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A Framework for Exploring the Degree of Hybridity in Social Entrepreneurship

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A Framework for Exploring the Degree of Hybridity in Entrepreneurship

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we problematize the growing literature on hybrid organizing to demonstrate that research on hybrids and entrepreneurship can benefit from considering the degree of hybridity in organizing the exploitation of potential opportunities for the creation of both economic and social value. Recent work has moved beyond discrete categorization of organizations as hybrid (or not) to conceptualize hybridity as a continuum anchored by a strong social logic at one end and a strong economic logic at the other end. We take the conceptualization of hybridity one step further by acknowledging that organizations can differ in the *relative* importance they ascribe to the economic logic vis-à-vis the social logic and that both the economic and social logics can be held at varying levels of *intensity*. The main purpose of revising the conceptualization of the degree of hybridity is to develop a framework for future research. This framework highlights the importance of understanding how entrepreneurs can both directly and indirectly (through the co-construction of potential opportunities) influence the degree of hybridity, and how differences in degree of hybridity impact organizational outcomes in terms of success and failure in creating economic and social value.

Keywords: hybrid organizing; hybridity; social entrepreneurship; entrepreneur; opportunity; community of inquiry; co-construction

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3 Entrepreneurship research has largely placed organizations into one of three categories—
4 economic, social¹, and a combination of the two called “hybrid” (Battilana, Sengal, & Pache,
5 2015; Fosfuri, Giarrantana & Roca, 2016; Katre & Salipante, 2012; McMullen & Warnick, 2016;
6 Miller et al., 2012). Studies of hybrid organizations have gained prominence in recent years
7 (Battilana & Lee, 2014), growing into a major stream of research in management and
8 entrepreneurship scholarship. As argued in a recent review (Battilana, Besharov, & Mitzinneck,
9 2017), this growing body of literature can be loosely classified into three primary approaches:
10 hybrid rationales operating at the extra-organizational level, hybrid forms operating at the
11 organizational level, and hybrid identities operating at the intra-organizational level.
12 Collectively, these three approaches have advanced our understanding of (1) how rival
13 institutional logics are infused into hybrid organizing and thus lead to potential tensions and
14 conflicts among internal and external constituencies (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Pache & Santos,
15 2013); (2) how the nature and strengths of challenges, internal/contextual tensions, and conflicts
16 variably manifest at the organizational level (Cobb, Wry, & Zhao, 2016; Williams et al., 2017;
17 Wry & Zhao, 2018; Zhao & Wry, 2016) and how hybrid organizations succeed or struggle in
18 using various means to manage such conflicts and assuage tensions (Battilana et al., 2015; Smith
19 & Tracey, 2016); and (3) how different identity elements are integrated in the creation and
20 strategic orientation of hybrid organizations (Besharov, 2014; Smith & Besharov, 2018; Wry &
21 York, 2017)

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24 Notwithstanding their unique focus and insights, these past studies share a common
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premise: they tend to view hybrid organizations as a distinct organizational type that differs from

¹ Hybrid organizations could include a number of combinations beyond economic and social. For example, prior research has explored additional hybrid forms that combine economic outcomes with other objectives, such as environmental sustainability (Shepherd & Patzelt, 2011), community well-being (Peredo & Chrisman, 2006), alleviation of suffering (Williams & Shepherd, 2016a; Williams et al., 2017), and even state-owned enterprises (Bruton, Peng, Ahlstrom, Stan, & Xu, 2015). For the purposes of this paper, we refer to non-economic orientations as “social” while also recognizing the presence of other orientations.

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3 traditional organizational forms in that hybrid organizations mix “two or more organizational
4 elements that would not conventionally go together” (Battilana, et al., 2017: 129). While
5
6 acknowledging such qualitative differences between hybrids and non-hybrids is useful, doing so
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8 risks overly simplifying the potential heterogeneity among the hybrids, thus underplaying the
9
10 impact of different *degrees of hybridity* across organizations. To address this issue, Battilana and
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12 colleagues (2017) call for future research based on a view of hybridity as a matter of degree
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14 rather than type. Battilana and colleagues’ (2017) take an initial step in the direction of
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16 conceptualizing the degree of hybridity by highlighting that the economic logic and the social
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18 logic are ends of a continuum. This argument is important as it moves beyond the coarse
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20 categorical conceptualization of organizations (e.g., social, economic, or hybrid) and
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22 acknowledges variability in the nature of logics within hybrid organizations that likely shapes
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24 venture outcomes.
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31 In this study, we build on and extend Battilana and colleagues’ (2017) efforts and argue
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33 that we should go beyond the notion of hybridity as a continuum and instead theorize on the
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35 *degree of hybridity*, which involves the *relative* importance of the economic logic vis-à-vis the
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37 social logic (i.e., from an unbalanced emphasis on the economic logic to a balanced emphasis on
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39 both logics to an unbalanced emphasis on the social logic) as well as the *intensity* of the logics
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41 (i.e., low to high intensity). We propose that the degree of hybridity is shaped by the central
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43 elements of organizational emergence: (1) the entrepreneur, such as the entrepreneur’s prosocial
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45 motivation and social-based affect; (2) the community of inquiry, or the “potential stakeholders
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47 that provide feedback on the veracity of a potential opportunity” (Shepherd, 2015: 491); (3) the
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49 nature of the potential opportunity to create some level of both economic and social value; and
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52 (4) the organizational outcomes—the level of success and failure of ventures with different
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3 degrees of hybridity. Indeed, the main purpose of this paper is to use our revised
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5 conceptualization of the degree of hybridity to create a framework for future research that
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7 motivates and informs a fresh examination of the relationships between entrepreneurship and
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9 hybrid organizing.
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12 Importantly, the objective of this study is less about conducting a comprehensive review
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14 (i.e., a paper suited for the *Academy of Management Annals*). Rather, we problematize core
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16 premises of the literature and offer insights into potential solutions. Specifically, in the
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18 following sections, we provide detail on our reconceptualization of the degree of hybridity and
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20 then use that reconceptualization in a framework to offer an agenda for future research that can
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22 advance scholarship on hybrid organizing and entrepreneurship.
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25 26 **HYBRID ORGANIZING**

