the hospital sample he had identified. While the items appear valid in measuring the missions, the items were context specific to the hospitals in the sample. Therefore, the social aspect of identification is missed since it is assumed to exist in the sample selected. However, the study is valuable in providing items that may be adapted to measure social missions specifically.

Felicio et al. (2013) attempted to identify social entrepreneurship using two specific scales of social innovation and individual initiative in their study of non-profit social organizations. Social innovation was defined as “initiative in seeking solutions to societal problems through innovation strategies that involve the combination of resources, the exploitation of opportunities for stimulating social change, the satisfaction of social needs, and the development of social goods and services” (Felicio et al., 2013, p. 2140). Initiative was defined as the motivation towards social innovations. While test two scales appear to identify the innovative nature of social entrepreneurs, very limited information is provided about the six items that make up the two scales, or how the two scales are brought together into one measure of social entrepreneurship. Further, many authors would argue that innovative activities are only one aspect of social entrepreneurship, and the measures described by Felicio et al. (2013) miss out on the dual social and financial motivations of social entrepreneurs (Austin et al., 2006; Dees, 1998; Dees, 2001; Mair & Marti, 2006).

Zhang and Swanson (2013) have shown the most direct approach to identification thus far. In their semi-structured telephone interviews with managers and founders of non-profit organizations, the authors asked “respondents if they considered their organizations to be social entrepreneurial” (Zhang & Swanson, 2013, p. 116). This question was then followed up with two items that asked the respondent to indicate the degrees to which their organizations emphasized business and social objectives in their missions. While these three items appear to have some validity, there appear to be some issues. First, it is biased to ask lay people whether or not their organization is social entrepreneurial or not due to the fact that the term “social entrepreneur” is not commonly understood in everyday use. Assumedly, the telephone interviewer would have been required to explain what a social entrepreneur was. Second, following up with items asking about mission emphasis would create a bias if the respondent did know what a social entrepreneur was, or, if the telephone interviewer had to explain what a social entrepreneur was. It is also difficult to accept that asking a single question about “social” or “business” missions would capture the full nature of a hybrid social venture. Either way, the result served as single item indicators with little to no reliability or validity (Crocker & Algina, 2008; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

Renko’s (2013) approach to identifying social entrepreneurship is unique in that she utilized secondary data from the PSED data set. Utilizing two items that asked about start-up motivations and opportunity identification, Renko (2013) identified 55 nascent social entrepreneurs from the dataset. However, the PSED data is problematic in itself. First, the two items utilized ask respondents to identify responses from lists of 44 and 62 categories respectively. This could be problematic as respondents scan the lists of categories and have difficulty placing their venture into one of the myriad of categories. Another possible issue with the dataset is the variance along the social entrepreneur identification variable that Renko (2013) uses. Only 55 of the 1,214 respondents from the PSED fit into the classification system, and any subsequent analysis would suffer from invariance. However, Renko (2013) did provide an intuitive workaround that screened out those respondents that could be classified as nascent entrepreneurs motivated only by financial gain. This step produced variance with 55 social entrepreneurs and 169 conventional entrepreneurs. While this approach is useful since it provides secondary data, the method is questionable based on the idea that it is a two-item scale with no validity or reliability tests to support it.

The final article from the identification literature is Lepoutre et al.'s (2013). Lepoutre et al. (2013) is unique for two specific reasons. First, the measure was designed to identify national levels of social entrepreneurial activity. Second, the measure attempts to capture social entrepreneurship in its dual nature of financial and social motivations via a scale of more than just a single item indicator. Lepoutre et al.'s (2013) efforts are impressive as the measure was included in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor and submitted to over 150,000+ respondents in over 80 countries. However, the measure developed is problematic for the following reasons. First, the measure is designed as an indicator of national level, individual based entrepreneurial activity. It intends to measure how many individuals in each country are involved in social entrepreneurial activities (and it does this very well). However, its use in identifying economic and social intentions in a single organization would be questionable since the items are designed to be aggregated to the national level only. This issue is similar to that of the debates from the cross-cultural literature on cultural values where individual level responses are not applicable to individual level analysis since the measures are designed to be aggregated and analyzed at the national level alone (Peterson & Castro, 2006; Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2010). In addition, the measures of activity do not identify actual organizations, but instead, identify individuals who may also be actively working towards starting a social organization. The measure would include individuals without an active organization that would be of little use in a study of actual organizations.

In summary, the previous work on identification has progressed along many different routes in a small number of studies with no specific way of identifying hybrid social ventures yet emerging. Many of the studies summarized above fail to follow proper methodological rigor in terms of assessing the reliability and validity of the measures that they created. For example, only one article (Felicio et al., 2013) reported a Cronbach's Alpha for the measure created, however, the measures validity was still questionable. Many of the studies summarized above commit the fatal mistake of utilizing single indicators that have poor outcomes. The literature suffers from a lack of established measurement tools that can easily and reliably identify social and economic goals simultaneously in a single organization for quantitative study.

Important findings and critiques of the outcomes literature. Similar to the literature on identification, the social entrepreneurship literature that has looked at social and economic outcomes is small and consists of only five articles. While the five articles pertaining to identification all used study specific measures, two articles in the outcomes literature (Kaplan, 2001; Palmer & Short, 2008) have attempted to utilize the balanced scorecard to observe social venture outcomes. The balanced scorecard was originally developed by Kaplan and Norton (1992) as a way for managers to supplement, "traditional financial measures with criteria that measured outcomes from three additional perspectives – those of customers, internal business processes, and learning and growth" (Kaplan & Norton, 1996, p. 75). Inspired by the balanced scorecard, Kaplan (2001) approached four nonprofit organizations to apply the balanced scorecard to their operations. He found that the four nonprofits had adapted the scorecard as a way organize their planning processes and develop measureable goals for specific functional departments. For example, one organization had set the goal to increase the scope of social impact and intended to measure the goal via the outcomes of its portfolio organizations.

While Kaplan's (2001) study existed more as a qualitative investigation of practical uses of the balanced scorecard, Palmer and Short's (2008) study is the only academic study I found according to the search methods described above to use of the balanced scorecard so far. Inspired by three of the four aspects of the balanced scorecard (financial, customer outcomes, and learning and growth), Palmer and Short (2008) obtained data from the AACSB such as operating budget per full-time faculty member, graduate and ungraduated business school rankings, and percentage of faculty with a doctorate degree. These measures were claimed to be valid outcome measures that could be generalized to all business schools in the study.

While the balanced scorecard has seen some success in at least one academic quantitative study, there are many limitations. In fairness to the balanced scorecard, it was originally designed for practitioners, and as Palmer and Short (2008, p. 461) note, their effort was to provide a "quasi-balanced scorecard" that could potentially apply to all business schools and their outcomes. This is one of the main issues with utilizing the balanced scorecard; it must be tailored to the individual organization or the specific sample of study (as was the case with the business school study above). Therefore, the balanced scorecard would not be applicable for use if the study intended to compare the outcomes of organizations across significantly differing social missions. Finally, the balanced scorecard was originally developed for managers in for-profit businesses (Kaplan & Norton, 1992; 1996) and it is not necessarily well equipped to capture the social and economic value creation intentions of modern organizations in the first place. The scorecard exists as a template for potential measures, but the creation of the specific measure is ultimately up to the individual manger or researcher.

One measure that has been designed specifically for academic use is that of Herman and Renz (1997) that has since been used by two other studies in modified forms (Brown, 2005; Felicio et al., 2013). Herman and Renz's (1997) original outcomes scale was designed based on the idea of measuring organizational effectiveness satisfaction of non-profit organizations. The scale contained nine items that asked respondents about their satisfaction with financial management, fundraising, program delivery, public relations, community collaboration, working with volunteers, human resource management, government relations, and board governance on a one-to-five scale. Herman and Renz (1997) reported decent results for this scale with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.85 and a satisfactory factor structure.

Social entrepreneurial research that has since used the Herman and Renz (1997) scale have both utilized a modified version of it. Neither state why they modified the scale. First, Brown (2005) utilizes a five item version of the scale that included items related to improvements for clients/customers, number of programs/services, quality of services, satisfaction of clients/consumers, and overall success of the organization in meeting goals. While Brown (2005) states the items are drawn from Herman and Renz (1997), they do not appear similar. Brown also reports satisfactory Cronbach Alpha and factor results. Finally, Felicio et al. (2013) report that they utilize a three item modified version of Brown's (2005) scale. The authors do not report why two items were dropped, however, they do report satisfactory reliability and factor analysis results.

While the original Herman and Renz (1997) scale showed promise, some issues may limit its use going forward. First, it has gone through major modifications from the original study that showed the validity of the scale to the point that it is even questionable that the same scale has been used in the subsequent studies (Brown, 2005; Felicio et al., 2013). Further, it is questionable whether the original scale is applicable to the study of both economic and social outcomes since it was published in 1997 with non-profits in mind and did not measure revenue generation through means other than donations. The subsequent changes made by Brown (2005) and Felicio et al. (2013) do attempt to make the scale more relevant for social entrepreneurial outcomes, however, the validity of the modified scales has not been assessed and has veered away from the original items.

Other attempts at measuring outcomes have utilized measures specifically designed by the researchers for their specific study. Sawhill and Williamson (2001) developed the "impact-activity-capacity" construct after a single case study based on interviews with a social organization. Once the authors had developed the construct, they then approached and interviewed senior managers from 30 well-known non-profit organizations. After discussing the "impact-activity-capacity" construct with the managers, Sawhill and Williamson (2001, p. 383) concluded from their interviews that, "performance measures must be tailored to the missions and goals of individual institutions", and that most fall within the construct's guidelines. While this makes sense from a practitioner's point of view, it is limited in its usefulness for academic quantitative studies. Similar to the balanced scorecard, measures that are specifically tailored are of no use when researchers are looking to make equal comparisons and use statistical analysis.

The final article that has measured outcomes is Zhang and Swanson (2013). The authors looked to determine how the use of nonfinancial outcome measures by social organizations affected the organizations' social outcomes. Specifically, the authors hypothesized that using nonfinancial measures (whatever they might be for each organization) would enhance social outcomes that were measured with a single item in that the respondent could indicate their organization directly caused social changes, delivered products and services that had social benefits, or used earned income to support social organizations (Zhang & Swanson, 2013). The outcomes measure developed by Zhang and Swanson (2013, p. 119) is unique in that it attempts to determine the, "magnitude of the social outcomes organizations generated". However, the measure is flawed in that respondents were only allowed to choose one way that generated social outcomes (listed above), and thus, each ended up being a single item dichotomous indicator in their statistical analyses. There was no way for the authors to conduct any reliability or validity analyses on these single item indicators.

Inferences for forthcoming study. My findings and critiques above point to an important call for improved measures for both identification and outcomes measures of hybrid social ventures. Many of the studies of identification and outcomes suffer from the same issues: the lack of multiple item scales that show reliable and valid results via statistical analysis. There is a glaring lack of established scale development specific for the research context of dual social and economic outcomes. The forthcoming study will address this issue by developing four main scales: one that identifies the salience of social and economic goals in a single organization and one that assesses their outcomes according to the dual nature of financial and social outcomes.

I will develop these scales using established methods from the entrepreneurship literature since many of the issues seen above have previously been solved by entrepreneurship scholars. For example, early entrepreneurship research that struggled to collect financial outcome data on entrepreneurial organizations has since found a solution to this issue by creating scales based on owner/manager's satisfaction with financial outcomes (see the following for examples: Bautista Delgado-Garcia et al., 2012; Chandler & Hanks, 1993; Paige & Littrell, 2002; Wang & Ang, 2004). Therefore, in the forthcoming study, I will develop scales utilizing the existing entrepreneurship literature that relates to individual respondents salience of and satisfaction with their organizations.

Description and Critique of the Organizational Imprinting Literature

Imprinting, as an academic idea, comes from late 19th century studies of animal behavior by biologists. Marquis and Tilcsik (2013) trace the first usage to Douglas Spalding, a British biologist, who observed that new born birds tended to follow the first object that they saw move. This was a behavior that was set into the repertoire as a result of early experiences. Subsequent work by Heinroth in 1911 and his student Konrad Lorenz in the 1930s led to the first time the biological phenomenon was labeled as "imprinting" (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013). According to Lorenz (1937), imprinting, in which early life experiences determine subsequent social behavior, was different from other forms of learning since it only occurred during very early periods of the animal's life and yet the behaviors learned endured for the life of the animal.

The organizational imprinting literature traces its roots to the two important works by Stinchcombe (1965) and Burns (1967). The basic hypothesis of organizational imprinting theory is that organizations are highly susceptible to the founding conditions of the organization's environment (Burns, 1967; Stinchcombe, 1965). Stinchcombe's (1965) original postulations were based on his efforts to determine how start-up organizations deal with the liability of newness inherent in young organizations. In order to overcome the initial liability of newness, organizations adopt their initial acceptable structures of organizing from the environment in order to appear legitimate to those constituents that hold needed resources for the start-up organization (Baron et al., 1999; Stinchcombe, 1965). Stinchcome (1965) then hypothesized that these initial structures of the organization would survive long past founding due to their continuing efficiency or due to inertial forces like traditions, ideology, or lack of competition. These original ideas showed why organizations initially looked the way they did when they were founded, and answered the question of why the history of an organization was important.

More recent theorizing has advanced organizational imprinting to accepted axioms in the literature. According to Johnson (2007), imprinting is a combination of two distinct processes into a single theory: the process of the founding context shaping the characteristics of the new organization and the process of those founding characteristics reproduced throughout the organization's lifetime. The initial imprinting process accepted in the literature is widely an acceptance of Stinchcome's (1965) work briefly summarized above while the enduring process is built on arguments from population ecology (Hannan & Freeman, 1984) and neo-institutional theory (J. W. Meyer & Rowan, 1991; Zucker, 1991). While original work focused on environmental conditions at the time of founding, Johnson (2007) notes that subsequent work by organizational ecologists, neo-institutionalists, and entrepreneurship scholars began to show the importance of founders in the imprinting process of initial organizational structures. In fact, Marquis and Tilcsik (2013, p. 215) note that, "some of the most compelling evidence about imprinting concerns the lasting effects of individual founders on organizations". While other levels of analyses exist (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013) the forthcoming study will focus on the two levels described here. The following review will look at the literatures of environmental factors imprints on organizations and individuals and their imprints on organizations.

General observations. Table 3 summarizes the 29 articles that fell in to the search criteria. The first general observation of the literature in the equal amount of attention that individual and environmental imprints have received. 10 articles have investigated environmental imprints specifically while 11 articles have looked at individual imprints specifically. Eight articles have looked at both types of imprints simultaneously. In total, 18 articles have used environmental imprinting arguments and 19 have used individual imprinting arguments.

Another interesting observation is the lack of pure conceptual work that has been done in the organizational imprinting literature. Only two studies that appeared in my search – Hannan and Freeman (1984) and Zyglidopoulos (1999) – were strictly conceptual and built new theory. This finding may be attributed to a few different explanations. First, the search conducted on the literature (described in the methods of review section above) was limited to academic journals and did not include books. Much of the early theoretical work in organizational imprinting appeared in seminal books such as Stinchcombe (1965) and Burns (1967). While these seminal arguments have been

Table 3. A Summary of the Organizational Imprinting Literature

Authors	Year	Journal	Source of Imprint - Environment/Individual	Conceptual/ Empirical	Quantitative/ Qualitative	Sample Size	Main Findings
Kimberly	1975	Administrative Science Quarterly	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	123	Organizational structure is the product of factors external to the organization that act as a constraint on the structure.
Meyer & Brown	1977	American Journal of Sociology	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	215	Historical origins in terms of founding date have a direct effect on the personnel procedures adopted by organizations.
Kimberly	1979	Academy of Management Journal	Both	Empirical	Qualitative	1	The interaction between environmental constraints and the personal characteristics of the founder act as a significant constraint on the early organization biography
Carroll & Delacroix	1982	Administrative Science Quarterly	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	2,474	The environment at the time of founding has a significant relationship with organization death rates and probabilities.
Schein	1983	Organizational Dynamics	Individual	Empirical	Qualitative	4	Personal traits and cultural experiences of the founder are imprinted onto organizations to form initial plans and strategy.
Hannan & Freeman	1984	American Sociological Review	Environment	Conceptual	N/A	N/A	Organizational inertia is a by-product of the selection and imprinting processes that established the firm. Older and larger organizations tend to be more inertial.
Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven	1990	Administrative Science Quarterly	Both	Empirical	Quantitative	92	Organizations founded in growth-stage markets are more likely to be large than those founded in emergent or mature markets. TMTs influence the growth of firms based on the teams past experiences together.
Kimberly & Bouchikhi	1995	Organization Science	Both	Empirical	Qualitative	1	Both the founding CEO's past experiences and the environment were found to significantly influence the original configuration of the new firm of study
Baron et al.	1996	Industrial and Corporate Change	Individual	Empirical	Both	100	Founder's employment models constrain subsequent evolution of HR policies and practices.