27 28 **Social-Economic Tension in Hybrid Organizing**

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30 Hybrid organizing refers to “activities, structures, processes and meanings by which
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32 organizations make sense of and combine aspects of multiple organizational forms” (Battilana &
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34 Lee, 2014: 398). *Hybridity* has been defined as “the mixing of core organizational elements that
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36 would not conventionally go together” (Battilana et al., 2017: 129). Therefore, effective hybrid
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38 organizing involves incorporating the multiple core elements (Hannan & Freeman, 1984),
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40 including identities, forms, and rationales, that define core organizational processes and
41
42 associated goals (Wry & York, 2017). The hybrid organizing literature has (until recently)
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44 typically assumed that organizations primarily serve either an economic or a social function—
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46 two “pure” forms that compete when combined in a hybrid organization (Jay, 2013; Pache &
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48 Santos, 2013). Hybrid organizations experience tensions between social and economic
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50 orientations, in which there is a competition for core business activity functions. These tensions
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3 can lead to disruptions in resource allocation (Smith, Gonin, & Besharov, 2013), inter-personal
4 conflict that decreases organizational efficiency (Fiol et al., 2009), and decision-making paralysis
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6 (Pache & Santos, 2010). Indeed, prior research has demonstrated the long-term impact of the
7
8 economic-social tension, highlighting the risk of “mission drift” (i.e., unintended divergence
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10 from a stated mission or core objective) that can occur when conflict-reconciliation processes
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12 result in action that is inconsistent with stated strategic objectives (Ben-Ner, 2002; Ebrahim, et
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14 al., 2014; Grimes, Williams, & Zhao, 2018).
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20 Despite the potential issues associated with reconciling hybrid tensions, other research
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22 (Tobias et al., 2013) has found that economic and social value creation are often intertwined such
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24 that entrepreneurial venturing removes economic and social problems for both the entrepreneur
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26 and others within society. That is, Tobias and colleagues (2013) find that economic and social
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28 objectives appear to be *complementary* rather than *competing*. This finding is consistent with
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30 other research showing that hybrid objectives reinforce one another, such as work on
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32 multinational corporations entering bottom-of-the-pyramid markets (Simanis & Hart, 2008;
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34 London & Hart, 2004), organizations seeking to respond to audiences with complex demands
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36 (Paolella & Durand, 2016), staffing creativity in recognizing underutilized assets (Hockerts,
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38 2015), and community-based enterprises (Peredo & Chrisman, 2006). At the very least, these
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40 findings suggest that hybrid organizing is perhaps more nuanced than previously understood and
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42 that the coarse way in which it has been defined and measured might have contributed to the
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44 mixed and competing findings.
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49 **Hybridity as a “Matter of Degree”**

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51 More recent work on hybridity (Battilana et al., 2017: 129) has proposed that future
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53 studies should further problematize the notion of hybridity and treat it as a “matter of degree.” A
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3 simple way to treat hybridity as a matter of degree is to conceptualize it as a continuum anchored
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5 by an economic logic at one end and a social logic at the other end. Along such a continuum,
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7 hybridity would tend to be greatest in the middle. Although this continuum is an improvement
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9 from the dichotomous economic-social conceptualization, it does not capture the *intensity* of
10
11 hybridity. For example, based on the continuum conceptualization of hybridity, a firm with a
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13 moderately weak economic logic and a moderately weak social logic would be considered the
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15 same degree of hybridity as a firm with a strong economic logic and a strong social logic. Yet,
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17 ventures with a strong economic or social logic have a more intense hybridity that likely presents
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19 different challenges and benefits than the low hybrid intensity ventures. As this comparison
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21 demonstrates, the degree of hybridity is likely broad in scope (even in the middle of the simple
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23 economic-social continuum). Differences in the intensity of hybridity are likely to impact
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25 important problems and solutions, such as whether and how economic-social tension presents in
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27 hybrid organizations and whether and how it can be resolved. Furthermore, these differences
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29 suggest the need for greater precision in theorizing and measurement to advance scholarship on
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31 hybrid organizing.
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37 **A Revised Conceptualization of Hybridity**