Table 3 (Cont'd). A Summary of the Organizational Imprinting Literature

Authors	Year	Journal	Source of Imprint - Environment/Individual	Conceptual/ Empirical	Quantitative/ Qualitative	Sample Size	Main Findings
Hannan et al.	1996	Industrial and Corporate Change	Individual	Empirical	Both	100	Founder's Employment models affect rates of change in TMTs, success in IPOs, and establishment of formal HR practices.
Bamford et al.	1999	Journal of Business Venturing	Both	Empirical	Quantitative	140	Initial founding conditions (environ.) and decisions (ind.) affect firm performance. These effects diminish over time.
Harris & Ogbonna	1999	Long Range Planning	Individual	Empirical	Qualitative	2	The original philosophy and strategy of a founder imprint the mission, objectives, and strategy formulation processes onto a new firm.
Zyglidopoulos	1999	Journal of Management Studies	Environment	Conceptual	N/A	N/A	Propositions relate the firm's initial environmental conditions to the technological trajectory using a "via media" thought that firms have some agency.
Phillips	2005	Administrative Science Quarterly	Individual	Empirical	Quantitative	421	Founders of new firms imprint HR practices relevant to female employees based on the HR practices at the firms they were at previously.
Kriauciunas & Kale	2006	Strategic Management Journal	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	67	Institutional and market based (socialist) imprinting both had a negative relationship with a firm's "knowledge set" change.
Burton & Beckman	2007	American Sociological Review	Individual	Empirical	Quantitative	1,950	Individuals that create a position at the time of firm founding imprint the position based on their own particular background.
Johnson	2007	American Journal of Sociology	Both	Empirical	Qualitative	1	Entrepreneurs' engagement with environmental resources and key stakeholders are responsible for organizational imprinting via efforts that are cultural.
Beckman & Burton	2008	Organization Science	Individual	Empirical	Quantitative	167	Organizations that have founders that imprint the organization with a wider range of functional structures will develop more complete structures over time.
Holburn & Zelner	2010	Strategic Management Journal	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	426	Host-country institutional constraints affect MNE FDI decisions based on the political capabilities imprinted on firms from the environment.

Table 3 (Cont'd). A Summary of the Organizational Imprinting Literature

Authors	Year	Journal	Source of Imprint - Environment/Individual	Conceptual/ Empirical	Quantitative/ Qualitative	Sample Size	Main Findings
Marquis & Huang	2010	Academy of Management Journal	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	25,000	Founding institutional environments delineate boundaries for organizational behaviors that lead firms to develop specific capabilities that are institutionalized over time and exaptated long after the environment changes.
Ding	2011	Management Science	Both	Empirical	Quantitative	512	Educational background of founders affect initial organizational strategy and can mitigate environmental imprinting effects.
Fauchart & Gruber	2011	Academy of Management Journal	Individual	Empirical	Qualitative	49	Founder's identities are imprinted onto an organization at the time of founding such that the initial mission and capabilities of the firm are a reflection of one of three basic entrepreneurial identities.
Shinkle & Kriauciunas	2012	Strategic Management Journal	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	538	Founding institutions dampen the ability for organizations to adapt to current institutions in terms of three specific performance aspirations.
Leung et al.	2013	Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice	Individual	Empirical	Quantitative	60	Characteristics of the founding team are imprinted on the organization at founding in the form of the consistency and distinctiveness of HR practices.
White et al.	2013	International Business Review	Environment	Empirical	Quantitative	316	MNEs are imprinted with their home country culture norms and use specific conflict strategies based on these norms when dealing with international contractual disputes.
Boeker	1989a	Academy of Management Journal	Both	Empirical	Quantitative	51	Firms that adopt a dominant strategy (based on individual choice and environmental factors) are less likely to change the strategy over time.
Boeker	1989b	Administrative Science Quarterly	Both	Empirical	Quantitative	53	The importance of functional areas within an organization was determined by entrepreneurial and environmental factors at the time of founding.
Baron et al.	1999a	Journal of Law, Economics, & Organization	Individual	Empirical	Quantitative	170	Founder's conceptions of employment relations and social make-up of an organization shape the bureaucratization of the organization.
Baron et al.	1999b	American Sociological Review	Individual	Empirical	Quantitative	76	The founder's employment model at the time of firm start-up influence the managerial intensity within the firm in terms of using a bureaucratic or commitment model of management

briefly reviewed above, these original authors did not label their arguments as "organizational imprinting"; it was later work that codified these arguments under the imprinting banner (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013). Another possible explanation for the lack of purely conceptual work is the simplified nature of organizational imprinting theory and its easy application to testing empirical arguments. With only three basic arguments to the theory (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013), many authors have been able to utilize it as an explanatory model for their empirical investigations. However, it should be noted that many of these empirical investigations have built new theory that has been incorporated into canonical understandings of imprinting.

Another possible reason why there has been a lack of purely conceptual articles may be due to the quality of the early qualitative work that was conducted in the literature. There have been eight qualitative pieces in this literature, many of which were conducted early in the history of the literature. For example, Kimberly (1979) and Schein (1983) are important citations for authors using organizational imprinting arguments. Later qualitative work by Hannan, Burton, and Baron (1996); Baron, Burton, and Hannan (1996); and Kimberly & Bouchikhi (1995) helped solidify imprinting arguments with compelling case studies. The tradition of solid qualitative work has been continued by Johnson's (2007) influential study that expanded on imprinting theory into both the individual and environmental levels of analyses. All of these Studies are highly cited in imprinting and other related literatures, and serve as a backbone for the theoretical arguments of the imprinting theory literature.

Important findings of the institutional environment imprinting literature. I classified an article into the institutional environmental imprinting literature if the author(s) made any arguments that linked any institutionally related environmental conditions at the time of organizational founding to constraints on organization behaviors. In this section, I will summarize the important findings from this literature according to the two main tenets of the theory. Scholars agree that imprinting is composed of two specific processes: the process of the founding context shaping the characteristics of the new organizations and the process of those founding characteristics reproduced throughout the organization's lifetime (Johnson, 2007; Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013). I will use these basic axioms to organize the review of environmental imprinting.

First, I will describe the knowledge of environments shaping the characteristics of new organizations. Kimberly's (1979) seminal analysis of a new medical school opening in 1971 showed that the environment first had to be open for a new organization of that type. The environment's openness to the new medical school in terms of political and institutional acceptance allowed the initial resources to be combined for the opening. Once the environment aligns to allow the formation of the organization, the environment then constrains the organizational form and initial strategies of the organization. Kimberly's (1975) influential analysis of sheltered workshops showed that they were constrained between two basic forms of organizing based on the time of founding. Sheltered workshops are rehab organizations that allow recovering individuals vocational training while producing sellable products. Kimberly (1975) found that workshops founded before or during World War II would be more likely to be production oriented while those founded after were more likely to be rehab oriented. This difference in orientation was tied directly to the institutional environment relevant to sheltered workshops at those periods. Post World War II, political acts combined with social movements changed the view and discourse on rehabilitation in general, and thus, organizations founded after that period in time were constrained to the new legitimate organizational form in order to increase "visibility to those individuals and agencies in society who control essential resources" (Kimberly, 1975, p. 8).

Kimberly's early conclusions that environment created openness for founding and constrained original configurations has since been shown in many different empirical studies. Meyer and Brown (1977) showed that founding dates were directly related to personnel procedures used by organizations. Kimberly and Bouchikhi (1995) showed that the institutional environment of a computer hardware and software retailer in France was integral to the original strategy as it constrained the possible strategic configurations. Zyglidopoulos (1999) proposed that an organization's initial environmental conditions determine the technological trajectory as the organization shows a limited amount of agency in the trajectories that it can choose at the time of founding. Also, Boeker (1989a) showed that the amount of importance organizations placed on functional units was a direct result of the environment at the time of founding. He found that semiconductor organizations determined whether research and development, marketing and sales, or manufacturing and production were more important based on whether they were founded during the "Military Market", "Commercial Market", "Price Competition", or "Custom Market" time frames. The environment at the time of founding determined which functional units must be prioritized when the organization was founded (Boeker, 1989a). Recent work has organized these studies proposing that they all point to the same conclusion: the environment at the time of founding sets the initial *capabilities* of the organization (Marquis & Huang, 2010). While Marquis and Huang (2010) were the first to label these studies using the strategy literature term of “capabilities” in their model, it is clear that all these studies are describing how the organization is originally constrained in terms of the capabilities that it will be able to create.

These findings have been replicated in the international context as well where home country environment is shown to be just as important at the time of founding. For example, Kriauciunas and Kale (2006) showed that a socialist institutional configuration in ex-Soviet Bloc countries directly affected a organization’s capabilities in terms of developing knowledge sets. Holburn and Zelner (2010) showed that the host country institutional constraints set the political capabilities of organizations when it came to foreign direct investment decisions. Finally, authors have also shown that conflict resolution capabilities in international contractual disputes are imprinted on to organizations based on home country culture norms (White, Hadjimarcou, Fainshmidt, & Posthuma, 2013). These studies all show that host country environment imprints specific capabilities on to organizations.

While the research cited above relates imprinting to capabilities, research has also shown how imprinting can be directly related to organizational outcomes. This line of research assumes that specific capabilities are imprinted according to the Marquis and Huang (2010) model without necessarily directly theorizing it, and instead, looks directly at organizational outcomes. For example, research has shown that initial founding conditions in terms of munificence, dynamism, and competitive intensity will have a significant impact on bank start-up outcomes in the years subsequent to founding (Bamford, Dean, & McDougall, 2000). Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven (1990) found that outcomes in terms of organization growth was directly related to organization strategies that were determined by environmental variables such as market size, market stage, and competitive concentration. In this case, Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven (1990) did not utilize capabilities as a mediator, but instead looked at specific organization strategies as being imprinted and used as a mediator. Finally, utilizing an imprinting theory perspective combined with a population ecology framework, Carroll and Delacroix (1982) showed that the environment in terms of the overall economy and political turmoil at the time of organization founding affected the death rates and probabilities of newspaper organizations in their sample. All three of these articles show that environmental imprinting can be used to predict organizational outcomes.

My review to this point has covered the first process of imprinting: the process of environmental conditions shaping initial capabilities and conditions of the organization. I also reviewed research that links this process to outcomes. However, there is additional research of environmental imprinting and the second basic imprinting process: the process of those founding capabilities and characteristics reproduced throughout the organization's lifetime. This process is related to the concept of organizational inertia, or, the idea that organizational change is costly, difficult, and/or undesirable due to institutionalization and therefore organizations resist changing architecture (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991a; 1991b; Hannan & Freeman, 1977; 1984; Jepperson, 1991; Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013). While the concept traces its origins to population ecology and institutional theory, the process is very similar to the idea of initial capabilities being reproduced according to imprinting theory. In their influential article, Hannan and Freeman (1984) argued that organizational inertia is a direct by-product of the imprinting process itself and that as organizations became larger they would become inherently more inertial.

Boeker (1989b) provided empirical support for this hypothesis when he showed that conditions at founding set the dominant initial strategy of semiconductor organizations, and their ability to adapt later on was severely limited due to internal commitments and investments in facilities, personnel, and other unique resources. Recent work by Shinkle and Kriauciunas (2012) has shown that environmental imprinting in the form of founding institutions actually hinder an organization's ability to adapt to future institutional configurations. They found that organizations founded in communist states that have since turned to market based institutional environments were unable to adapt their competitive aspirations (Shinkle & Kriauciunas, 2012). All of these studies support the second main tenet of organizational imprinting: that imprinted conditions reproduce over time and are unlikely to change.

Important findings of the individual imprinting literature. Similar to the literature on environmental imprinting, individual level imprinting also stresses that imprints from founding individuals set the initial and enduring capabilities and strategies of organizations. The arguments for individual level imprinting are similar to those seen above: the founders act in a way to constrain those capabilities and strategies that can be implemented based on their personal biography, experiences, socializations, and/or identities. Whereas environmental imprints have been found to predominantly affect capabilities, individual imprints have been found to be highly influential on strategy, mission, philosophy, objectives, and strategy formulation processes (Harris & Ogbonna, 1999; Schein, 1983).

However, individual imprints have also been found to be important for setting capabilities as well. For example, Beckman and Burton (2008) found that founders with broader experiences and founding teams with more diverse founders were imprinted with more diverse functional structures and were more likely to develop more complete functional structures. Fauchart and Gruber (2011) combined individual imprinting with an identity theory approach to develop three unique entrepreneurial identities. These unique identities were found to significantly affect the initial mission and capabilities of the organization such that “Darwinians” imprinted cost-effective and mass-production capabilities, “Communitarians” imprinted individualized and artisanal production methods relying on personal capabilities, and “Missionaries” imprinted socially responsible production method capabilities. Therefore, individual imprinting has been connected to both capabilities and strategies as what is actually transferred to the organization from the individual. Similar to environmental imprinting, the individual imprints are seen to be inertial and enduring throughout the life of the organization.

While the two previous studies discuss more general capabilities, a large number of studies from the individual imprinting literature deal with human resource capabilities. This line of the literature follows the lead of the two original articles from 1996 published by Baron, Burton, and Hannan. For example, Hannan et al. (1996) found that the individual founder’s employment model was imprinted on the organization and affected the establishment of formal human resource practices and capabilities. Baron et al. (1996) then found that the individual founder’s employment model constrained any subsequent change in the human resource policies and practices of the organization. These two studies were then followed up by two more studies in three years by the same research team with the same longitudinal data set. Baron et al. (1999a) found that the founder’s employment model influenced the managerial style within the organization such that a bureaucratic or commitment style of management was imprinted on to the organization. Baron et al. (1999b) then found that the overall bureaucratization of the organization was imprinted via the founder's conceptions of employment relations at the time of founding.

Other researchers have since followed up these human resources based studies. For example, Phillips (2005) found that law organizations were imprinted with the founder's propensity towards women leaders in law organizations based on the founder's experience in their previous employer's law organization. When lawyers went on to found their own organizations, Phillips (2005) found that they replicated their experiences with female promotion and partnering in their old organization and imprinted them into their new organization. It has also been shown by researchers that the characteristics of the founding team are directly related to the consistency and distinctiveness of human resource practices (Leung, Foo, & Chaturvedi, 2013). Specifically, Leung et al. (2013) found that shared organizational experiences among the founding team positively predicted internal consistency and distinctiveness of the dominant human resources values while founding team diversity predicted distinctiveness. Finally, Burton and Beckman (2007) showed that the individuals that founded a position within an organization imprinted their own personal characteristics on that position that endured after the individual left the position. Taken together, these human resources based capabilities show how individuals imprint specific processes and capabilities on to organizations based on their own specific backgrounds.

Critique of the imprinting literature. In the sections above, I have reviewed the environmental and individual imprinting literatures. In this section, I will present specific critiques of these literatures. I will start with my main critique: the lack of multilevel studies that incorporate both of these levels. While a number of studies in Table 3 show major studies that have utilized both levels, many of these studies fail to create theory that specifically links the levels together. Instead, many of the studies simply create hypotheses at the two separate levels, or, treat each level of analysis as the same (for examples, see: Bamford et al., 2000; Boeker, 1989b; Kimberly & Bouchikhi, 1995). Only two articles build theory that links the two levels together. First, Johnson (2007) found in her qualitative study of the founding of the Paris Opera House that entrepreneurs engage with environmental resources and key stakeholders to create the original organizational imprint. She theorized that the imprinting process (whether environmental or individual) went through the founding entrepreneur via their efforts guided by culture on to the organization (Johnson, 2007). Second, is the research by Ding (2011) who found that the educational backgrounds of founders set the initial strategy for the organization, but also, mitigated environmental imprinting effects. Of all the articles reviewed, only Ding (2011) theorized and showed evidence of mitigating imprinting effects and it was present only when the levels were analyzed together.

The unique findings from these two studies point to the importance of more research that simultaneously uses both levels while still recognizing that they work in unique ways. For example, one of the particularly disappointing aspects of the model presented by Marquis and Huang (2010) seen in Chapter 1 is the fact that it exists only at the environmental level. The model itself is extremely valuable in the way that it specifically links imprinting, strategy, and capabilities, however, it has left out what is, "some of the most compelling evidence about imprinting… (the) effects of individual founders on organizations" (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013, p. 215).

My second critique of the literature is the lack of compelling evidence that there is only a single sensitive period at founding when imprinting is possible. In their recent review, Marquis and Tilcsik (2013) raise the question of multiple sensitive periods when imprinting may be possible. For example, Beckman and Burton (2008) show that top management team turnover has interesting effects on whether a organization carries out an initial public offering. Their conclusion is specific: “organizations benefit from entrances and are hindered by exits” (Beckman & Burton, 2008, p. 13). Does this imply that turnover is an opportunity for additional imprints? Marquis and Tilcsik (2013) point to Johnson’s (2007) study of the Paris Opera House that was founded in the 1600’s; have additional imprints been layered over the original ones, or have they even replaced them altogether? There has been little to no investigation of if there are subsequent opportunities for new imprints.

Another major critique I have is the idea of multiple imprints. Most of the literature at the individual and environmental level discusses “the” imprint on the organization as the only possible imprint. How do multiple imprints affect organizations? Do they act in concert, or, do they distort and confuse each other. For the most part, the literatures are silent on this concept and it is relatively unexplored.

Inferences for the forthcoming study. Taking the review and critiques presented above together, I will now extrapolate some implications for the forthcoming study. First, it is important that the forthcoming study avoid the main pitfall discovered from the review above: the multilevel model that is developed should not ignore the interplay between both individual and organizational imprints. The theory being developed will attempt to bring them together in a way that potentially speaks to the idea of multiple supporting or competing imprints.

At the same time, I want to emphasize that the forthcoming study will not attempt to be overly critical of the imprinting literature. As it was seen in the review, imprinting has been used successfully over the years in a number of empirical studies with a large amount of success in explaining phenomenon. Much of this can be attributed to the straightforward nature of the theory, and therefore, I intend to utilized the basic axioms of the theory as they currently exist. The forthcoming study will attempt to build on these basics in a way that expands the existing theory without throwing out what the literature currently has shown to be valid.

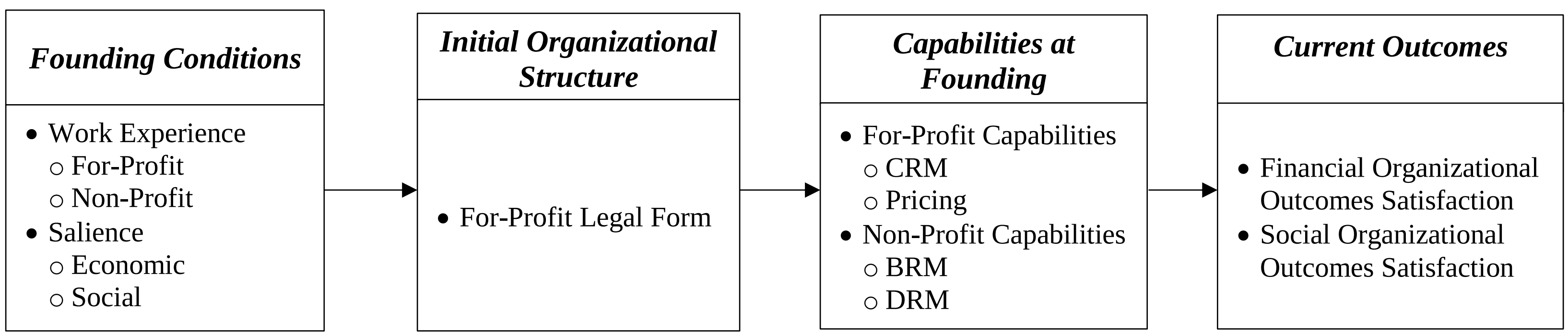
Chapter 3: Research Model and Hypotheses

In this chapter, I will utilize the knowledge I developed from my review in Chapter 2 in order to present a research model and hypotheses to answer the research question of my dissertation: What effect does imprinting have on founders' satisfaction with social and financial outcomes of their ventures? As I stated in Chapter 2, my approach to answering this question will be grounded in organizational imprinting theory arguments.

Theoretical Model

As I outlined in Chapters 1 and 2, my theoretical model is based on organizational imprinting theory, and more specifically, I build on and test aspects Marquis and Huang's (2010) theoretical model. I have recreated this model in Figure 1. Marquis and Huang's (2010) theoretical model guided their research on U.S. commercial banks as they built and tested hypotheses related to exaptation of existing organizational capabilities. While this was the first model proposed to directly link imprinting to the generalized idea of capabilities (all other work before them related imprinting to individual capabilities), it lacks in the following ways. First, the link between imprinting and capabilities looks only at founding institutional conditions, and does not take into account the role of individual founders. I show in my review in Chapter 2 that by leaving

Figure 2. A Process Model of Imprinting Effects on Outcomes



out individuals, a large portion of the imprinting story is being lost. Second, Marquis and Huang's (2010) model does not directly link capabilities to organizational outcomes. Instead, their research looks at subsequent organizational activities as a part of the exaptation process, or how organizations utilize imprinted capabilities after there is a drastic change to the organization or the organization's environment. Finally, Marquis and Huang's (2010, p. 1463) research design was, "not able to measure the underlying capabilities but relied on… historical data to provide qualitative evidence for the mechanism". While they proposed that organization structure and capabilities mediated the imprinting – subsequent activities relationship, they did not directly hypothesize and test these relationships. Instead, imprinting was directly hypothesized to affect subsequent activities with capabilities assumed to be a mediator.

With these three deficiencies in mind, the model and hypotheses I present below further investigate and expand on the Marquis and Huang (2010) model seen in Figure 1. My work avoids these issues by combining individual and environmental conditions as antecedents, directly considering organizational structure and capabilities, and utilizing organizational outcomes as the dependent variable of the model. First, I directly relate institutional and individual level imprinting effects to organizational structure and capabilities. For the purposes of my study, structure is understood as the legal form of the organization (either for-profit or non-profit). Next, these imprinting based capabilities developed at the time of organization founding are related to current levels of organizational outcomes satisfaction. My theoretical work builds upon the existing understandings of organizational imprinting while explicitly testing previously untested relationships in a context that explains how the paths individuals and organizations take to social and economic intentions affect the eventual social and economic outcomes of the organization. I present my theoretical model in Figure 2, and argue for those relationships in the hypotheses below.

Founding Conditions Effects on Initial Organizational Structure

As I showed in my review in Chapter 2, institutions and founders at the time of organization founding play a pivotal role in initial organizational imprinting. Of those studies that I reviewed, many directly linked imprinting at the time of founding to initial organizational capabilities (Boeker, 1989a; Holburn & Zelner, 2010; Kriauciunas & Kale, 2006; Marquis & Huang, 2010; M. W. Meyer & Brown, 1977; White et al., 2013). However, Marquis and Huang (2009; 2010) point out that enduring organizational capabilities are not simply a product of founding conditions. Instead, founding conditions affect the initial structure of the organization that then lays the groundwork for strategies and experiences that create initial organizational capabilities. I focus on initial structures in terms of the legal form of the organization since this best provides an indication of the financial or social strategic intent at the organization's inception.

Johnson (2007) argues that organizations are not imprinted strictly by the environment or founders separately, but instead are imprinted by the founders as they engage with and are constrained by their environments. As Johnson (2007) states:

> While the language of imprinting implies that the environment itself somehow stamps particular elements onto the new organization, it is in fact solely through the efforts of entrepreneurial individuals that organizations acquire the

elements from their historical contexts that, should they persist, are often asserted to have been ‘imprinted’ at founding. (p. 117)

This combinative process of imprinting contradicts Marquis and Huang’s (2010) view of founding conditions only being environmental, therefore, my model broadens the focus away from only institutions and instead accounts for the combination effects of individuals and institutions together. Specifically I focus on the following founding conditions: the founders previous work experience and the economic and social salience of the organization at founding.

According to Beckman and Burton (2008, p. 5), the process through which founders imprint organizations is composed of two main ideas, “background experiences shape a person’s world view and… people carry their prior experiences with them across organizational settings”. First, the idea that background experiences shape a person’s world view is similar to the idea of individual socializations according to the classical understanding of Berger and Luckmann (1967). The organizational imprinting literature points to the individuals’ work history prior to founding their organization as the source of socializations that set cognitions, understandings, and heuristics (Beckman & Burton, 2008; Hannan et al., 1996; Harris & Ogbonna, 1999; Schein, 1983). As Hannan et al. (1996, p. 514) found in their study of Silicon Valley startups, “most of the founders have worked previously in other ventures within the Valley and are therefore well aware of what the prototypical Silicon Valley start-up is 'supposed' to look like”. Further they noted that established organizations such as HP, DEC, IBM, Apple, and Oracle served, “as a model to be emulated” (1996, p. 514).

So what is the exact method through which people receive socializations prior to starting their own organization? Being part of an organization often starts with an initial socialization process. Organizations initiate new members with specialized training that communicates organizational culture, processes, and routines through many different forms of discourse such as lectures, printed material, videos, on the job training, etc. (Allen, 2006; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Phillips, Lawrence, and Hardy (2004) describe the link between discourse, socialization, and institutionalization as the following: discourse is the main way through which institutions and their logics are built, changed, and transmitted. Therefore, the initial discourse individuals receive at a new organization serves as the initial transmissions of the organizations culture and processes. The transmission of the discourse to the individual is the socialization process in action, and it continues long after the individual has made it through the initiation process. Over time, the socialization via discourse continues until the individual leaves the organization via methods such as continued training, organizational meetings, and internal communications. Over time, individuals are socialized to the different structures that are present in a organization as they are exposed to more discourse.

My discussion so far now leads to the second main idea according to Beckman and Burton (2008): the idea that founders carry their prior experiences and socializations to new organizations. In effect, individual founders reproduces that what they know best in a new organization they are starting. In the context of for-profits and non-profits, the type of organizational form that founders will imprint on their startup will depend on the socializations they received from the previous work experiences that founders carry with them. Founders that have primarily been exposed to for-profit organizations will be socialized and exposed to the strategies and structures that have been present in those for-profits and the for-profit legal form. When the time comes for those founders to start their own organizations, the for-profit legal form will be the one that they are most familiar. According to Johnson (2007), this process of socializations from previous work experiences unites the institutional environment and founders as founders imprint their new organizations with structures according to what institutions they were previously socialized.

Hypothesis 1a: Founders' previous for-profit work experience is positively related to a for-profit legal form at founding.

Similar to my arguments above, individuals with non-profit work experience are more likely to imprint a non-profit form on to an organization they are founding, and thus less likely to imprint a for-profit form. For example, individuals that have a large amount of experience working at a food bank will have a predisposition to create a non-profit when they go to create an organization. First, due to the founder's experience at a food bank, he or she will be more likely to spot an opportunity for a non-profit opportunity since the experiences this particular founder has had have exposed him or her to the non-profit organizational field (Cliff, Jennings, & Greenwood, 2006). The founder's experiences, social networks, and day-to-day activities are exposed to the non-profit community and organizational field, therefore, non-profit opportunities are much more likely to be discovered or recognized. Second, individuals that have mostly non-profit work experience will only have knowledge of non-profit structures, strategies, and capabilities. Therefore, the founder would only be able to reproduce that structure that he or she knows best.

Hypothesis 1b: Founders' previous non-profit work experience is negatively related to a for-profit legal form at founding.

The second set of founding conditions that effects the initial structure of organizations is the social and economic salience of the founder at the time of founding. Social and economic salience are both constructs that I develop here to account for the purpose that the founder intends for the organization. By intentions, I refer to the work that links entrepreneurial intentions to eventual entrepreneurial behaviors (Ajzen, 1988; Krueger & Reilly, 2000; Lortie & Castogiovanni, 2015). I define economic salience as the value a founder places on revenue generating missions, visions, goals, and intended outcomes of the organization. Social salience is then understood as the value a founder places on public welfare and environmental missions, visions, goals, and intended outcomes of the organization.

Similar to work experience, social and economic salience are not simply determined by the individual or environment alone, but instead through an interaction of the individual with the environment. First, the economic and social salience of founders will be influenced by the nature of the opportunity that founders recognize in the environment. Depending on the specific nature of the opportunity recognized in the environment, the founder's economic or social salience will shift to match the opportunity. For example, an entrepreneur that recognizes an opportunity to fill demand for a Spanish style shoe in the United States that could potentially be worth millions of dollars in revenue. This entrepreneur would be influenced by the nature of the opportunity to have a strong economic salience, one with visions and intentions of financial gain and success. This would be similar to TOMS Shoes and Blake Mycoskie that saw the opportunity to sell Argentine Alpargata shoes in the United States (Hackel, 2012).

Further, individuals' primary and secondary socializations will also shape their personal economic and social salience dispositions. While the discussion of previous work experience above can be understood according to what Berger and Luckmann (1967) referred to as secondary socializations, individuals' personal economic and social saliences are influenced via primary socializations received at younger ages from the family unit and secondary socializations received by later life experiences. For example, perhaps an individual grows up with parents that are successful business people. That individual will grow up with primary socializations that are highly influenced by capitalistic ideals and experiences. While these primary socializations set the initial economic salience, a founder will then set the final economic salience as they discover a specific opportunity.

Similarly, returning to the idea of Blake Mycoskie and TOMS Shoes, while Mycoskie recognized the economic gains possible from the unique shoe design and developed the appropriate economic salience, he was also influence by powerful secondary socializations when he saw first-hand the poverty across different parts of South America (Hackel, 2012). These powerful experiences later in Mycoskie's life influenced him to develop a strong social salience as well when he went to found TOMS.

Therefore, both the opportunity itself and primary and secondary socializations will set the salience of the individual.

Hypothesis 2a: Founder economic salience is positively related to a for-profit legal form at founding.

Similarly, social salience is set by primary and secondary socializations and the opportunity discovered. While the example of TOMS Shoes demonstrates a secondary socialization that influenced a strong social salience, primary socialization may influence the economic and social salience as well. For example, founders that were socialized in religious institutions from a young age may identify more with altruistic and selfless ideals that ultimately affect their personal social salience. These overall socializations combined with the specific opportunity recognized in the environment sets the founder's specific social saliences at the time of founding for that specific organization.

Hypothesis 2b: Founder social salience is negatively related to a for-profit legal form at founding.

Initial Organizational Structure Effects on Capabilities at Founding

Organizational structure, in terms of legal form, is important in shaping the initial organizational capabilities of the organization. In the most basic sense, organizational capabilities refer to how organizations deploy, utilize, and combine resources to generate competitive advantages (Sirmon, Hitt, & Ireland, 2007; Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997; Teece, 2007). Rather than attempt to elucidate every type of capability for every type of organization, I instead assume for the purpose of this study that for-profit and non-profit capabilities are those capabilities that allow that organization type to fulfill its specified missions and goals. In particular, I focus on the following four capabilities, as shown in Figure 2: customer relationship management capabilities, pricing capabilities, beneficiary relationship management capabilities, and donor relationship management capabilities. As defined by Orr, Bush, and Vorhies (2011, p. 1075), customer relationship management capabilities are, “those resource deployments that reflect the firm's ability to establish and maintain beneficial relationships with target customers”. Pricing capabilities are understood as an organization’s ability to set the correct price of its product or service based on both internal (i.e. organization strategy) and external factors (i.e. competitors prices and/or customer demands) (Liozu & Hinterhuber, 2014). Finally, beneficiary and donor relationship management capabilities are understood as an organization’s ability to deploy resources to establish and maintain beneficial relationships with target beneficiaries (those that benefit from the activities of the organization) or target donors respectively. These four capabilities represent prototypical for-profit and non-profit capabilities as they are key to allowing for-profits (with customer relationship management capabilities and pricing capabilities) and non-profits (with beneficiary relationship management and donor relationship management capabilities) to fulfill their specified missions and goals. Therefore, I have chosen them as the main capabilities of analysis since they should conceivably be present in all prototypical for-profits or non-profits while also being mutually exclusive of the other prototypical structure.

As Marquis and Huang (2010) describe, the structures of organizations set by imprinting mechanisms allow for the foundations of organizational capabilities. This occurs as the initial structure that is imprinted then sets the first set of strategies for the organization. These strategies determine the capabilities that are most relevant to the organization. For example, a food bank (a non-profit structure) sets the initial strategies for the organization in terms of feeding a certain group of people as the main beneficiary of the organization. The food bank adopts the non-profit legal form and is then imprinted with those capabilities that the non-profit structure supports as legitimate for that food bank. The beneficiary relationship management capability would be one of the main capabilities that the food bank would look to create upon founding as it would represent a key part of the organization's strategy to feed hungry people. The food bank at the time of founding adopts those practices and capabilities according to what the non-profit structure suggests are most appropriate. Similarly, a for-profit would be imprinted with those capabilities that are most relevant to for-profit organizations.

For-profit structures have specific visions and goals that involve revenue generation through sales. In order to successfully sell products and services, the for-profit must understand and relate to the customers that they are targeting. Therefore, customer relationship management capabilities must be present in order for the for-profit to successfully develop products and services that customers will be willing to buy.

Hypothesis 3a: For-profit legal forms at founding are positively related to customer relationship management capabilities at founding.

While customer relationship management capabilities assess the ability of the for-profit to understand the organization's target market, pricing capabilities determine whether the organization can correctly price its product and service depending on its own resources/strategies and the external factors such as competitors' prices and market elasticity. For-profit structures imply strategies that set the foundation for the creation of pricing capabilities.