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40 In a step toward offering a more nuanced representation of hybridity as called for by
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42 recent scholars (Battilana et al., 2017; Battilana & Lee, 2014) and in an effort to acknowledge
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44 the complexity and variety of hybrid forms, we offer a conceptualization of hybridity in Figures
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46 1a–1c. Consistent with prior scholarship, our conceptualization acknowledges and accounts for
47
48 the “multiple elements” (Battilana et al., 2017: 149) present in hybrid organizing across a
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50 continuum. However, in extending these conceptualizations of the “degree of hybridity,” we seek
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52 to account for differences in the relativity (i.e., distribution) and intensity (i.e., prominence) of
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3 potentially competing hybrid logics within a firm. We now turn to a discussion of these two
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5 components, which we argue constitute the *degree of hybridity*.
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8 *Hybrid relativity and the degree of hybridity.* **Hybrid relativity** refers to the extent of the
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10 distribution of multiple logics within the organization, or the way in which the economic and
11
12 social logics are balanced within an organization. Organizations can vary in how they emphasize
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14 (i.e., focus attention on) multiple goals. For example, an organization could be focused primarily
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16 on economic objectives (e.g., 90% of attention and resources) with a secondary focus on social
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18 objectives (e.g., 10% of attention and resources). As an example of *low relative hybridity*, many
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20 large corporations are now engaging in highly organized corporate social responsibility (CSR)
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22 initiatives to both do good and provide goodwill for their organizations. As an illustration,
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24 Humana Inc. (a provider of Health Insurance products and services) devotes the vast majority of
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26 its efforts to generating economic returns. However, Humana also publishes a CSR annual
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28 report, which includes specific goals for positive community impact (e.g., “make the
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30 communities we serve 20% healthier by 2020”) and highlights all of the organization’s efforts to
31
32 achieve positive social outcomes as a secondary objective of the firm (Humana, 2018). Thus, one
33
34 might argue that Humana has low hybrid relativity because its primary orientation is on
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36 economic outcomes.
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43 In contrast, high hybrid relativity occurs when there is parity in the representation of
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45 economic and social logics at the organization’s core. For example, Emmanuel Faber, Chairman
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47 and CEO of Danone, “is very engaged in the development of new, more inclusive business
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49 models” (www.danone.com) and created Danone Communities with Mohammad Yunus to help
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51 alleviate poverty by providing people nutrition and a safe place to live
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53 (www.danonecommunities.com). Faber’s goal is to ensure that economic and social goals are
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3 mutually reinforcing—where neither one is lost over time. To achieve this, he is altering his
4 business model, legal way of organizing, and taking other steps in adjusting the organization’s
5 core activities to align with a hybrid orientation. In summary, this first aspect of hybridity offers
6 a more nuanced understanding of the continuum of economic-social logics and their influence on
7 core organizational activities.
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11 In Figure 1a, we display a continuum for hybrid relativity. The y-axis is the relative
12 emphasis of the social logic (vis-à-vis the economic logic) from low to high, and the x-axis is the
13 relative emphasis of the economic logic (vis-à-vis the social logic) from low to high. As
14 illustrated in the Figure 1a, a traditional social venture is relatively high in social logic and low in
15 economic logic (low hybridity), a traditional economic venture is relatively high in economic
16 logic and low in social logic (low hybridity), and a traditional hybrid venture is balanced—the
17 social and economic logics are relatively equal within the venture (high hybridity). We use the
18 word traditional to reflect the previous trichotomy of organizational forms but anticipate that
19 firms vary across this continuum (the dotted diagonal line) and that hybrid relativity increases as
20 the relative importance of the economic and social logics becomes more balanced.
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37 -----INSERT FIGURE 1A ABOUT HERE-----
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40 *Hybrid intensity and the degree of hybridity.* **Hybrid intensity** refers to the vigor with
41 which the economic logic is held within an organization and the vigor with which the social logic
42 is held within an organization. For example, an organization with both strong economic and
43 social logics experiences high hybrid intensity and will likely seek to enhance its scale to expand
44 its social and economic missions. For example, Va Va Coffee launched a venture in 2009 with
45 the objective of reducing the steps in the value chain connecting Kenyan specialty coffee farmers
46 with customers. This organization is strongly committed to increasing the value captured by
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3 Kenyan farmers *and* strongly committed to generating substantial economic growth to provide a
4 quality product that meets global coffee demands (Chhabra, 2018).
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8 In contrast, organizations with low social and economic logics have low hybrid intensity.
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10 With both a weak social logic and a weak economic logic, these organizations likely include
11 many lifestyle businesses, small-scale family businesses, hobby businesses, and other ventures
12 not committed to substantially growing. While these businesses do generate an income for
13 employees, they may also play some role in the community, providing some (albeit smaller in
14 scale) social value. For example, a new restaurant recently opened in Decatur, Georgia that
15 expressed these dual objectives. The founder explained, “I was raised right around the corner and
16 went to [the local High School]. . . . I have a passion not just for food service, but also food
17 security. I want to bring something special to this area because it’s my neighborhood” (Fonville,
18 2018). He later explained that he wanted to provide “community support” by offering jobs to
19 first-time job seekers and those who were formerly incarcerated. As illustrated in these
20 examples, there is a continuum in hybrid intensity based on the vigor with which the economic
21 and social logics are held within the organization.
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38 In Figure 1b, we display the possible range of hybrid intensity across organizations. The
39 y-axis is the intensity of the social logic from low to high, and the x-axis is the intensity of the
40 economic logic from low to high. As illustrated in Figure 1b, a traditional social venture is
41 considered to have high-intensity social logic but low-intensity economic logic, and a traditional
42 economic venture is considered to have high-intensity economic logic but low-intensity social
43 logic. In Figure 1b, we illustrate current conceptualizations of the traditional hybrid venture
44 (based largely on relative hybridity), including hybrid ventures with low-intensity social and
45 economic logics, hybrid ventures with moderate-intensity social and economic logics, and hybrid
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3 ventures with high-intensity social and economic logics. The hybrid intensity of an organization
4 can be represented anywhere along the diagonal solid line of Figure 1b. Ventures high in
5 intensity for both social and economic logics have the highest hybrid intensity.
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10 -----INSERT FIGURE 1B ABOUT HERE-----

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12 In combining the arguments above, we propose that firms' degree of hybridity will vary
13 depending on the *relativity* and *intensity* of their hybridity. In Figure 1c, we display examples of
14 the degree of hybridity on a y-axis of social logic intensity and an x-axis of economic logic
15 intensity. As illustrated in the Figure 1c, the dashed line indicates relative hybridity, with low
16 relative hybridity at the ends of the line and the highest level of relative hybridity in the middle
17 of the line. The diagonal solid line (of Figure 1c) illustrates hybrid intensity, which increases
18 from low hybrid intensity (i.e., low social and economic intensity) to moderate hybrid intensity
19 (i.e., moderate social and economic intensity) to high hybrid intensity (i.e., high social and
20 economic intensity). The ventures to the upper right of the figure have the highest degree of
21 hybridity.
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35 We reflect the degree of hybridity in a different way in Figure 1d. The axes are the same
36 as for Figure 1c, but in this case, we plot points of *equal degrees of hybridity*. The thin curve
37 highlights a plot of ventures with the same low degree of hybridity, the next curve indicates a
38 plot of ventures with the same moderate degree of hybridity, and the final (thickest) curve is a
39 plot of ventures with the same high degree of hybridity.
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47 -----INSERT FIGURE 1C AND 1D ABOUT HERE-----

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49 By conceptualizing the degree of hybridity in terms of both the relativity and intensity of
50 the hybridity, we can begin to gain a deeper appreciation of the role of hybridity in organizations
51 that create both economic and social value. Furthermore, we anticipate that this revised
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3 conceptualization offers a possible explanation for competing findings across hybrid organizing
4 studies. For example, could it be that studies that found a tension (Jay, 2013; Pache & Santos,
5 2013) between social and economic logics did so due to firms' high-relativity hybridity, high-
6 intensity hybridity, or both? Similarly, could results suggesting a complementary role of hybrid
7 logics (Tobias et al., 2013) be due to high-relativity hybridity but moderate- or low-intensity
8 hybridity? While the purpose of this paper is not to challenge the findings of previous studies, we
9 do hope that a revised conceptualization of the degree of hybridity enables the development of
10 new theories and empirical models of hybridity and organizing. Furthermore, we hope a more
11 nuanced conceptualization of the degree of hybridity (i.e., the combination of both the relativity
12 and intensity of the hybridity) raises many questions. The answers to these questions will likely
13 make important contributions to the entrepreneurship and hybrid organization literature.
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28 **ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE DEGREE OF HYBRIDITY**