Hypothesis 3b: For-profit legal forms at founding are positively related to customer pricing capabilities at founding.

In terms of non-profit legal forms and structures, the beneficiary relationship management capability will be directly related to the non-profit's strategy and vision. As the non-profit outlines who exactly the beneficiary of the organization will be in the mission statement, strategies will then be put in place to develop the necessary beneficiary relationship management capabilities that will allow the organization to ensure they are fulfilling the mission. The non-profit form and structure lays the framework for the mission and strategies to create the beneficiary relationship management capability. Since legal forms are viewed here as for-profit versus non-profit, these "non-profit" arguments suggest a negative relationship with the for-profit forms.

Hypothesis 4a: For-profit legal forms at founding are negatively related to beneficiary relationship management capabilities at founding.

Finally, the very strategy by which non-profits operate with a philanthropic revenue model places strategies that create donor relationship management capabilities at the forefront of the non-profit structure. The non-profit form creates the very need for donor relationship management capabilities in or to ensure that the organization can exist in the first place.

Hypothesis 4b: For-profit legal forms at founding are negatively related to donor relationship management capabilities at founding.

Capabilities at Founding Effects on Current Organizational Outcome Satisfaction

So far, I have argued that organizational imprinting theory supports the idea that institutions and individuals affect the initial structure and capabilities of organizations. My arguments have been inspired by Marquis and Huang's (2010) proposition that imprinting affects capabilities as seen in Figure 1. However, the work by Marquis and Huang (2010) did not link initial capabilities to organizational outcome satisfaction. While this was understandable given their research question, their model is a bit misleading given the large amount of research that has linked capabilities to quantitative outcomes and/or outcome satisfaction (Carmeli & Tishler, 2004; Lee, Lee, & Pennings, 2001; Orr et al., 2011; Teece et al., 1997; Teece, 2002; Teece, 2007; Tracey, Lim, & Vonderembse, 2005; Vorhies, Morgan, & Autry, 2009; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2003). In essence, the organizational imprinting literature has linked imprinting to outcomes and imprinting to capabilities. The strategy and entrepreneurship literatures have linked capabilities to outcomes. Yet, imprinting, capabilities, and outcome satisfaction research in a single integrated model is limited. While the mediating link may seem obvious (imprinting affects capabilities that affect outcomes satisfaction), it is not quite so. This is because of the two main imprinting mechanisms that I reviewed in Chapter 2; namely, founding contexts shaping initial organizational characteristics (my arguments in hypotheses one through four above) and the process of those founding characteristics reproducing and enduring over the life of the organization. Therefore, a proper test of imprinting arguments would not link capabilities to outcome satisfaction, but instead would link the initial capabilities at founding to current levels of organizational outcome satisfaction. This span of time allows for a proper assessment of the full imprinting argument.

So what are the processes that control initial capabilities influencing current levels of organizational outcome satisfaction for founders? I argue that there are two main ideas, one each from the imprinting and strategy literatures respectively. The first idea that links initial capabilities to current outcomes is the imprinting theory arguments that initial organizational characteristics, once imprinted, are reproduced and endure over the course of organizations' lifetimes. This argument is referred to as organizational inertia (Hannan & Freeman, 1984). According to imprinting and institutional arguments, organizations are inertial since change is costly, difficult, and/or undesirable due to institutionalization (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991a; 1991b; Hannan & Freeman, 1977; 1984; Jepperson, 1991). Hannan and Freeman (1984) argue that inertia is a by-product of the imprinting process itself, and that as organizations grow larger, inertia has a greater affect. In many ways, capabilities can themselves become institutionalized within an organization to the point that they exist long past their initial intended use. As Marquis and Huang (2010, p. 1442) state, "capabilities frequently are institutionalized and thus persist as they become repositories of organizational knowledge" and "actors in organizations become cognitively committed to inherited cultural scripts and routines". Marquis and Huang (2010) go on to show that capabilities can also go through the exaptation process, or, be used for a different purpose after a significant change to the organization or its environment. So for example, a for-profit may initially be imprinted with pricing capabilities, but then after converting to a hybrid social venture form, utilize those existing pricing capabilities in the new organizational form. Alternatively, a non-profit may imprint beneficiary relationship management capabilities that allow them to efficiently deploy social wealth to beneficiaries, and after converting to a hybrid social venture form, continue to utilize that capability in order to help beneficiaries while the revenue model has changed from philanthropic based to sales based.

The second idea that links imprinted capabilities to current levels of outcome satisfaction is the existing research from the strategy and entrepreneurship literatures that link current capabilities to current organizational outcomes. I argue that if the organizational inertia arguments hold true, then imprinted capabilities should continue to be valuable to organizations as they change over time and the capabilities are put to new uses via exaptation. Note that the capabilities themselves remain relatively unchanged due to the imprinting process, and instead, they begin to be used for different purposes or in different ways. Organizations will go through the exaptation process and use the capabilities that have been imprinted due to the inertia of the organizations rather than abandon the established capabilities altogether.

In terms of customer relationship management capabilities, for-profit organizations will continue to utilize the capability throughout the life of the organization. The financial organizational outcome satisfaction will be directly related to the strength of the capability. In addition, if a for-profit transitions into a hybrid social venture, then the customer relationship management capabilities go through the exaptation process and will continue to be of use and the new organization configuration as the hybrid social venture would still have a need for understanding and relating to the customer segments that it targets.

Hypothesis 5a: Customer relationship management capabilities at founding are positively related to current levels of financial organizational outcomes satisfaction.

Similar to customer relationship management capabilities, pricing capabilities developed at founding will continue to be relevant to current levels of organizational financial organizational outcomes satisfaction as for-profits will continually need the ability to correctly price products and services. In the event that the for-profit transfers to a hybrid social venture, the organization will use exaptation and the pricing capabilities will be used in the revenue generation portion of the hybrid social venture organization.

Hypothesis 5b: Pricing capabilities at founding are positively related to current levels of financial organizational outcomes satisfaction.

The following hypotheses for non-profit capabilities and current social organizational outcomes satisfaction are similar to those present in hypothesis five. Beneficiary relationship management capabilities are important to non-profits in all stages of existence as they all the non-profit to ensure that they are providing beneficiaries with the services or substances they require in a timely manner. Even if the non-profit transitions and becomes a hybrid social venture, the beneficiary relationship management capabilities will still be required in order to facilitate the distribution of social wealth according to the organization's new mission.

Hypothesis 6a: Beneficiary relationship management capabilities at founding are positively related to current levels of social organizational outcomes satisfaction.

Finally, donor relationship management capabilities imprinted at the time of founding will continue to be an important factor in current levels of organizational social outcomes satisfaction over the full tenure of the organization. Regardless of whether the organization has remained a non-profit or has transformed in to a hybrid social venture, the capabilities to relate with important stakeholders such as donors will continue to affect the satisfaction that founders have with social organizational outcomes.

Hypothesis 6b: Donor relationship management capabilities at founding are positively related to current levels of social organizational outcomes satisfaction.

Mediation Effects

As I show in Figure 2, I theorize two mediation effects in my theoretical model. First, as Marquis and Huang (2010) theorized, the initial structure of the organization will mediate the founding conditions and the initial organizational capabilities. These mediated relationships come from a causal relationship between founding conditions, initial structure, and initial capabilities. Before the organization is founded, the founding conditions of the environment and founder are set and influence the initial organizational structure that is chosen and put into place. As the initial structure is formalized, subsequent strategy is formed that subsequently affects the initial capabilities that are created within the organization.

Hypothesis 7a: The relationship between the four founding condition constructs and the four organizational capabilities at founding constructs is mediated by the initial organizational structure.

Similarly, the initial organizational structure and current outcomes are mediated by the organizational capabilities at founding. The justification for this mediated relationship also leads from a causal argument. One of the first decisions founders will make is the initial structure of their new organization. Often times, this decision is so basic that it is often made unconsciously since it is tied so closely to the basic idea of the organization. As the structure is formalized, founders are then able to conclude what type of capabilities they will need to acquire or create. These capabilities at the time of founding will then endure via organizational inertia (Hannan & Freeman, 1984; Hannan et al., 1996) and effect the current outcomes of the organization.

Hypothesis 7b: The relationship between the initial organizational structure and the two current outcome constructs is mediated by the four capabilities at founding constructs.

Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology

In this chapter, I will discuss the research design and methodology that I will use in order to test the hypotheses I proposed in Chapter 3. I will start by describing the sample collected and then move on to outline the independent, dependent, and control variables. Finally, I will discuss the analysis methods for establishing the measurement model and testing hypotheses.

Sample

To test the idea that imprinting effects ultimately affect the outcome satisfaction of organization founders focused on creating social and financial wealth, a sample of organization founders producing varying degrees of social and financial wealth is required. I utilized Donor Community, an online fundraising and event management software solution, to collect the appropriate data. Donor Community's customers include both non-profit and for-profit organizations that utilize their online cloud computing platform for fundraising, website content management, customer relationship management, and online marketing. Donor Community has a varied customer base in terms of the size, age, and goals of the organizations. I received access to Donor Community's customer list including email addresses and phone numbers. My sampling process followed the following procedure. First, I sent founders an online survey via the email contact that was provided by Donor Community. I then followed up these initial emails with reminder phone calls and emails to ensure an adequate response rate about one to two weeks after the initial solicitation. In addition, founders that responded were asked to forward a smaller version of the survey to a current manager of their organization. Specifically, the first three variables of the model (founder work experience, founder salience, and organizational legal form) are relatively bias free since they are either matter of fact, or based on the individual attitudes of the founders themselves. However, the capabilities and current outcomes variables could be suspect to bias and exist at the organizational level where it is possible to verify via other managers' responses. Therefore, the manager responses were used to investigate for the presence of bias in the four capabilities and two outcomes measures by evaluating the correlations and inter-rater reliabilities between the founders and managers.

A total of 1253 emails were sent with survey links. All non-responses to the initial email received a total of six reminder emails over a period of six months. I also attempted to call 122 founders whose phone numbers were provided by Donor Community. This process resulted in a total of 150 complete responses with no missing data (a response rate of 12%). This response rate is similar or slightly higher than previous research on entrepreneurs using an email based survey method (Ozgen & Baron, 2007). Of these 150 responses, I received 32 complete matching-pair responses from managers (21% of the 150 complete responses).

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables of the study are financial organizational outcomes satisfaction and social organizational outcomes satisfaction. As I showed in my review above, the social entrepreneurship literature has yet to develop suitable measures for evaluating the dual outcome objectives of hybrid social ventures. Here, I briefly define and discuss both the financial organizational outcomes satisfaction and social organizational outcomes satisfaction constructs.

I define the financial organizational outcomes satisfaction construct as the individual's personal satisfaction with the financial outcomes of the organization. Financial satisfaction is an established construct for measuring organization outcomes in entrepreneurship. Work by Chandler & Hanks (1993) outlined the difficulties in procuring financial outcomes information on small, emerging organizations. Unlike large, publicly traded organizations, new ventures lack public data, are not required to disclose financial data, and are sometimes hesitant to disclose objective outcomes information. Therefore, researchers have adopted financial organizational outcomes satisfaction as an acceptable construct in the literature, with established validity and reliability (see the following for good examples: Bautista Delgado-Garcia et al., 2012; Chandler & Hanks, 1993; Paige & Littrell, 2002; Wang & Ang, 2004). The main issue with these previous efforts has been the lack of consistency in items used. For example, the four studies listed previously (Bautista Delgado-Garcia et al., 2012; Chandler & Hanks, 1993; Paige & Littrell, 2002; Wang & Ang, 2004) all have adopted different sets of items, some of which are very similar, but some of which are quite different. Therefore, these existing uses in the literature were used to help guide item generation for my financial organizational outcomes satisfaction measure.

Similar to the financial organizational outcomes satisfaction construct above, I define the social organizational outcomes satisfaction construct as the individual's personal satisfaction with the social outcomes of the organization. I believe that social outcomes are similar to financial outcomes in that asking respondents to evaluate their satisfaction with the outcomes lead to a valid and reliable measure. Items were generated to reflect the full range of social outcome possibilities of organizations. Further, select items were utilized from Herman and Renz (1997) and Felicio et al. (2013). All items included on both dependent variable scales can be viewed in Appendix A.

Independent Variables

I measured founder work experience via the number of years founders worked at for-profit and/or non-profit organizations prior to founding their current organization. This variable is continuous in that respondents were free to respond with the exact number of years they worked at each type of organization.

I define the economic salience construct as the importance that founders place on financial outcomes of their organization. For entrepreneurs, missions, visions, goals, and intended outcomes exist as mental models in the entrepreneur's cognition. As Hill & Levenhagen (1995, p. 1059) state in their seminal piece, "(M)ental models constitute the frameworks of organizational rationalities and belief systems on which formal analyses, policies, and procedures are based. Moreover, these models form the foundations for initiating and organizing subsequent behaviors". While formal, written, codified models are always a possibility (for example, as a business plan or written mission statement), the mission, vision, goals, and intended outcomes of an organization reside in the entrepreneur's mind as metaphors, mental models, and cognitive paradigms (Hill & Levenhagen, 1995; Morgan, 1980). The salience of these models ultimately affects intentions of the entrepreneur and actions of the organization (Dimov, 2010; Hill & Levenhagen, 1995; Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000).

The economic salience construct has a precedent in the entrepreneurship literature. A recent example of a similar use is Delgado-García, Rodríguez-Escudero, & Martín-Cruz (2012) who measure entrepreneurs' goals and ambitions via items related to financial value creation, return and sales growth, survival, risk reduction, and liquidity. These items were inspired by similar items that had already been established in the literature (i.e. Baum & Locke, 2004; Gundry & Welsch, 2001; Jensen, 2002). I utilized these past efforts to inform my scale development.

Similar to the economic salience construct above, I define the social salience construct as the importance that founders place on social outcomes of their organization. Scholars seem to agree that organizational missions are one of the key delineating factors for hybrid social ventures that attempt to simultaneously create social and financial wealth (Dees, 2001; Peredo & McLean, 2006; Wilson & Post, 2013), and Lepoutre et al. (2013) echoed this in their country level measures of social entrepreneurship. However, as Sawhill & Williamson (2001, p. 378) point out, "the more abstract the mission is, the more difficult it is to develop meaningful measures of outcome or mission impact". Therefore, salience is the best way to evaluate missions, visions, and goals. If an individual is operating an organization with a social mission, then the salience of that mission should be prominent to the individual in all of the decision-making activities that take place. The salient social mission would then guide the creation of social goals and outcomes that would be prominent to the individual throughout the entire organization. Items have been generated for the social salience scale based on those items from the economic salience scale and items inspired by Lepoutre et al. (2013) and Zhang and Swanson's (2013) previous efforts.

At this point, I want to emphasize that the economic salience and social salience constructs are not simply opposite ends of the same spectrum, but instead, represent their own unique continuums. A true hybrid social venture would have high economic and social salience as it can be seen in Figure 3.

I measured initial organizational structure via three items that ask the respondent whether the organization was founded as a for-profit legal form or not. Respondents were asked a general question about whether they founded their organization as a non-profit. Respondents were also asked an open ended question asking them to enter their legal form at founding. Finally, respondents were asked if they filed non-profit tax information at the time of the organization's founding. I coded for-profit responses as a "1", and therefore sets up the correct positive and negative relationships in hypotheses one through four above.

For-profit and non-profit capabilities were measured using the following established scales. First, I used the 10 item pricing capabilities scale from Liozu and Hinterhuber (2014) to measure the pricing capabilities construct. Next, I used Orr et al.'s (2011) five-item customer relationship management capabilities scale to measure customer relationship management capabilities. I used modified versions of Orr et al.'s (2011) measure to develop the donor relationship management capabilities and beneficiary relationship management capabilities measures. The process of modifying the scales simply involves substituting the word "customer" for either "donor" or "beneficiary" in each of the items. Further, all of the capabilities scales were worded in a way to ask respondents to indicate how the items related to their organization within the first year of operation. This ensured that the items and measures are indicating capabilities at the time of founding. All items included on all independent variable scales can be viewed in Appendix A.

Controls

I included the following control variables in the analysis. First, I used the following items to control for different founder effects: gender, age, education, previous management experience, and previous entrepreneurial experience. Next, the following items were used to control for different organizational effects: age of the organization and size (in terms of part-time employees, full-time employees, and volunteers).

Analysis Methods

Prior to the main analysis, the four new measurement scales (economic salience, social salience, financial organizational outcome satisfaction, and social organizational outcome satisfaction) were assessed based on their understandability via a pre-test. 70 undergraduate business students were asked to evaluate each item and determine how well it matched with the definitions of each of the four constructs in order to assess content adequacy using the Q-factor analysis technique (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, & Lankau, 1993). Once the data was collected, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analyses were conducted.