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31 We seek to develop an agenda for future research by building on the revised
32 conceptualization of the degree of hybridity and in taking an entrepreneurship perspective. To
33 accomplish this, we explore the emergent processes of co-constructing opportunities as a unique
34 and promising theoretical and empirical context for expanding theory on both hybrid organizing
35 and entrepreneurship. We selected an entrepreneurship perspective as a promising pathway for
36 the advancement of scholarship for three primary reasons.
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44 First, the entrepreneur directly influences the degree of hybridity (Wry & York, 2017) of
45 an emerging organization and indirectly influences the degree of hybridity through the nature of
46 the potential opportunity and the outcome of previous organizing efforts (Austin et al., 2006;
47 Mair & Marti, 2006; Short et al., 2009). We know from prior research that entrepreneurs can
48 shape a new organization's core elements (e.g., logics, identity, form) (Hannan & Freeman,
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3 1984) based on their motivation (Mueller, Wolfe, & Syed, 2017), identity (Fauchart & Gruber,
4 2011; Wry & York, 2017), and attention to social problems and challenges (Moroz, Branzei,
5 Parker, & Gamble, 2018; Peredo, Haugh, & McLean, 2017). As such, scholarship that examines
6 the entrepreneur's impact on the emergence of organizations could provide key insights into the
7 degree of hybridity by exploring the relativity and intensity of the hybridity.
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15 Second, recent scholarship (Autio, Dahlander, & Frederiksen 2013; Dentoni, Pascucci,
16 Poldner, & Gartner, 2017; Shepherd & Williams, 2014; Williams & Shepherd, 2016a, 2016b,
17 2018) has highlighted the important role of communities in interacting with entrepreneurs to
18 generate and develop potential opportunities critical to the emergence of new organizations
19 (Shepherd & Williams, 2019). More specifically, scholarship has highlighted how communities
20 of inquiry—collections of actors working toward a common objective—can influence the core
21 logics of an organization during its emergence and evolution (Shepherd, 2015; Williams &
22 Shepherd, 2018). For example, Williams and Shepherd (2018) found that following a devastating
23 bushfire, entrepreneurs created new ventures to help others with the aid of their networks of
24 individuals. These networks functioned as communities of inquiry seeking to address suffering
25 following the natural disaster. We anticipate that the community of inquiry directly shapes
26 perceptions of a potential opportunity, which in turn influences the degree of hybridity for the
27 emerging organization. Furthermore, we anticipate that interactions between communities of
28 inquiry and entrepreneurs will shape both perceptions of opportunities and the degree of
29 hybridity. Therefore, future research that explores the nature of causality between these
30 important variables (and perhaps also the presence of mutual causation) will make an important
31 contribution to the hybrid organizing literature.
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3 Finally, research on the co-construction of entrepreneurial opportunities that promise
4 both economic and social value has garnered considerable interest from the broader management
5 scholarly community (e.g., Alvarez, Woolley, & Young 2015; Alvarez & Barney, 2010;
6 Davidsson, 2015, 2017; Dimov, 2007; Venkataraman, Sarasvathy, Dew, & Forster, 2012; Wood
7 & McKinley, 2010). While there is a growing body of research on how entrepreneurs interact
8 with communities of inquiry to co-construct opportunities (Autio, et al., 2013; Lyons et al., 2012;
9 Pardales & Girod, 2006), there is very limited scholarship examining how community-
10 entrepreneur interactions shape hybridity (cf. Williams & Shepherd, 2018). In our framework for
11 future research, we highlight the benefits of including the potential opportunity as an area of
12 focus as it links entrepreneurs (and their organizations) with communities of inquiry and is also
13 likely to function as an antecedent to the degree of hybridity (and organizational outcomes).
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28 In Figure 2, we sketch out an agenda as a first step toward explaining the degree of
29 hybridity based on an entrepreneurship perspective—the emergence of organizations through the
30 co-construction of potential opportunities. This model is consistent with calls for greater clarity
31 in identifying the antecedents and outcomes of hybridity (Battilana et al., 2017). As proposed in
32 Figure 2, we organize the agenda for future research around four central elements that shape
33 organizational emergence—the entrepreneur, the community of inquiry, the nature of the
34 social/economic potential opportunity, and organizational outcomes. This helps to structure our
35 research agenda and offer a cohesive overview of how future research can fill the most pressing
36 scholarly gaps. We now discuss each of the key elements in Figure 2 and identify possible topics
37 to advance knowledge on hybridity in particular and entrepreneurship in general.
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51 -----INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE-----
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53 **Entrepreneurial Motivation, Potential Opportunities, and the Degree of Hybridity**

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3 While entrepreneurship involves a number of important elements, a logical starting point
4 is the entrepreneur and his/her motivation for pursuing a potential opportunity. To date, the bulk
5 of entrepreneurship research has sought to explain factors that shape the emergence and success
6 of organizations seeking to maximize *financial* returns (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern,
7 2006; Parker, 2018). Given this economic orientation, the focus of most individual-oriented
8 entrepreneurship studies has been on the influence of entrepreneurs' self-interested motivation in
9 shaping financial performance (Baum & Locke, 2004; Shane, Locke & Collins, 2003). In the
10 next two sections, we briefly review the research on entrepreneurial motivation and affect, and
11 given our interest in also considering the creation of social value, we devote particular attention
12 to entrepreneur attributes that are highly salient to the *social dimension* of entrepreneurial
13 action—namely, prosocial motivation and social-based affect. We conclude each section by
14 offering specific recommendations for future research.
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30 Motivation has a long history in entrepreneurship scholarship (e.g., Collins, Locke, &
31 Hanges, 2000; McClelland, 1961). Traditionally, this literature has focused on concepts like need
32 for achievement, independence, comfort with ambiguity/uncertainty, and so forth (Low &
33 Macmillan, 1988; Venkataraman, 1997). Individual motivation is foundational to studies of
34 entrepreneurship in that it explains (at least in part) how entrepreneurs persist in creating and
35 pursuing opportunities (Collins et al., 2000; Shane et al., 2003). Building on this tradition, social
36 entrepreneurship research (e.g., Conger, McMullen, Bergman, & York, 2018) has highlighted the
37 importance of an individual's *prosocial motivation*—or the desire to have a positive impact on
38 other people or social collectives (Batson, 1987; Grant, 2007). This focus varies substantially
39 from prior motivational scholarship, which generally assumed that entrepreneurial opportunities
40 involve “potentialities for [economic] profit making” (Shane, Locke, & Collins, 2012: 7).
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3 Therefore, there is likely much to be gained from a deeper understanding of how entrepreneurs'
4 prosocial motivation influences (1) the co-construction of potential opportunities that create both
5 economic and social gain and (2) the degree of hybridity of the organizations exploiting these
6 potential opportunities.
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12 Indeed, Miller et al. (2012) highlight that the motivations underlying social
13 entrepreneurship (and associated outcomes for organizing) are undertheorized. Miller and
14 colleagues (2012) argue that compassion, which serves as a prosocial motivation, leads to social
15 innovation through the cognitive mechanisms of integrative thinking, prosocial cost-benefit
16 analysis, and commitment to alleviating others' suffering. In a separate study, Renko (2013)
17 finds that an individual's prosocial motivation shapes organizing processes and can enable
18 progress in building a hybrid organization (see also McMullen & Bergman, 2017). In summary,
19 with greater prosocial motivation, an individual is more motivated to help out of concern for
20 others (Batson, 1987), is more likely to feel good about him- or herself as he or she makes
21 progress (Grant & Berry, 2011), and is thus likely to invest more effort and other resources in
22 exploiting subsequent potential opportunities for making prosocial progress.
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38 *Future research on emotion, potential opportunity, and hybridity.* A focus on
39 entrepreneurs' prosocial motivation, therefore, provides a basis for a number of important
40 contributions to building knowledge on the degree of hybridity. First, combining the prosocial
41 motivation literature (Batson, 1987; Grant, 2008) with theories of entrepreneurial action
42 (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006) allows for the exploration of novel research questions. For
43 example, exploring how prosocial motivation combines with knowledge of social (or
44 environmental) problems to generate third- and first-person opportunity beliefs (Patzelt &
45 Shepherd, 2011; Shepherd, 2015) may help explain difference in the relative importance of
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3 economic vis-a-vis social value creation. It could be that knowledge of a social problem leads to
4 prosocial motivation, that prosocial motivation leads to knowledge of a social problem, or that
5 prosocial motivation moderates (i.e., magnifies or dampens) the positive relationship between
6 knowledge of a social problem and the social intensity of solving that problem. Indeed, future
7 scholarship is needed to explore the nature and impact of prosocial motivation and opportunity
8 co-construction on the degree of hybridity.
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11 While it would appear (intuitively) that greater prosocial motivation combined with
12 knowledge of social problems would lead to more intense hybridity, this remains to be tested.
13 Similarly, those motivated to do good for others may not be the most effective at achieving
14 positive social outcomes as good intentions can sometimes end up causing additional problems
15 despite desires to help (Lupton, 2012; Schuller, 2012). Similarly, it is important to note that
16 prosocial motivation does not preclude self-interest (Grant, 2008; Grant & Berry, 2011), and thus
17 we expect that the identification and pursuit of a potential opportunity to create greater social
18 value does not necessarily come at the expense of lower economic value—that is, does not
19 necessarily come at the expense of relative hybridity. We anticipate that future research can
20 identify organizing and performance outcomes along the dimensions of the degree of hybridity
21 highlighted in Figure 1c. For example, if exploiting potential opportunities of greater social value
22 strengthens the social logic, thereby closing the gap between the strength of the economic and
23 social logics, there will be an increase in both the intensity and relativity of hybridity. It could
24 also be that the degree of hybridity changes with increased intensity but reduced relativity if the
25 strength of the social logic continues to grow to the extent that the gap between it and the
26 strength of the economic logic is widened.
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3 Second, a key concept of organizing involves mobilizing and interacting with other actors
4 (e.g., employees, contractors, financiers, etc.) to co-construct opportunities and achieve common
5 objectives (Scott & Davis, 2016; Weick, 1979). Therefore, it is important to know how an
6 entrepreneur's prosocial motivation influences his or her employees' prosocial motivation,
7 behavior, and impact. Under certain conditions, the entrepreneur's prosocial motivation might
8 become a collective prosocial motivation reflected in the hiring process, the organizational
9 culture, and/or routines and systems that direct employees' attention, effort, and commitment
10 toward helping others outside the organization (Perlow & Weeks, 2002; Van Dyne & LePine,
11 1998). The more the entrepreneur's prosocial motivation becomes a collective motivation, the
12 stronger the organization's social logic. This social logic could be manifest either through formal
13 organizational changes (i.e., mission statements, hierarchy, marketing, etc.) that align with the
14 entrepreneur's motivation or through informal actions that may or may not vary from original
15 organizing principals and activities. Because we propose that strengthening the social logic does
16 not necessarily weaken the economic logic (based on the notion that prosocial motivation does
17 not preclude self-interest [Grant, 2008; Grant & Berry, 2011]), to determine an organization's
18 degree of hybridity, the intensity of the economic logic and the relative emphasis of the social
19 logic vis-à-vis the economic logic also need to be captured.
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42 Similarly, as members of the community of inquiry are co-constructing potential
43 opportunities with entrepreneurs, it is also important to assess whether and how key
44 stakeholders' (e.g., early employees, mentors, etc.) prosocial motivations shape the
45 entrepreneur's motivations and actions. While co-constructing opportunities, external audiences
46 are likely to provide feedback, input, and other perspectives that can shape the direction and
47 motivation of the organization (Wood & McKinley, 2010). Indeed, there could be conflicting
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3 motivations among various actors that differentially shape the relativity and intensity of the
4 organization's hybridity.
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8 Finally, motivation to help someone does not always mean that the person will be helped
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10 (Lupton, 2012). Despite this fact, much of the extant scholarship (cf. Williams & Shepherd,
11 2018) on social venturing has failed to directly measure ventures' social impact (i.e., social
12 performance); rather, this work has explored the impact of social venturing on traditional
13 economic outcomes for the *helping organization* (Godfrey, 2005; Godfrey, Merrill, & Hansen,
14 2009). In acknowledging this gap, Grant and Berg (2010: 26) call for more research on the "dark
15 side" of prosocial motivation, arguing that it is "the most important new direction for inquiry" to
16 better understand when and how prosocial motivation fuels unethical behavior or harm doing
17 such that good intentions to "help" end up undermining those being served (e.g., Lupton, 2012;
18 Schuller, 2012; Williams & Shepherd, 2016a). Perhaps it is the high intensity of the economic
19 logic and/or the social logic that leads to the "dark side." But the dark side may manifest itself
20 differently for an unbalanced organization with high economic intensity, for a balanced
21 organization with high economic and social intensity, and for an unbalanced organization with
22 high social intensity. We hope future research explores these differences.
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40 It could also be that prosocial motivation does not lead to action or leads to ineffective
41 action, such as helping people in a way they do not want or need and thus exacerbating the
42 problem. Ineffective action—regardless of how well intentioned—may damage "the cause" by,
43 for example, wasting donor resources on an ineffective attempt to help others. Indeed, it is
44 important for future research to consider the combination of prosocial motivation with different
45 types of opportunity-related knowledge, such as knowledge about those experiencing the social
46 problem; knowledge related to creating a solution to the social problem; and knowledge of
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3 markets, technologies, and organization building. It is the combination—or perhaps
4 configuration—of different motives and different types of opportunity-based knowledge that will
5 not only help explain the generation of potential opportunities that create both economic and
6 social value but also influences the degree of hybridity in organizing the exploitation of such
7 opportunities. Based on the above reasoning, we offer the following research question to
8 hopefully stimulate further theoretical and empirical research:
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17 **Research Question 1:** What impact does the entrepreneur's prosocial motivation have on
18 the emerging organization's degree of hybridity? Specifically, how, when, and why does
19 the entrepreneur's prosocial motivation impact (a) the relative importance gap between
20 the organization's economic and social logics and (b) the intensity of the organization's
21 economic and social logics?
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28 **Entrepreneurs' Affect, Potential Opportunities, and the Degree of Hybridity**