Figure 3. Social and Economic Salience Continuums

		Social Salience	
		High	Low
Economic Salience	High	Hybrid Social Venture	For-Profit Venture
	Low	Non-Profit Organization	Small Business

Once content adequacy was assessed for the four new constructs, the final dataset was collected. Prior to any hypothesis testing, I used confirmatory factor analysis to assess the validity of both the new measurement scales alone and all the measurement scales simultaneously. I also conducted reliability analysis on all the measurement scales to further support the validity findings. Finally, I used structural equation modeling to test each of the individual hypotheses. I then tested for mediation via the product of coefficients approach using structural equation modeling and bootstrapping (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010).

Chapter 5: Results

This chapter will present the results of four different empirical outcomes of my work. In the first three sections, I outline the empirical results of the scale building process according to Hinkin (1998). In the first section, I discuss the results of the pre-test to establish content validity. In the second section, I present the confirmatory factor analysis results, using the final sample, to show evidence of construct validity for the four new measurement scales. In the third section, I establish convergent and discriminant validity for the full measurement model including the four new measurement scales. Finally, I present the results of the hypothesis testing of the theoretical model I developed in Chapter 3 in section four.

Pre-Test of New Measurement Scale Results

According to Hinkin (1998), the first step in the scale development process involves initial item generation and content validity assessment. The results of my efforts in terms of the actual writing of items are described in Chapter 4. The content adequacy of the items for the four new scales I have developed were assessed via the pre-test using data collected from 70 undergraduate students. The results of the first Q-factor analysis is presented in Table 4. The mean rating of each item on each measurement scale definition is presented in Table 5.

Table 4. Q-Factor Analysis Results

	Construct			
Item	**Economic Salience**	**Social Salience**	**Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction**	**Social Organizational Outcome Satisfaction**
ES1	**.727**	-.072	.265	-.072
ES2	**.792**	-.129	.278	-.108
ES3	**.702**	-.157	.346	-.101
ES4	**.751**	-.193	.389	.020
ES5	**.819**	-.129	.314	.014
ES6	**.714**	-.130	.381	.085
SS1	-.244	**.677**	-.239	.273
SS2	-.032	**.805**	-.226	.193
SS3	-.098	**.781**	-.226	.226
SS4	-.193	**.718**	-.061	.237
SS5	-.122	**.797**	-.002	.247
SS6	-.079	**.628**	.206	.345
FOOS1	.322	-.021	**.740**	-.081
FOOS2	.255	-.158	**.787**	.039
FOOS3	.322	-.170	**.781**	-.002
FOOS4	.388	-.067	**.737**	-.022
FOOS5	**.427**	-.061	**.751**	-.111
FOOS6	**.421**	-.134	**.751**	-.004
SOOS1	.126	.239	-.034	**.593**
SOOS2	-.057	.155	.073	**.816**
SOOS3	-.123	.294	.155	**.759**
SOOS4	.046	.260	-.106	**.797**
SOOS5	-.182	**.476**	-.247	**.609**
SOOS6	-.150	**.470**	-.289	**.578**

Note. N = 70, Varimax Rotation, Loadings over .4 bolded

Based on the recommendations of Hinkin (1998), Carlson et al. (2000), and Schriesheim et al. (1993), items were evaluated according to the following criteria in order to assess content adequacy: 1) An item should have a loading above 0.4 on the appropriate construct, 2) An item should not have any loadings above 0.4 on any other constructs, 3) An item should have the highest mean score on the appropriate construct, and 4) An item should have a minimum difference between the highest mean score and next highest mean score of at least 0.3. Based on these criteria, it can be seen in Table 4

Table 5. Mean Scores and Difference Between First and Second Highest Mean Score

Item	Construct				Difference
	Economic Salience	Social Salience	Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction	Social Organizational Outcomes Satisfaction	
ES1	**4.44**	3.11	4.06	3.10	0.38
ES2	**4.56**	2.91	4.14	2.81	0.42
ES3	**4.70**	3.14	4.23	3.11	0.47
ES4	**4.60**	2.94	4.26	3.03	0.34
ES5	**4.14**	2.44	3.89	2.54	0.25
ES6	**4.37**	3.07	4.10	3.11	0.27
SS1	2.54	**4.39**	2.59	4.09	0.30
SS2	2.96	**4.33**	2.93	3.96	0.37
SS3	2.93	**3.84**	2.91	3.53	0.31
SS4	2.56	**3.99**	2.59	3.61	0.38
SS5	2.74	**4.09**	2.79	3.81	0.28
SS6	2.67	**4.34**	2.76	4.07	0.27
FOOS1	3.79	2.87	**4.11**	3.00	0.32
FOOS2	3.63	2.54	**3.99**	2.51	0.36
FOOS3	3.80	2.77	**4.13**	3.00	0.33
FOOS4	3.83	2.79	**4.13**	2.77	0.30
FOOS5	3.74	2.63	**3.86**	2.67	0.12
FOOS6	3.99	2.83	**4.14**	2.90	0.15
SOOS1	3.10	3.30	3.01	**3.70**	0.40
SOOS2	2.61	3.95	2.53	**4.26**	0.31
SOOS3	3.20	3.59	2.97	**3.93**	0.34
SOOS4	3.03	3.54	2.96	**3.96**	0.42
SOOS5	2.73	4.07	2.71	**4.27**	0.20
SOOS6	2.90	3.57	2.86	**3.83**	0.26

Note. Highest score bolded for each item across the four constructs. Difference calculated by subtracting the second highest score from the highest score that all items meet requirement number one. All items have a minimum loading of 0.4 on the correct construct. Also, it can be seen in Table 5 that all items meet requirement number three, all items have the highest mean score on the appropriate construct. The financial organization outcome satisfaction and social organization outcome satisfaction items five and six (for both constructs) violate requirement number two. These items have cross-loadings above 0.4 and were dropped from being used for the final analysis. As it can be seen in Table 5, items five and six on both the economic salience and social salience scales violate the fourth requirement of having a minimum difference of 0.3. It should also be noted that the items that did not meet requirement number two also did not meet requirement number four.

It is important to point out that an item is not simply removed due to empirical factors alone. Instead, the deletion of each item is evaluated based on the theoretical domain of the construct and evaluating whether or not the construct is would still be adequately represented by the remaining items. After carefully evaluating the remaining items and definitions for each of the constructs, I determined that the remaining items were adequate in representing the constructs fully based on the developed definitions. The items that were dropped from the analysis at this point, after evaluating them based on the quantitative results and the theoretical domain of the constructs, were determined to be redundant with other remaining items that sufficiently represent the constructs.

Construct Validity – Evidence via Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After the initial item reduction detailed in the section above, I then moved on to collecting the final dataset. These efforts were summarized in Chapter 4. According to

Hinkin (1998), it is first required that reliability be assessed via internal consistency as this is a necessary condition in establishing validity. Then, the items should be entered into a confirmatory factor analysis in order to assess the overall model fit of the new scales.

Table 6. Standardized CFA Factor Loadings and Cronbach's Alpha

Item	Economic Salience	Social Salience	Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction	Social Organizational Outcomes Satisfaction
ES1	0.80			
ES2	0.94			
ES3	0.85			
ES4	0.84			
SS1		0.92		
SS2		0.96		
SS3		0.77		
SS4		0.87		
FOOS1			0.82	
FOOS2			0.86	
FOOS3			0.95	
FOOS4			0.90	
SOOS1				0.95
SOOS2				0.97
SOOS3				0.94
SOOS4				0.96
Cronbach's Alpha:	0.91	0.94	0.93	0.97

Table 6 displays the results of the reliability analyses as well as the confirmatory factor analysis of the hypothesized factor structure. First, the results of the reliability analyses are very good, with each construct not only meeting the commonly accepted cutoff of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978) but also the more stringent cutoff of 0.8 (Ping, 2004). Also, all standardized regression weight item loadings in the model are significant and above the prescribed 0.7 cutoff (Kline, 2011) on their hypothesized constructs. Finally, the model displays good fit: χ^2/DF = 1.498, NFI=0.947, GFI=0.900, AGFI=0.857, CFI=0.982, RMSEA=0.058.

Before investigating validity further, I first assessed the presence of any common method bias effects (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Based on the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2003), a latent method factor was introduced into the model in which each of the 16 items were allowed to load both on their intended latent construct as well as a single latent factor meant to assess any common method effects (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). The results of this method suggest very little common method bias, with the highest item demonstrating 9% variance due to common method bias. This is well below previous findings that suggest common method bias often accounts for anywhere between 18% and 32% of variance in response items (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). In addition, I also checked the factor loadings on the hypothesized construct with and without common latent factor. The difference in loadings were minimal with the presence of the common latent factor, the largest difference in standardized loading on a hypothesized construct was only 0.027 (a loading reduction from 0.941 to 0.914).

In addition to assessing the data for common method bias, I also tested for the presence of response bias by investigating whether early responders to the email survey differed significantly from those responses that came in as the result of email or phone call reminders. Based on the T-tests to assess significant differences in means between early and late responders, there was no evidence of any response bias as all variables showed insignificant differences in means.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity – Assessing the Full Measurement Model

After I established construct validity of the four new measurement scales and evaluated the presence of potential common method bias effects, I then moved on to assessing the full measurement model by adding in the established measurement scales. This part of the analysis served two goals: 1) to validate the full measurement model to be used for hypothesis testing, and 2) to establish convergent and discriminant validity of the four new measurement scales.

The original full CFA model exhibited decent fit: χ^2/DF = 2.081, NFI=0.799, GFI=0.650, AGFI=0.598, CFI=0.883, RMSEA=0.085. Upon investigation, I determined that one of the legal form items and pricing capability items did not load highly on their intended factors. Also, by evaluating the modification indices and standardized residual covariances, I determined that some of the items from the established scales were poor indicators of their intended constructs. These items were dropped from the analysis and the final measurement model showed considerably better fit: χ^2/DF = 1.800, NFI=0.854, GFI=0.738, AGFI=0.688, CFI=0.929, RMSEA=0.073. The final measurement model is displayed in Table 7.

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010), convergent and discriminant validity can be established by evaluating reliability, average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), and average shared variance (ASV). AVE was calculated using the equation provided by Hair et al. (2010) and is displayed here:

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} L_i^2}{n}$$

Where *L* is the standardized factor loading and *n* is the number of items for the factor. MSV is determined by squaring the highest correlation each factor has with another factor. ASV is determined by averaging the squared correlation a factor has with every other factor (Hair et al., 2010).

As it can be seen in Table 7, all constructs meet the Nunnally (1978) reliability cutoff of 0.7 and all of the constructs meet the stricter cutoff of 0.8 (Ping, 2004) except pricing capabilities. Having established reliability, convergent validity should be assessed by evaluating whether AVE is above 0.5 for each construct (Hair et al., 2010). Discriminant validity should be assessed based on three factors: 1) MSV should be less than AVE for each construct, 2) ASV should be less than AVE for each construct, and 3) the square root of AVE should be greater than any of the disattenuated correlations with other constructs for each construct (Hair et al., 2010). Table 8 shows that each construct meets all of these requirements.

Hinkin (1998) suggests that the final step of the scale building process is to establish criterion-related validity by examining relationships with which the new constructs should be hypothesized to relate with. This final step will be evaluated in the next section in which I conduct formal hypothesis testing utilizing the full measurement model along with other indicators and control variables. Having established the measurement scales, all study means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 9.

Hypothesis Testing

Prior to beginning hypothesis testing, I first investigated any potential response bias by evaluating the results received from the managers of the founders' organizations. Due to the small number of responses received based on the total sample, it was not possible to utilize only the managers' responses for final hypothesis testing. Instead, I compared the results of the matched pairs received utilizing t-tests and interrater reliabilities. The results of the t-tests showed that none of the items differed significantly between the manager and founder responses. The results of the interrater reliability analyses showed that there was overwhelming consensus between the managers' and founders' responses. Specifically, I calculated the intraclass correlation coefficient between the two responses for each of the 32 matching responses pairs and found an average correlation of 0.724. Based on these results, I concluded that the founder responses contained limited response bias, and utilized the responses in the final models reported on below.

Table 7. Standardized CFA Factor Loadings and Cronbach's Alpha

Construct	Item	Standardized Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	Construct	Item	Standardized Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Economic Salience			0.91	Customer Relationship Capabilities			0.93
	ES1	0.80			CR1	0.83	
	ES2	0.94			CR3	0.90	
	ES3	0.85			CR4	0.87	
	ES4	0.84			CR5	0.85	
Social Salience			0.94	Pricing Capabilities			0.77
	SS1	0.92			PC2	0.80	
	SS2	0.96			PC5	0.91	
	SS3	0.77			PC6	0.89	
	SS4	0.87			PC7	0.71	
Financial Organizational Outcome Satisfaction			0.93		PC8	0.76	
	FOOS1	0.82			PC10	0.71	
	FOOS2	0.86		Donor Relationship Management Capabilities			0.97
	FOOS3	0.95			DR1	0.95	
	FOOS4	0.90			DR2	0.98	
Social Organizational Outcomes Satisfaction			0.97		DR3	0.97	
	SOOS1	0.95			DR4	0.95	
	SOOS2	0.97			DR5	0.95	
	SOOS3	0.94		Beneficiery Relationship Management Capabilities			0.85
	SOOS4	0.96			BR1	0.87	
Legal Form			0.94		BR2	0.86	
	Legal1	0.93			BR3	0.88	
	Legal2	0.94			BR4	0.87	
					BR5	0.85	

Note. The following error pairs were allowed to covary: ES2/ES3, SS3/SS4, CR4/CR5, PC7/PC8, PC7/PC10, PC8/PC10, DR4/DR5, and BR4/BR5

Table 8. AVE, MSV, ASV, and Construct Disattenuated Correlations

	AVE	MSV	ASV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Donor Capab.	0.92	0.62	0.15	0.96								
2 Economic Salience	0.68	0.52	0.17	-0.01	0.82							
3 Social Salience	0.78	0.26	0.11	0.51	0.10	0.88						
4 Financial Satisfaction	0.78	0.24	0.07	-0.13	0.35	-0.09	0.88					
5 Social Satisfaction	0.92	0.37	0.12	0.49	-0.05	0.50	0.18	0.96				
6 Legal Form	0.88	0.21	0.10	-0.29	0.46	-0.35	0.23	-0.27	0.94			
7 Customer Capab.	0.72	0.51	0.16	-0.02	0.71	-0.04	0.49	0.01	0.31	0.85		
8 Benefeciery Capab.	0.75	0.62	0.17	0.79	0.03	0.49	-0.03	0.61	-0.25	0.17	0.87	
9 Pricing Capab.	0.63	0.52	0.14	0.10	0.72	-0.03	0.34	-0.12	0.30	0.62	0.12	0.80

Note. AVE = Average Variance Extracted, MSV = Maximum Shared Variance, ASV = Average Shared Variance. Square Root of AVE on diagonal.

The results of the hypothesized structural equation model are presented in Figure 4. I ran the model using normalized scores for all variables. The model ran with the following fit statistics: χ^2/DF = 1.735, NFI=0.782, GFI=0.711, AGFI=0.639, CFI=0.903, RMSEA=0.070. In addition, Figure 4 also displays the amount of variance explained for each endogenous variable in the model. The model does not support hypothesis 1a. Founders' previous for-profit work experience is not related with a for-profit legal form when they go to found their organization. However, hypothesis 1b is supported. Founders' previous non-profit work experience is negatively related with a for-profit legal form at founding. Hypothesis 2a is supported. A founder's economic salience is positively related with a for-profit legal form at founding. Hypothesis 2b is also supported. A founder's social salience is negatively related with a for-profit legal form at founding.

The model supports both hypotheses 3a and 3b. A for-profit legal form at founding is positively related to both customer relationship management capabilities and pricing capabilities at founding. The model also supports both hypotheses 4a and 4b. A for-profit legal form at the time founders start their organization is negatively related with beneficiary relationship management and donor relationship management capabilities at the time of founding.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 relate the four capabilities to social and financial organizational outcome satisfaction. The model supports hypothesis 5a. Customer relationship management capabilities at founding are positively related with current levels of financial organizational outcomes satisfaction. However, hypothesis 5b is not supported. Pricing capabilities at founding are not positively related with current levels of financial organizational outcomes satisfaction. Hypothesis 6a is supported. Beneficiary relationship management capabilities at founding are positively related with current levels of social organizational outcomes satisfaction. However, the model does not support hypothesis 6b. Donor relationship management capabilities at founding are not positively related with current levels of social organizational outcomes satisfaction.

Hypotheses 7a and 7b were tested by utilizing the product of coefficients approach by evaluating indirect effects via structural equation modeling (MacKinnon et al., 2002; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao et al., 2010). The results of the hypothesis testing for hypothesis 7a are presented in Table 10 and Table 11 while the results for hypothesis 7b are presented in Table 12. In accordance with Shrout and Bolger's (2002) and Zhao et al.'s (2010) methods, I utilized AMOS to generate 1,000 bootstrapped samples and evaluated the indirect effect in addition to the direct effect path. For hypothesis 7a, the indirect effect was simply the founding conditions to current capabilities effect via legal form. For hypothesis 7b, the indirect effect was the legal form to current organization outcome satisfaction effect via the capability variables.