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31 Affect refers to an individual's feelings, emotions, and moods (Foo, 2011; Goss, 2005)
32 and plays a key role in the entrepreneurial process by shaping individuals' identification of
33 potential opportunities, influencing resource acquisition for the creation of new ventures, and
34 impacting firm performance (Baron, 2008; Foo, Uy, & Baron, 2009; Cardon et al., 2012). As it
35 relates to social entrepreneurship, scholars have identified links between an actor's ability to
36 connect emotionally with those in need and that actor's social entrepreneurship intentions (Bacq
37 & Alt, 2018; Dees, 2012; Miller et al., 2012). Recent research has shown that organizations'
38 capacity for compassion (Kanov et al., 2004) is an important factor in shaping processes to
39 identify opportunities for the creation of hybrid organizations (Miller et al., 2012; Shepherd &
40 Williams, 2014; Williams & Shepherd, 2018). Compassion involves the ability to notice, feel
41 concern for, and respond to (i.e., behave with the intention to alleviate) another's suffering
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3 (Dutton et al., 2006; Kanov et al., 2004). Noticing and, in particular, feeling empathic concern
4 toward others is inherently an affective concept and presents clear linkages to prominent themes
5 in hybrid organizing (e.g., Wry & York, 2017). Therefore, it is surprising that the impact of
6 empathy-related affect has not played a more prominent role in studies of hybrid organizing—
7 surprising because recognizing a social problem and its corresponding suffering is likely to
8 stimulate emotions in those initiating and involved in hybrid organizing. For example, the extent
9 of suffering from a social problem (and who is suffering) is likely to generate specific emotions
10 in the entrepreneur that in turn impact the co-construction of potential opportunities to create
11 economic and social value. Indeed, affective responses to others' suffering (Williams et al.,
12 2017) could impact the entrepreneurial process and its outcomes in a number of ways.

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26 *Future research on affect, potential opportunities and hybridity.* We anticipate that
27 differences in individuals' affective attentiveness to social problems can lead to heterogeneity in
28 the degree and impact of hybrid organizing efforts. Perhaps the widespread suffering from a
29 social problem generates a negative emotional reaction that draws a potential entrepreneur's
30 attention to the problem, and given a desire to reduce these negative emotions, the entrepreneur
31 is motivated to identify and develop a solution (e.g., the entrepreneur increases the intensity of
32 the social logic). Indeed, social problems that produce little emotional reaction in individuals are
33 unlikely to capture the attention and generate the effort necessary to diagnose and formulate
34 solutions.