As seen in Table 10 and Table 11, hypothesis 7a is not supported. Table 10 displays the indirect effects that correspond to the model displayed in Figure 4 with no direct effects present from the four founding condition constructs to the four capabilities constructs. While Table 10 does show some significant indirect effects, Table 11 shows that when the direct effects are added into the model, the indirect effects are no longer significant for any of the 16 possible founding condition and current capability relationships. It can be concluded that the relationship between the four founding

Table 9. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

		Mean	STDV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Soc. Org. Out. Satis.	.574	.287									
2	Fin. Org. Out. Satis.	.163	.066	.188*								
3	Economic Salience	.654	.237	-.057	.382**							
4	For-Profit Exp.	.757	.126	-.174*	.290**	.197*						
5	Social Salience	.493	.256	.518**	-.089	.102	-.234**					
6	Non-Profit Exp.	.129	.151	.293**	-.118	-.294**	-.191*	.214**				
7	Legal Form	.635	.428	-.275**	.246**	.488**	.234**	-.367**	-.321**			
8	Pricing Cap.	3.502	1.426	-.122	.363**	.773**	.294**	-.031	-.299**	.323**		
9	Customer Cap.	.633	.230	.008	.519**	.769**	.223**	-.037	-.221**	.332**	.666**	
10	Donor Cap.	3.834	2.062	.492**	-.135	-.007	-.183*	.530**	.330**	-.299**	.103	-.019
11	Beneficiary Cap.	.595	.246	.633**	-.029	.038	-.253**	.518**	.289**	-.262**	.130	.178*
12	Gender	.487	.502	-.084	-.054	.018	.145	-.213**	-.192*	.230**	.108	-.089
13	Age	48.807	12.138	-.044	.120	-.028	.342**	-.229**	-.021	.065	-.034	.105
14	Education	6.293	1.998	.139	-.111	-.272	.007	.006	.165*	-.093	-.290	-.117
15	Mgmt. Experience	16.367	11.782	.168*	.136	.036	.190*	-.004	.033	.099	.001	.122
16	Ent. Experience	12.740	10.292	.184*	.035	-.142	.016	-.018	.055	-.009	-.147	-.075
17	Startup Team Size	2.453	4.664	.142	.053	.023	-.070	.141	.068	-.048	.015	-.015
18	Organization Age	11.510	10.277	.165*	-.019	-.136	-.109	-.069	-.015	-.015	-.156	-.080
19	Full Time Emp.	9.540	49.982	.092	.060	.073	-.032	.052	.061	.098	.089	.031
20	Part Time Emp.	3.073	7.662	.158	.081	.107	-.081	.173*	.021	.091	.054	-.011
21	Volunteers	63.253	552.423	.097	.113	-.138	.094	.118	-.082	-.155	-.116	-.022

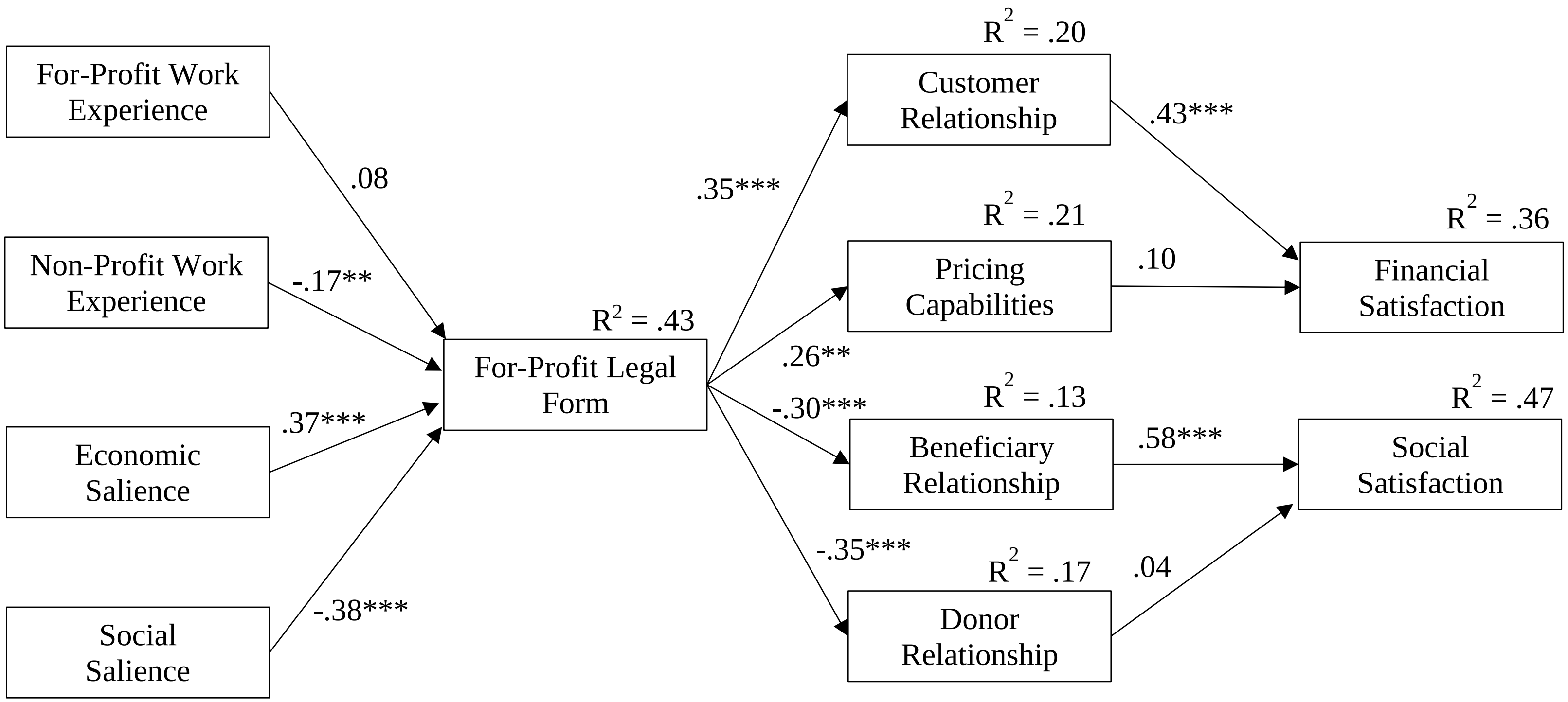
Note. Study variables calculated with normalized scores, control variables calculated with raw scores.
***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05. Attenuated correlations presented.

Table 9 (Cont'd). Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

		10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
11	**Beneficiary Cap.**	.817**										
12	**Gender**	.033	-.024									
13	**Age**	-.039	-.004	.007								
14	**Education**	.076	.064	.058	.190*							
15	**Mgmt. Experience**	-.011	.074	.039	.556**	.168*						
16	**Ent. Experience**	.106	.107	.048	.428**	.159	.638**					
17	**Startup Team Size**	.128	.104	.054	-.100	.113	.022	.046				
18	**Organization Age**	.059	.091	.048	.383**	.191*	.575**	.859**	.040			
19	**Full Time Emp.**	.092	.084	.139	-.235**	.012	-.121	-.071	.224**	-.056		
20	**Part Time Emp.**	.090	.100	.012	-.276**	.127	-.099	-.048	.402**	-.043	.381**	
21	**Volunteers**	.088	.035	-.087	.022	.040	-.097	-.078	.078	-.071	-.012	-.023

Note. Study variables calculated with normalized scores, control variables calculated with raw scores.
***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05. Attenuated correlations presented.

Figure 4. Hypothesized Structural Equation Model



Notes. All regression weights have been standardized. Legal form, all capability variables, and both satisfaction variables regressed on all control variables. ***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05.

condition constructs and the four organizational capabilities at founding constructs is not mediated by the initial organizational structure.

As seen in Table 12, I found support for hypothesis 7b. Model 1 displays the results of the hypothesized model displayed in Figure 4. Legal form has a significant positive indirect effect on financial satisfaction. In addition, legal form also has a significant negative indirect effect on social satisfaction. In order to determine the exact type of mediation, and based on recommendations for testing mediation (MacKinnon et al., 2002; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao et al., 2010), I then followed the mediation decision tree created by Zhao et al. (2010) and created Model 2 that adds direct effects from legal form to both satisfaction variables. As it can be seen in Table 11, neither of the direct paths from legal form to either of the satisfaction variables are significant while the indirect paths still are. According to Zhao et al. (2010 p. 201), this type of relationship is referred to as an “Indirect-Only Mediation” relationship in which there is evidence for the hypothesized relationship.

Table 10. Legal Form Mediation of Founding Conditions and Capabilities at Founding with no Direct Effects

	Pricing Capabilities	Customer Relationship Capabilities	Beneficiary Relationship Capabilities	Donor Relationship Capabilities
Economic Salience	0.096**	0.130**	-0.111**	-0.130**
For-Profit Work Experience	0.021	0.028	-0.024	-0.028
Social Salience	-0.099**	-0.133**	0.114**	0.133**
Non-Profit Work Experience	-0.044	-0.060	0.051	0.06

Note. Standardized indirect effects reported. ***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05.

Table 11. Legal Form Mediation of Founding Conditions and Capabilities at Founding with Direct Effects

	Pricing Capabilities	Customer Relationship Capabilities	Beneficiary Relationship Capabilities	Donor Relationship Capabilities
Economic Salience	-0.041	-0.011	-0.024	-0.041
For-Profit Work Experience	-0.009	-0.002	-0.005	-0.009
Social Salience	0.035	0.010	0.021	0.035
Non-Profit Work Experience	0.021	0.006	0.013	0.021

Note. Standardized indirect effects reported. ***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05.

Table 12. Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Variables on Financial and Social Satisfaction

Model 1	Financial Satisfaction			Social Satisfaction		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Legal Form		0.181 **	0.181 **		-0.164 **	-0.164 **
Customer Capabilities	0.434 ***		0.434 ***			
Pricing Capabilities	0.098		0.098			
Beneficiary Capabilities				0.579 **		0.579 **
Donor Capabilities				0.037		0.037

Model 2	Financial Satisfaction			Social Satisfaction		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Legal Form	0.143	0.155 **	0.298 **	-0.070	-0.153 **	-0.223 **
Customer Capabilities	0.386 **		0.386 **			
Pricing Capabilities	0.079		0.079			
Beneficiary Capabilities				0.573 **		0.573 **
Donor Capabilities				0.012		0.012

Note. Standardized regression weights reported.
***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05.

Chapter 6: Conclusions, Interpretations, and Recommendations

In this chapter, I will cover three main sections pertaining to the conclusions, interpretations, and recommendations that are relevant to the theory building and quantitative results of my work. In the first section, I will provide a summary of the research question addressed in my work and the results of my findings. I will then draw conclusions and interpretations in the second section based on the quantitative results. Finally, in the third section, I will discuss recommendations for both research and practice in light of the conclusions.

Summary

My work has sought to answer the following research question: What effect does imprinting have on founders' satisfaction with social and financial outcomes of their venture? Based on this main research question, I also looked to make an important methodological contribution by developing measures of satisfaction with social and financial outcomes that allow for inter- and intra-organization comparisons. This research question and methodological contribution are important, as I have attempted to investigate the dual outcomes that modern day organizations are concerned with in terms of financial and social outcomes. I proposed that imprinting affects founders' satisfaction with organization performance based on founding conditions such as the social and economic salience founders have when they go to found their organization and the work experience they had prior to founding their organization. Collectively, I proposed that these founding conditions would then influence the general strategy and structure that a founder would adopt and that the organizational capabilities would be set accordingly. All of these processes would occur at the time of founding in accordance with organizational imprinting and endure over the course of the organization's life due to inertia. As such, I then proposed that these capabilities established at founding and enduring over time would then affect how satisfied founders would be with the financial and social outcomes of their organizations currently.

In terms of my main methodological contribution, I determined that the best way to measure social and financial organizational outcomes was to adopt the strategy of other entrepreneurship research that has utilized satisfaction based measures for financial outcomes. Based on my scale building efforts, I developed both financial and social organizational outcome satisfaction measures that would allow for comparisons across different types of organizations as well as comparisons within a single organization.

The quantitative results of my work largely support my theory and scale building efforts. I showed that the social and financial organizational satisfaction scales had content adequacy, construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. In addition, the hypothesized relationships between the satisfaction based measures and other variables that were supported in the model help in establishing criterion-related validity. These scales appear to be effective in assessing founders' satisfaction with their organizations' social and financial performance. In addition, a large portion of my theoretical hypotheses was supported. Specifically, non-profit work experience, social salience, and economic salience are all significantly related to the type of legal form a founder utilizes at founding. The legal form then significantly predicts pricing capabilities as well customer, donor, and beneficiary relationship management capabilities. Customer relationship management capabilities are significantly related to higher levels of financial organizational outcome satisfaction while beneficiary relationship management capabilities are significantly related to higher levels of social organizational outcome satisfaction. Finally, I found that while the legal form a founder chooses does not mediate the relationship between founding conditions and capabilities, capabilities do mediate the relationship between legal form and organizational outcome satisfaction.

Conclusions and Interpretations of Results

In this section, I will present the main conclusions and interpretations of my work. The first main conclusion of my work is the findings related to the founding conditions in the process model of imprinting effects on outcomes. These findings suggest that, as hypothesized, non-profit work experience, economic salience, and social salience are important predictors of the initial legal form an organization founder chooses at the time of start-up. This conclusion suggests that founders are influenced by a multitude of factors when they go to start their organization, including environmental and individual factors alike. The findings that support non-profit work experience influencing the initial structure suggest that founders draw on important understandings that they received via secondary socializations from their personal work history. This knowledge influences their eventual path when they go to start their own organization. The findings also support the idea that economic and social salience drive initial structure choice as founders navigate not only their own personal core beliefs they have received via primary socializations, but also the nature of the opportunity they plan to pursue with the new organization.

These findings have important implications for the social entrepreneurship literature. My work speaks to research questions about how opportunity recognition and the founder's personal history comes together to start new organizations (Short et al., 2009). My work is some of the first that contributes to quantitative findings that support the idea that the decision over an organization's structure is tied to a founder's personal history along with the salience of economic and social intentions.

These findings also contribute to the understanding within the imprinting literature that founders play an important role in negotiating the original imprint on an organization (Johnson, 2007). While Johnson's (2007) theory was supported via qualitative evidence, my quantitative results validate her theory by showing the individual founder interacts with environmental factors along with primary and secondary socializations to determine the original imprint on the organization.

Where the model breaks down somewhat is with the findings related to the legal form, or ownership structure, at founding, and the lack of evidence that structure mediates the founding conditions to initial capabilities that a founder builds or acquires at start-up. There are two possible conclusions drawn from these findings. First, it is possible that ownership structure is not generalizable to organizational design structure, and therefore the theoretical model is not being accurately represented by the empirical model testing it. The original theoretical model suggested that structure might relate more to organizational design elements such as a centralized hierarchy or departmentalization

(Marquis and Huang, 2010) rather than just the legal form and ownership structure of the organization. In fact, since Marquis and Huang (2009, 2010) were looking at banks throughout the 1900's, it is safe to assume that all of the subjects of study in their research were for-profits. The model may be valid if the structure variable were measured differently than ownership structure alone that does not seem to generalize to other types of organizational structures. In addition, Marquis and Huang (2010) suggested that it was not structure alone that mediated the relationship between founding conditions and capabilities, but initial organizational *strategy* and structure. This suggests that the lack of findings for mediation in my model may be due to legal form not being a robust enough variable to represent accurately the full depth of organizational strategy and structure, and supports the idea that initial strategy most likely plays an important role as well. It is interesting that legal form as structure alone does significantly predict capabilities as founding. As a single predictor, legal form does show strong predictive ability over the decisions that founders make in terms of the types of capabilities they create or acquire.

It is also worth noting that the lack of evidence for the legal form mediation in the main theoretical model could be the reason for why the model reported in Figure 4 did not show exceptional fit. Removing the legal from mediator from the model could improve the fit of the model by allowing the founding conditions to affect directly the capability constructs.

Another important conclusion from my work is the idea that capabilities at founding do significantly relate to current levels of organizational outcome satisfaction. Both customer relationship management capabilities and beneficiary relationship management capabilities established at the founding of the organization relate to the level of satisfaction a founder has with financial and social organizational outcomes respectively. These findings support the main two theoretical arguments related to imprinting, that founding conditions establish capabilities at the time of founding, and that these capabilities are enduring and effect outcomes over time. My sample of organizations had an average reported age of over 11 years. This means that the capabilities established on average over 11 years ago for the organizations in the sample still have enduring and meaningful effects on important organizational outcomes. This supports the idea that imprinted capabilities endure over time, regardless of whether they are still being used for their original purpose.