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47 Alternatively, a severe negative emotional reaction may motivate the entrepreneur to
48 avoid thinking about the social problem (as a means of coping) (Davis, 1983)—that is, reduce
49 the relative importance of the social logic vis-à-vis the economic logic—which in turn may
50 reduce his or her cognitive capacity to generate a creative solution to the problem (for the
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3 negative impact of negative emotions on the cognitions involved in problem solving, see
4 Fredrickson [1998]). Alternatively, an extreme negative emotional reaction to suffering (i.e.,
5 horror, deep sadness) could result in action that, while well intentioned, does not directly solve
6 the problem (Williams & Shepherd, 2016a) or even makes it worse by creating “toxic
7 dependencies” (Schuller, 2012).
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15 As an organization emerges and progresses, the entrepreneur is likely to experience
16 positive emotions, which in turn facilitate the cognitive functioning (Fredrickson, 1998) that is
17 useful in performing entrepreneurial tasks. These positive emotions likely help balance the
18 intense negative emotions individuals experience when exposed to human suffering or trauma.
19 Therefore, more research is needed to explore how the emotions (positive and negative)
20 generated from noticing, feeling, and responding to others’ suffering directly influence the
21 degree of hybridity and indirectly influence the degree of hybridity through the co-construction
22 of potential opportunities. To guide this important research, we offer the following research
23 question:
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35 **Research Question 2:** What impact does the entrepreneur’s affect (negative and
36 positive) have on the emerging organization’s degree of hybridity? Specifically, how,
37 when, and why does the entrepreneur’s different affect impact **(a)** the relative importance
38 gap between the organization’s economic and social logics and **(b)** the intensity of the
39 organization’s economic and social logics?
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47 Finally, the logics of hybrid organizing sometimes compete, creating conflict (Jay, 2013;
48 Pache & Santos, 2013) that can then trigger negative emotional reactions (e.g., Pelled,
49 Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). We propose that the greater the degree—relativity and intensity—of
50 hybridity (i.e., a strong social logic and a strong economic logic), the more likely conflict will
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3 arise among organizational members. Perhaps entrepreneurs who can best manage a high degree
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5 of hybridity are those high in emotional intelligence. Indeed, highly emotional individuals are
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7 likely to notice, understand, and regulate the emotional aspects of conflict (Jordan & Troth,
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9 2004; Schlaerth, Ensari, & Christian, 2013) arising from hybridity. Alternatively, or perhaps in
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11 conjunction, emotionally intelligent entrepreneurs may be better at understanding the emotions
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13 of their organization's members (and perhaps also members of communities of inquiry for
14
15 potential opportunities), leading them to choose a degree of hybridity that provides a "doable"
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17 level of conflict for the members or the emotionally intelligent entrepreneurs can help members
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19 "cope with" the greater emotional conflict arising from a high degree of hybridity. Based on the
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21 above reasoning, we offer the following research question:
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26 **Research Question 3:** What impact does the organization's degree of hybridity have on
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28 the generation of conflict-based emotions? Specifically, are conflict-based emotions
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30 generated by (a) a reduction in the relative importance gap between the organization's
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32 economic and social logics and/or (b) an increase in the intensity of one logic that is not
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34 offset by a decrease in the intensity of the other logic?
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38 **Communities of Inquiry, Potential Opportunities, and the Degree of Hybridity**

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40 Another important element of organizational emergence is the involvement of other
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42 stakeholders, or a community of inquiry. While entrepreneurs clearly play a significant role in
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44 shaping the identities, actions, and strategies of new organizations (Besharov, 2014; Smith &
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46 Besharov, 2018; Wry & York, 2017), these organizations are also shaped by other actors and
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48 stakeholders in fundamental ways. Indeed, social entrepreneurship often involves broader
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50 communities who share a mutual interest in the development and exploitation of a potential
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52 opportunity (Peredo & Chrisman, 2006; Short, Moss & Lumpkin, 2009). In this way,
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3 entrepreneurs can innovate in collaboration with broader communities to identify and pursue
4 opportunities (Autio et al., 2013; Pardales & Girod, 2006; Shepherd, 2015). It is likely that these
5 interactions will result in the evolution of organizations' hybridity given the input of these
6 various and often diverse stakeholders, especially during the co-construction of potential
7 opportunities that create both high economic and high social value. Organizing to exploit such
8 potential opportunities (high economic and high social value) will likely require a high degree of
9 hybridity—that is, a strong economic logic and a strong social logic. Therefore, we need to gain
10 a deeper understanding of how potential opportunities with both high economic and high social
11 potential value are refined as they “move between” entrepreneurs and communities of inquiry.
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24 The interactions between the entrepreneur and the community of inquiry are likely non-
25 linear and highly inter-dependent, reflecting the evolution of the community of inquiry, the
26 entrepreneur's opportunity beliefs, the nature of the potential opportunity, and thus, the emergent
27 organization. For example, recent trends in community-based resourcing, such as micro-lending
28 and crowdfunding (e.g., kiva.org [Flannery, 2007]) (Einav, Farronato, & Levin, 2016; Moss,
29 Renko, Block, & Meyskens, 2018; Zervas, Proserpio, & Byers, 2016), shift the resource
30 provider–seeker relationship and present new roles for communities of inquiry in opportunity
31 development and pursuit. Importantly, technology has allowed communities of inquiry to
32 collaborate beyond merely providing resources in that they can function as active co-constructors
33 of potential opportunities (Fisher, 2018). This co-construction process is likely more critical
34 when the potential opportunity is to create high value in both the economic and social forms of
35 wealth. Furthermore, due to the potentially evolving nature of communities of inquiry over time
36 and the ongoing adjustments entrepreneurs make to their missions and visions in response to
37 those communities (Einav et al., 2016), there are likely to be frequent conflicts between
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3 entrepreneurs and communities in identifying the “target impact” of the organization (i.e., degree
4 of hybridity).
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7 *Future research on communities of inquiry, potential opportunities, and hybridity.* As
8 we gain a deeper understanding of the mutual adjustment process involved in refining potential
9 opportunities to solve social problems in economically advantageous ways, we are likely to gain
10 insights into the origin and dynamism of the degree of hybridity in organizing the exploitation of
11 potential opportunities to create both economic and social wealth. For example, when an
12 entrepreneur receives feedback on a potential opportunity, he or she is likely to refine that
13 opportunity, which can in turn lead to changes in the composition of the community of inquiry
14 (Shepherd, 2015). Changes to the community of inquiry can lead to additional changes to the
15 nature of the potential opportunity (e.g., perhaps greater emphasis on the creation of a particular
16 source of social value or an emphasis on economic value or both) such that there is a
17 strengthening or weakening of the economic logic and a strengthening or weakening of the social
18 logic of the organization. These changes in the strength of logics will change both the relativity
19 and intensity (i.e., the overall degree) of the organization’s hybridity.
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37 Just as the entrepreneur is likely to experience affect and this affect is intertwined with
38 the refinement of a potential opportunity to create both economic and social value, the
39 community of inquiry is likely to experience emotions (varied in valence and intensity) that
40 influence community members’ beliefs, actions, and interactions with the entrepreneur during
41 the co-construction of a potential opportunity. The results of these interactions, emotions, and
42 exchanges between the community of inquiry and the entrepreneur can influence the
43 entrepreneur’s emotions and shape the organization’s degree of hybridity. For example, if people
44 continue to suffer after the entrepreneur’s attempts to solve the underlying social problem, that
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3 suffering may (re)trigger negative emotions in the entrepreneur, signaling insufficient progress
4 and the need to make a change in the organization's hybridity to strengthen the social logic. The
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6 reverse could be the case as well: the economic value generated by the venture could trigger
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8 positive emotions (from increased personal economic wealth) that outweigh the negative
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10 emotions (or undo the negative emotions [Fredrickson, 1998]) caused by an inadequate social
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12 solution, thus encouraging a shift in the degree of hybridity toward a stronger economic logic.
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14 Again, there is a need to investigate the affect of the community of inquiry, the influence of the
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16 community of inquiry on the entrepreneur's affect, and the impact of both on the degree of
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18 hybridity. Based on the above reasoning, we offer the following research question:
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24 **Research Question 4:** What impact does the community of inquiry have on the
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26 organization's degree of hybridity? Specifically, how, when, and why does the
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28 community of inquiry impact **(a)** the relative importance gap between the organization's
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30 economic and social logics and **(b)** the intensity of the organization's economic and
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32 social logics?
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36 **Research Question 5:** How, when, and why does **(a)** a decrease in the relative
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38 importance gap between the organization's economic and social logics and **(b)** an
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40 increase in the intensity of the organization's economic and social logics impact the
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42 nature and composition of the community of inquiry?
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45 **Successful Organizational Outcomes and the Degree of Hybridity**