These findings have important contributions for not only the strategy literature, but also the social entrepreneurship literature. First, while strategic management has made links between capabilities and performance (Teece et al., 1997; Vorhies et al., 2009), my work contributes to a deeper understanding to this relationship. Previous understandings have linked capabilities to financial performance while my work shows that other types of capabilities can also influence social performance. I believe that this contribution opens up the traditional understanding about the role of capabilities, and pushes strategic management into an area where other types of performance other than financial outcomes are viewed as important.

In addition, my work contributes to understandings about the duel nature of modern organizations in terms of the outcomes they produce. While Lumpkin et al. (2013) point to important social outcomes of social entrepreneurial organizations, my work highlights the importance of the duel nature of outcomes for all types of organizations. My findings show that social organizations also stress financial outcomes while for-profit organizations are also concerned about social outcomes.

Another conclusion from my work related to the process model of imprinting is the idea that capabilities are significant mediators between the legal form and organizational outcome satisfaction variables. This finding supports the theoretical model, and also solidifies the importance of capabilities as important drivers of organizational outcomes. My findings also support the idea that the theoretical model that Marquis and Huang (2010) proposed that looked at how capabilities might affect different types of organizational activities is therefore applicable when evaluating organizational outcomes. As structure influences capabilities, the capabilities then relate directly to financial and social outcomes.

My findings also contribute to a deeper understanding on organizational inertia (Hannan & Freeman, 1984; Shinkle & Kriauciunas, 2002) in terms of how inertia applies to different types of capabilities. My work contributes to a deeper understanding on the inertia of capabilities by showing that social capabilities such as beneficiary and donor relationship capabilities endure over time similar to how other traditional capabilities have been found to continue to exist within organizations over time. My work shows that these diverse capabilities endure as they have important influences on current outcome performance.

The other main conclusion of my work relates to my main methodological contribution related to how satisfaction can measure social and financial outcomes to allow for inter- and intra-organizational comparisons. My findings suggest that it is possible to measure simultaneously social and financial outcomes of organizations. As I discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, a major issue that is currently holding back quantitative research on social entrepreneurship specifically and management in general, has been the lack of meaningful dependent variables that will allow scholars to measure important outcomes besides just financial performance. My contributions show that by adopting a satisfaction approach to the problem, social and financial outcomes can be measured in a way that allow for comparisons across vastly different types of organizations. This finding suggests that future research will be able to conduct meaningful work with the use of an easy to measure social outcome variable.

This is a major contribution to the social entrepreneurship literature that still struggles to move past being a young literature (Eisenhardt, 1989; Short et al., 2009). With the addition of easy to use measures, my contributions should allow for more quantitative research that can begin to validate the early theories unique to the social entrepreneurship literature. This will allow for more advanced theorizing that is characteristic of a maturing research field.

Recommendations for Research and Practice

In terms of future recommendations that can be drawn from my work, many relate to research across social entrepreneurship, strategy, and imprinting theory. My first recommendation for research relates to organizational imprinting theory. My results largely support the theoretical model proposed by Marquis and Huang (2010). However, more research is needed to develop fuller understandings of the imprinting process. For example, my work showed that structure and capabilities are important factors in the imprinting process, however, the specific structure and capability variables were by no means comprehensive. As discussed above, particular attention should be paid to organizational structures other than legal form. It is still unclear the exact role structure plays during the imprinting process as I only investigated ownership structure. More attention should be paid to structural components such as organizational hierarchies, departmentalization, and other organizational design based elements. Future research should look to investigate more structure/capabilities pairs as my results suggest that not all capabilities seem to apply in the imprinting model based on the ownership structure of the organization. It could be possible that there are a multitude of structure and capability relationships that may influence different outcomes. For example, while a decentralized structure may be positively related with innovation capabilities and financial performance satisfaction, they may negatively affect the same beneficiary relationship capabilities I showed to have a positive effect on social outcome satisfaction. The model has strong potential to investigate a large number of mediated relationships and outcomes as future research theorizes about more structures, capabilities, and outcomes.

In addition to future research that looks closer at structure, I believe it is also important that future research attempt to separate and disentangle strategy from structure in the imprinting process model originally suggested by Marquis and Huang (2010). The original argument that an organization’s strategy would influence structure is interesting, particularly since this seems to suggest strategy as an antecedent. Yet, the original model includes both strategy and structure in the same conceptual construct by assuming specific strategy would generate specific structure (Marquis and Huang, 2009; 2010). While this may have held true in the banking industry, I believe that future research should instead break out strategy and structure in a way that allows for a full understanding between the potential three constructs that mediate founding conditions and organizational outcomes: strategy, structure, and capabilities.

My final recommendation related to organizational imprinting relates to the final dependent variable that is theorized in models of imprinting. The original process model of organizational imprinting theorized that founding conditions would influence strategy, structure, and capabilities that would then determine organizational activities later on in the organization's tenure (Marquis and Huang, 2010). Existing results supported that founding conditions did influence organizational activities later in organizations' existence and simply assumed that strategy, structure, and capabilities played a role (Marquis and Huang, 2010). My results show that founding conditions, structure, and capabilities all play some role in influencing actual organizational outcomes; yet, they do not necessarily look at specific organizational activities later in an organization's existence. Therefore, I suggest that future research should investigate whether there truly is a difference between organizational activities and outcomes later in the lives or organizations. My results suggest that perhaps capabilities may influence activities that may then influence outcomes. However, this is not clear, and more investigation would be needed to determine if this is in fact the case.

In terms of future research focused on social entrepreneurship, a call for more large sample studies that attempt to predict social organizational outcome satisfaction is relevant. As I discussed in Chapter 2, much of the research on social entrepreneurship is qualitative in nature as there has not been a useful dependent variable available for researchers. I suggest that future research on social entrepreneurship can now move forward by utilizing the scales I have developed in order to start testing theory being developed specifically for social entrepreneurship. Large sample quantitative research should allow the field to mature as theories are tested and validated.

Similarly, I suggest that future research in which scholars look to utilize financial outcomes as a dependent variable should also look to evaluate social outcomes. My research shows that these are differing outcomes, and at a minimum, researchers should at least control for possible social outcomes that organizations may be attempting to produce when they go to evaluate an organization's financial outcomes. This recommendation reaches beyond just social entrepreneurship, and speaks to research on general entrepreneurship and strategy. Traditionally, these are areas of research that are predominantly focused on financial outcomes of organizations. However, since most modern day organizations are concerned with both financial and social outcomes (Katre & Salipante, 2012), future research that looks at financial outcomes should ensure that social outcomes are controlled for.

It is also important that future research begins to untangle the relationship between social and financial organizational outcome satisfaction. While beyond the scope of my work, it is interesting to note that social organizational outcome satisfaction has a positive significant correlation with financial organizational outcome satisfaction. This relationship proves interesting when research questions are developed. Does this relationship hold only for organizations that are intentionally trying to maximize both? Or does only focusing on one outcome allow the manager of an organization to satisfy both? In addition, it would also be interesting to evaluate the levels of satisfaction with both outcomes in a way to see what types of organizations in terms of industries, age, or other characteristics exhibit higher levels of satisfaction for one outcome over another. Finally, given the nature of the scales, it would also be interesting to attempt to place a dollar value on the social organizational outcome satisfaction by comparing it with financial organizational outcome satisfaction and actual financial performance data. This last suggestion could be done by collecting both satisfaction based measures from owners, founders, and/or managers from organizations with verified financial performance data, relating that data to the financial organizational outcome satisfaction results, and comparing that relationship to social outcome satisfaction. Conceivably, an organization that generated $100 in profit, but that had double the level of social satisfaction over financial satisfaction, could be argued to have generated $200 worth of social outcomes. While this is a simple example, future research can investigate if these types of comparisons would be possible.

Another important future research consideration relates to the economic and social salience constructs. I argued that economic and social salience reflect both an individual's socialized predispositions and also the nature of the specific opportunity they have discovered. However, these arguments should be explored in more depth in order to understand the exact relationship between economic and social salience and other constructs that may influence them. I believe that this line of research speaks not only to the entrepreneurship literature on opportunity discovery, but also institutional based research on how an individual's baseline economic and social salience may be established. There are numerous research questions that can be developed, such as how does socialization affect economic and social salience? How does the nature of an opportunity affect economic and social salience? Is there an established baseline of economic and social salience established via socialization that is affected by the opportunity that is discovered? Are individual's with specific types of economic and social saliences more likely to discover certain types of opportunities and/or start specific types of organizations? Disentangling these questions should allow for a deeper understanding of opportunity identification, the social entrepreneurship process, and entrepreneurship as a whole.

It would also be interesting to investigate the relationship between social/economic salience and social/financial outcome satisfaction. Currently, my model would suggest that low levels of social salience would predict the lack of beneficiary and donor relationship management capabilities that would then predict the lack of satisfaction with social outcomes. However, this might be a problematic conclusion if in reality the founder of this particular organization may not care have cared about social outcomes (and thus had a low social salience to begin with). Future research should look at how social and economic salience moderates the relationship the social and financial outcome satisfaction has with other constructs. This would allow for a clearer understanding of founders who are not actually unsatisfied with the outcomes of their organization, but rather do not care about certain types of outcomes.

In terms of final recommendations related to practice, my research makes it clear that organizational founders should pay very close attention to the specific founding conditions that exist at the time that they go to form their organization. Similar to Johnson's (2007) qualitative findings, my quantitative findings support the idea that an organizational founders play an important role in negotiating what becomes imprinted on their organization based on the environment around them. Founders must be aware that during the founding stage important decisions are being made that will ultimately influence the outcomes that are present in an organization long after founding. My results support that organizational elements imprinted at founding will endure over time and influence important outcomes. This also speaks to the importance of organizational change, and how founders and other managers may attempt to manage the change process knowing that organizational elements endure long after they may no longer be relevant. This is of particular interest for the founders in my sample that may have started one type of organization with one type of capabilities (a strict for-profit for example) that has now changed into more of a hybrid organization that now focuses on social outcomes more than financial outcomes. Founders and managers in these types of situations must be aware that the original capabilities imprinted on the organization will not simply disappear during the change process, but will most likely endure and affect outcomes long after they may no longer be relevant.

Appendix

Items Utilized for Measurement Scales

Founder work experience items (open response in number of years):

- How many total years of work experience (or self-employment) did you have in for-profit organizations prior to founding your current organization?
- How many total years of work experience (or self-employment) did you have in non-profit organizations prior to founding your current organization?

Economic salience items (7-point scale 1 = not important at all; 7 = very important on the final survey. 5-point scale on the pre-test assessing "how does each definition describe each item?"):

When you founded your organization, how important was/were:

1. Sales growth
2. Financial goals
3. Visions of financial success
4. Using resources for profit-generating purposes
5. Profit growth
6. Financial liquidity

Social salience items (7-point scale 1 = not important at all; 7 = very important. 5-point scale on the pre-test assessing "how does each definition describe each item?"):

When you founded your organization, how important was/were:

1. Establishing social goals
2. Fulfilling social needs
3. Helping people other than customers
4. Using resources for socially-oriented purposes
5. Providing resources to beneficiaries
6. Social objectives

For-profit legal form items (evaluated for consistency, for-profit forms coded as "1"):

1. Was the legal form of your current organization a for-profit form at the time of founding? (yes/no)
2. When you founded your organization, what type of legal form did you use? (open ended response)
3. At the time you founded and incorporated your organization, did you file any non-profit tax exemption forms?

Customer relationship management capabilities (7-point scale 1 = disagree; 7 = agree). Taken from Orr et al. (2011):

Please indicate how your organization performed the following activities within the first year of your organizations existence.

1. Routinely established a "dialogue" with target customers
2. Got target customers to try our products/services on a consistent basis
3. Focused on meeting customers' long term needs to ensure repeat business
4. Systematically maintained loyalty among attractive customers
5. Routinely enhanced the quality of relationships with attractive customers

Pricing capabilities (7-point scale 1 = disagree; 7 = agree). Taken from Liozu and Hinterhuber (2014):

Please indicate how your organization performed the following activities within the first year of your organizations existence.

1. Used pricing skills and systems to respond quickly to market changes
2. Had knowledge of competitors' pricing tactics
3. Did an effective job of pricing products/services
4. Quantified customers' willingness to pay
5. Measured and quantified differential economic value versus competition
6. Measured and estimated price elasticity for products/services
7. Designed proprietary tools to support pricing decisions
8. Conducted value-in-use analysis or Total Cost of Ownership
9. Designed and conducted specific pricing training programs
10. Developed proprietary internal price management process

Beneficiary relationship management capabilities (7-point scale 1 = disagree; 7 = agree). Adapted from Orr et al. (2011):

Please indicate how your organization performed the following activities within the first year of your organizations existence.

1. Routinely established a "dialogue" with target beneficiaries
2. Got target beneficiaries to try our offerings on a consistent basis
3. Focused on meeting beneficiaries' long term needs to ensure repeat usage
4. Systematically maintained loyalty among beneficiaries

5. Routinely enhanced the quality of relationships with beneficiaries

Donor relationship management capabilities (7-point scale 1 = disagree; 7 = agree). Adapted from Orr et al. (2011):

Please indicate how your organization performed the following activities within the first year of your organizations existence.

1. Routinely established a "dialogue" with target donors
2. Got target donors to experience our beneficiary offerings on a consistent basis
3. Focused on meeting donors' long term expectations to ensure repeat support
4. Systematically maintained loyalty among attractive donors
5. Routinely enhanced the quality of relationships with attractive donors

Financial organizational outcomes satisfaction (7-point scale 1 = very dissatisfied; 7 = very satisfied. 5-point scale on the pre-test assessing "how does each definition describe each item?"):

How satisfied are you with your organization's:

1. Current level of sales
2. Current level of costs
3. Current level of profitability
4. Current level of cost growth
5. Current level of sales growth
6. Current level of profitability growth

Social organizational outcomes satisfaction (7-point scale 1 = very dissatisfied; 7 = very satisfied. 5-point scale on the pre-test assessing "how does each definition describe each item?"):

How satisfied are you with your organization's:

1. Fulfillment of beneficiary needs
2. Services delivered to beneficiaries
3. Programs delivered to beneficiaries
4. Resources delivered to beneficiaries
5. Achievement of social goals
6. Level of social good created

References

Ajzen, I. (1988). *Attitudes, personality, and behavior*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Allen, D. (2006). Do organizational socialization tactics influence newcomer embeddedness and turnover? *Journal of Management, 32*(2), 237-256.

Alvord, S. H., Brown, D., & Letts, C. W. (2004). Social entrepreneurship and societal transformation: An exploratory study. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 40*(3), 260-282.

Austin, J., Stevenson, H., & Wei-Skillern, J. (2006). Social and commercial entrepreneurship: Same, different, or both? *Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice, 30*(1), 1-22.

Bamford, C., Dean, T., & McDougall, P. (2000). An examination of the impact of initial founding conditions and decisions upon the performance of new bank start-ups. *Journal of Business Venturing, 15*(3), 253-277.

Barman, E. (2002). Asserting difference: The strategic response of nonprofit organizations to competition. *Social Forces, 80*(4), 1191-1222.

Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management, 17*(1), 99-120.

Baron, J. N., Burton, M. D., & Hannan, M. T. (1996). The road taken: Origins and evolution of employment systems in emerging companies. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, *5*(2), 239-275.

Baron, J. N., Burton, M. D., & Hannan, M. T. (1999). Engineering bureaucracy: The genesis of formal policies, positions, and structures in high-technology firms. *Journal of Law Economics & Organization, 15*(1), 1-41.

Baron, J. N., Hannan, M. T., & Burton, M. D. (1999). Building the iron cage: Determinants of managerial intensity in the early years of organizations. *American Sociological Review, 64*(4), 527-547.

Baum, J., & Locke, E. (2004). The relationship of entrepreneurial traits, skill, and motivation to subsequent venture growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 587-598.

Bautista Delgado-Garcia, J., Isabel Rodriguez-Escudero, A., & Martin-Cruz, N. (2012). Influence of affective traits on entrepreneur's goals and satisfaction. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *50*(3), 408-428.

Beckman, C. M., & Burton, M. D. (2008). Founding the future: Path dependence in the evolution of top management teams from founding to IPO. *Organization Science, 19*(1), 3-24.

Berger, P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1967). *The social construction of reality*. New York: Doubleday.

Boeker, W. (1989a). The development and institutionalization of subunit power in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 34*, 388-410.

Boeker, W. (1989b). Strategic change: The effects of founding and history. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*(3), 489-515.

Borch, O. J., Forde, A., Ronning, L., Kluken, V., & Alsos, G. A. (2008). Resource configuration and creative practices of community entrepreneurs. *Journal of Enterprising Communities, 2*(2), 100-123.

Brennan, S., & Ackers, S. (2004). Recycling, best value and social enterprise: Assessing the 'liverpool model'. *Local Economy, 19*(175), 181.

Brown, W. A. (2005). Exploring the association between board and organizational performance in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 15*(3), 317-339.

Burns, T. (1967). The comparative study of organizations. In V. H. Vroom (Ed.), *Methods of organizational research* (pp. 108-143). Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Burton, M. D., & Beckman, C. M. (2007). Leaving a legacy: Position imprints and successor turnover in young firms. *American Sociological Review, 72*(2), 239-266.

Carlson, D., & Kacmar, K. (2000). Work-family conflict in the organization: Do life role values make a difference? *Journal of Management, 26*(5), 1031-1054.

Carlson, D., Kacmar, K., Wayne, J., & Grzywacz, J. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work-family interface: Development and validation of a work-family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *68*(1), 131-164.

Carlson, D., Kacmar, K., & Williams, L. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 56*(2), 249-276.

Carmeli, A., & Tishler, A. (2004). The relationships between intangible organizational elements and organizational performance. *Strategic Management Journal, 25*(13), 1257-1278.

Carroll, G. R., & Delacroix, J. (1982). Organizational mortality in the newspaper industries of argentina and ireland: An ecological approach. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 27*, 169-198.

Chandler, G. N., & Hanks, S. H. (1993). Measuring the performance of emerging businesses - a validation-study. *Journal of Business Venturing, 8*(5), 391-408.

Cliff, J. E., Jennings, P. D., & Greenwood, R. (2006). New to the game and questioning the rules: The experiences and beliefs of founders who start imitative versus innovative firms. *Journal of Business Venturing, 21*(5), 633-663.

Covin, J., & Slevin, D. (1990). New venture strategic posture, structure, and performance - an industry life-cycle analysis. *Journal of Business Venturing, 5*(2), 123-135.

Crocker, L., & Algina, J. (2008). *Introduction to classical & modern test theory*. Mason, Ohio: Cengage.

Dees, J. G. (1998). Enterprising nonprofits. *Harvard Business Review, 76*(1), 54-67.

Dees, J. G. (2001). *The meaning of social entrepreneurship* The Kauffman Foundation.

Desa, G., & Basu, S. (2013). Optimization or bricolage? overcoming resource constraints in global social entrepreneurship. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal, 7*, 26-49.

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1991a). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. In P. J. DiMaggio (Ed.), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis* (pp. 63-82). Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press.

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1991b). The new institutionalism in organizational analysis: Introduction. In P. J. DiMaggio (Ed.), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis* (pp. 1-38) Chicago and London:; University of Chicago Press.

Dimov, D. (2010). Nascent entrepreneurs and venture emergence: Opportunity confidence, human capital, and early planning. *Journal of Management Studies, 47*(6), 1123-1153.

Ding, W. W. (2011). The impact of founders' professional-education background on the adoption of open science by for-profit biotechnology firms. *Management Science, 57*(2), 257-273.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Agency theory - an assessment and review. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 57-74.

Eisenhardt, K. M., & Schoonhoven, C. B. (1990). Organizational growth - linking founding team, strategy, environment, and growth among united-states semiconductor ventures, 1978-1988. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 35*(3), 504-529.

Fauchart, E., & Gruber, M. (2011). Darwinians, communitarians, and missionaries: The role of founder identity in entrepreneurship. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*(5), 935-957.

Felicio, J. A., Goncalves, H. M., & Goncalves, V. (2013). Social value and organizational performance in non-profit social organizations: Social entrepreneurship, leadership, and socioeconomic context effects. *Journal of Business Research, 66*, 2139-2146.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*(1), 39-50.

Gundry, L., & Welsch, H. (2001). The ambitions entrepreneur: High growth strategies of women-owned enterprises. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *16*(5), 453-470.

Hackel, J. (2012). TOMS shoes: Does buy-one-give-one work? Retrieved from http://www.theworld.org/2012/03/toms-shoes-does-buy-one-give-one-work/

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ, USA: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Hannan, M. T., Burton, M. D., & Baron, J. N. (1996). Inertia and change in the early years: Employment relations in young, high technology firms. *Industrial and Corporate Change, 5*(2), 503-536.

Hannan, M. T., & Freeman, J. (1977). The population ecology of organizations. *American Journal of Sociology, 82*, 929-964.

Hannan, M. T., & Freeman, J. (1984). Structural inertia and organizational change. *American Sociological Review, 49*(2), 149-164.

Harris, L., & Ogbonna, E. (1999). The strategic legacy of company founders. *Long Range Planning, 32*(3), 333-343.

Herman, R. D., & Renz, D. O. (1997). Multiple constituencies and the social construction of nonprofit organization effectiveness. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 26*(2), 185-206.

Herman, R. D., & Renz, D. O. (2008). Advancing nonprofit organizational effectiveness research and theory: Nine theses. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 18*(4), 399-415.

Hill, R. C., & Levenhagen, M. (1995). Metaphors and mental models - sensemaking and sensegiving in innovative and entrepreneurial activities. *Journal of Management, 21*(6), 1057-1074.

Hinkin, T. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, *1*(1), 104-121.

Holburn, G. L. F., & Zelner, B. A. (2010). Political capabilities, policy risk, and international investment strategy: Evidence from the global electric power generation industry. *Strategic Management Journal, 31*, 1290-1315.

Jensen, M. (2002). Value maximization, stakeholder theory, and the corporate objective function. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 12*(2), 235-256.

Jepperson, R. L. (1991). Institutions, institutional effects, and institutionalism. In P. J. DiMaggio (Ed.), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis* (pp. 143-163) Chicago and London:; University of Chicago Press.

Johnson, V. (2007). What is organizational imprinting? cultural entrepreneurship in the founding of the paris opera. *American Journal of Sociology, 113*(1), 97-127.

Kaplan, R. S. (2001). Strategic performance measurement and management in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 11*(2), 353.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (1992). The balanced scorecard - measures that drive performance. *Harvard Business Review, 70*(1), 71-79.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (1996). Using the balanced scorecard as a strategic management system. *Harvard Business Review, 74*(1), 75-&.

Katre, A., & Salipante, P. (2012). Start-up social ventures: Blending fine-grained behaviors from two institutions for entrepreneurial success. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 36*(5), 967-994.

Kimberly, J. R. (1975). Environmental constraints and organizational structure: A comparative analysis of rehabilitation organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *20*, 1-9.

Kimberly, J. R. (1979). Issues in the creation of organizations: Initiation, innovation, and institutionalization. *Academy of Management Journal, 22*(3), 437-457.

Kimberly, J. R., & Bouchikhi, H. (1995). The dynamics of organizational development and change: How the past shapes the present and constrains the future. *Organization Science, 6*(1), 9-18.

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, New York: The Guilford Press.

Kriauciunas, A., & Kale, P. (2006). The impact of socialist imprinting and search on resource change: A study of firms in lithuania. *Strategic Management Journal, 27*(7), 659-679.

Krueger, N. F., Reilly, M. D., & Carsrud, A. L. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing, 15*(5-6), 411-432.

Krueger, N. F., & Reilly, M. D. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing, 15*(5), 411.

Lee, C., Lee, K., & Pennings, J. (2001). Internal capabilities, external networks, and performance: A study on technology-based ventures. *Strategic Management Journal, 22*(6-7), 615-640.

Lepoutre, J., Justo, R., Terjesen, S., & Bosma, N. (2013). Designing a global standardized methodology for measuring social entrepreneurship activity: The global entrepreneurship monitor social entrepreneurship study. *Small Business Economics, 40*(3), 693-714.

Leung, A., Foo, M. D., & Chaturvedi, S. (2013). Imprinting effects of founding core teams on HR values in new ventures. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 37*(1), 87-106.

Liozu, S., & Hinterhuber, A. (2014). Pricing capabilities: The design, development, and validation of a scale. *Management Decision, 52*(1), 144-158.

Lorenz, K. (1937). On the formation of the concept of instinct. *Natural Sciences, 25*(19), 289-300.

Lortie, J., & Castogiovanni, G. (2015). The theory of planned behavior in entrepreneurship research: What we know and future directions. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 11*(4), 935-957.

MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2012). Common method bias in marketing: Causes, mechanisms, and procedural remedies. *Journal of Retailing, 88*(4), 542-555.

MacKinnon, D., Lockwood, C., Hoffman, J., West, S., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological Methods, 7*(1), 83-104.

Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2006). Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 36-44.

Marquis, C., & Huang, Z. (2009). The contingent nature of public policy and the growth of us commercial banking. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(6), 1222-1246.

Marquis, C., & Huang, Z. (2010). Acquisitions as exaptation: The legacy of founding institutions in the us commercial banking industry. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*(6), 1441-1473.

Marquis, C., & Tilcsik, A. (2013). Imprinting: Toward a multilevel theory. *Academy of Management Annals, 7*(1), 195-245.

McDonald, R. E. (2007). An investigation of innovation in nonprofit organizations: The role of organizational mission. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 36*(2), 256-281.

Meyer, J. W., & Rowan, B. (1991). Institutionalized organizations: Formal structure as myth and ceremony. In P. J. DiMaggio (Ed.), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis* (pp. 41-62) Chicago and London:; University of Chicago Press.

Meyer, M. W., & Brown, M. C. (1977). The process of bureaucratization. *American Journal of Sociology, 83*(2), 364-385.

Meyskens, M., Robb-Post, C., Stamp, J. A., Carsrud, A. L., & Reynolds, P. D. (2010). Social ventures from a resource-based perspective: An exploratory study assessing global ashoka fellows. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 34*(4), 661-680.

Mohr, L. (1982). *Approaches to explanation: Variance theory and process theory. explaining organizational behavior*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Morgan, G. (1980). Paradigms, metaphors, and puzzle solving in organization theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 25*(4), 605-622.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Orr, L. M., Bush, V. D., & Vorhies, D. W. (2011). Leveraging firm-level marketing capabilities with marketing employee development. *Journal of Business Research, 64*(10), 1074-1081.

Ostroff, C., & Kozlowski, S. (1992). Organizational socialization as a learning-process - the role of information acquisition. *Personnel Psychology, 45*(4), 849-874.

Ozgen, E., & Baron, R. A. (2007). Social sources of information in opportunity recognition: Effects of mentors, industry networks, and professional forums. *Journal of Business Venturing, 22*(2), 174-192.

Paige, R., & Littrell, M. (2002). Craft retailers' criteria for success and associated business strategies. *Journal of Small Business Management, 40*(4), 314-331.

Palmer, T. B., & Short, J. C. (2008). Mission statements in US colleges of business: An empirical examination of their content with linkages to configurations and performance. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 7*(4), 454-470.

Pedhazur, E. J., & Schmelkin, L. P. (1991). *Measurement, design, and analysis: An integrated approach*. New York, New York: Psychology Press.

Peredo, A., & McLean, M. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: A critical review of the concept. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 56-65.

Peterson, M. F., & Castro, S. L. (2006). Measurement metrics at aggregate levels of analysis: Implications for organization culture research and the GLOBE project. *Leadership Quarterly, 17*(5), 506-521.

Phillips, D. J. (2005). Organizational genealogies and the persistence of gender inequality: The case of silicon valley law firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 50*(3), 440-472.

Phillips, N., Lawrence, T. B., & Hardy, C. (2004). Discourse and institutions. *Academy of Management Review, 29*(4), 635-652.

Ping, R. (2004). On assuring valid measures for theoretical models using survey data. *Journal of Business Research, 57*(2), 125-141.

Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903.

Renko, M. (2013). Early challenges of nascent social entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 37*(5), 1045-1069.

Sawhill, J. C., & Williamson, D. (2001). Mission impossible? measuring success in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 11*(3)

Schein, E. H. (1983). The role of the founder in creating organizational culture. *Organizational Dynamics,* (Summer), 13-28.

Schriesheim, C., Powers, K., Scandura, T. A., Gardiner, C., & Lankau, M. J. (1993). Improving construct measurement in management research - comments and a quantitative approach for assessing the theoretical content adequacy of paper-and-pencil survey-type instruments. *Journal of Management, 19*(2), 385-417.

Schumpeter, J. A. (1936). *The theory of economic development* (Second Edition ed.). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Schumpeter, J. A. (1942). *Capitalism, socialism and democracy*. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Sharir, M., & Lerner, M. (2006). Gauging the success of social ventures initiated by individual social entrepreneurs. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 6-20.

Shinkle, G. A., & Kriauciunas, A. P. (2012). The impact of current and founding institutions on strength of competitive aspirations in transition economies. *Strategic Management Journal, 33*(4), 448-458.

Short, J. C., Moss, T. W., & Lumpkin, G. T. (2009). Research in social entrepreneurship: Past contributions and future opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal, 3*(2), 161.

Shrout, P., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 7*(4), 422-445.

Simon, M., Houghton, S., & Savelli, S. (2003). Out of the frying pan ...? why small business managers introduce high-risk products. *Journal of Business Venturing, 18*(3), 419-440.

Sirmon, D. G., Hitt, M. A., & Ireland, R. D. (2007). Managing firm resources in dynamic environments to create value: Looking inside the black box. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(1), 273-292.

Stewart, W., Watson, W., Carland, J., & Carland, J. (1999). A proclivity for entrepreneurship: A comparison of entrepreneurs, small business owners, and corporate managers. *Journal of Business Venturing, 14*(2), 189-214.

Stinchcombe, A. (1965). Social structure and organizations. In J. G. March (Ed.), *Handbook of organizations* (pp. 142-193). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Taras, V., Steel, P., & Kirkman, B. L. (2010). Examining the impact of culture's consequences: A three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(3), 405-439.

Teasdale, S. (2012). Negotiating tensions: How do social enterprises in the homelessness field balance social and commercial considerations? *Housing Studies, 27*(4), 514-532.

Teece, D. J. (2002). Economies of scope and the scope of the enterprise. In R. N. Langlois, T. F. Yu & P. Robertson (Eds.), *Alternative theories of the firm. volume 2* (pp. 401-425) Elgar Reference Collection. International Library of Critical Writings in Economics, vol. 154; Cheltenham, U.K. and Northampton, Mass.:; Elgar; distributed by American International Distribution Corporation, Williston, Vt.

Teece, D. J. (2007). Explicating dynamic capabilities: The nature and microfoundations of (sustainable) enterprise performance. *Strategic Management Journal, 28*(13), 1319-1350.

Teece, D. J., Pisano, G., & Shuen, A. (1997). Dynamic capabilities and strategic management. *Strategic Management Journal, 18*(7), 509-533.

Tracey, M., Lim, J., & Vonderembse, M. (2005). The impact of supply-chain management capabilities on business performance. *Supply Chain Management-an International Journal, 10*(3-4), 179-191.

Van Slyke, D. M., & Newman, H. K. (2006). Venture philanthropy and social entrepreneurship in community redevelopment. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 16*(3), 345-368.

Vorhies, D. W., Morgan, R. E., & Autry, C. W. (2009). Product-market strategy and the marketing capabilities of the firm: Impact on market effectiveness and cash flow performance. *Strategic Management Journal, 30*(12), 1310-1334.

Wang, C., & Ang, B. (2004). Determinants of venture performance in singapore. *Journal of Small Business Management, 42*(4), 347-363.

Weerawardena, J., & Mort, G. (2001). Learning, innovation and competitive advantage in not-for-profit aged care marketing: A conceptual model and research propositions. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 9*(3), 53-73.

Westhead, P., Ucbasaran, D., & Wright, M. (2005). Decisions, actions, and performance: Do novice, serial, and portfolio entrepreneurs differ? *Journal of Small Business Management, 43*(4), 393-417.

White, G. O. I., Hadjimarcou, J., Fainshmidt, S., & Posthuma, R. A. (2013). MNE home country cultural norms and conflict strategy fit in transnational business contract disputes. *International Business Review, 22*(3), 554-567.

Wiklund, J., & Shepherd, D. (2003). Knowledge-based resources, entrepreneurial orientation, and the performance of small and medium-sized businesses. *Strategic Management Journal*, *24*(13), 1307-1314.

Wilson, F., & Post, J. E. (2013). Business models for people, planet (& profits): Exploring the phenomena of social business, a market-based approach to social value creation. *Small Business Economics, 40*(3), 715-737.

Zhang, D. D., & Swanson, L. A. (2013). Social entrepreneurship in nonprofit organizations: An empirical investigation of the synergy between social and business objectives. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *25*(1), 105-125.

Zhao, X., Lynch, J. G., Jr., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering baron and kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *37*(2), 197-206.

Zucker, L. G. (1991). The role of institutionalization in cultural persistence. In W. W. Powell, & P. J. DiMaggio (Eds.), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis* (pp. 83-107) Chicago and London:; University of Chicago Press.

Zyglidopoulos, S. (1999). Initial environmental conditions and technological change. *Journal of Management Studies*, *36*(2), 241-262.