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47 While entrepreneurship and strategic management scholarship has extensively explored
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49 factors that shape the economic performance of business ventures (Parker, 2018), research
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51 exploring ventures' social performance is still emerging. Indeed, scholars seek to identify both
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53 the nature of social outcomes and indicators of high performance within those outcomes.
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3 Possible social outcomes include, for example, subjective satisfaction (Kroeger & Weber, 2014);
4 societal progress (Gundry et al., 2011); enhanced human experience (Zahra & Wright, 2016); the
5 preservation of cultural and natural environments (Peredo & Chrisman, 2006); the alleviation of
6 suffering after disasters (Dutta, 2017; Williams & Shepherd, 2016b, 2018); reduced poverty
7 (Peredo & Chrisman, 2006); crowdfunding success (Parhankangas & Renko, 2017; Josefy et al.,
8 2016; Calic & Mossakowski, 2016); food, water, shelter, and education (Certo & Miller, 2008);
9 microloan organizations' performance (Wry & Zhao, 2018; Zhao & Lounsbury, 2016); "faith,
10 hope, comfort and salvation" (Pearce et al., 2010); the empowerment of women (Datta & Gailey,
11 2012; Zhao & Wry, 2016); and both poverty reduction and conflict resolution in Rwanda's
12 entrepreneurial coffee sector (Tobias et al., 2013). In contrast to these specific descriptions of
13 social outcomes, other studies (typically conceptual papers) have been broader in their
14 descriptions of social outcomes—for example, social value (e.g., Di Domenico et al., 2010)—or
15 even broader across both the economic and the social in the form of blended value (e.g.,
16 McMullen & Warnick, 2016), total value (e.g., Zahra et al., 2009), and the triple bottom line
17 (Mair, et al., 2006).

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38 As scholars explore various social problems, they uncover different mechanisms for
39 assessing performance. For example, at the individual level of analysis, Bolino and Grant (2016:
40 62) offer the notion of prosocial impact—"the experience of making a positive difference in the
41 lives of others . . . through one's work"—which highlights the impact of successful prosocial
42 actions on those needing help. Similarly, Williams and Shepherd (2018) measure the impact of
43 compassionate venturing efforts by assessing the speed, magnitude, and customization of
44 responses to address the needs of those suffering from a natural disaster. Prosocial impact, in the
45 focal context, is based on the entrepreneur's recognition and evaluation of the impact of his or
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3 her organization on others. This recognition of impact may represent the proverbial “patting
4 oneself on the back,” which itself may have important implications for ongoing and subsequent
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6 venturing.
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10 ***Future research on degrees of hybridity and organizational outcomes.*** While the body
11 of hybrid organizing scholarship is growing, question of how the entrepreneur assesses the
12 impact of his or her organization remains. The entrepreneur may assess the value created by his
13 or her organization in line with his or her original goals for the combination of economic and
14 social wealth created. In contrast, perhaps the entrepreneur’s goals for the combination of
15 economic and social wealth are determined by his or her assessment of the organization’s current
16 performance—in this case, through a post hoc establishment of the degree of hybridity in
17 organizing. Furthermore, successful outcomes may change the organization’s logics. For
18 example, having achieved success, the entrepreneur might feel freer to organize his or her
19 organization to emphasize more of the social aspects of the value created (consistent with a
20 resource slack argument), thus representing a strengthening social logic. Alternatively, success
21 may lead to organizing that is more risk averse in the pursuit of social value (consistent with
22 prospect theory), thus representing a weakening social logic. We suspect that success in creating
23 social value can be highly intrinsically rewarding for the entrepreneur (and perhaps more so than
24 initially anticipated) and may thus strengthen the social logic of the organization (without
25 necessarily weakening the economic logic), which in turn increases the intensity of hybridity.
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47 “Success” for an organization could mean (1) “We’ve solved the problem. Let’s close
48 down the venture”; (2) “We’ve solved the problem here. Let’s solve it there”; (3) “We’ve solved
49 this problem. Now, let’s solve that problem”; or (4) “We’ve solved the problem to some degree.
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51 Now, let’s solve it at a greater scale.” These steps after success are very different from the “Let’s
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3 just make a profit” success goal and may be the source of a “dark side” to achieving success in
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5 social ventures. For example, if an organization eradicates its targeted social problem through
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7 effective organizing, it has essentially displaced its “use case.” Could this realization lead to
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9 unnecessary persistence in a social endeavor when business cessation would be more
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11 appropriate? As suggested earlier, helping others can generate positive emotions, pushing
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13 individuals to continue on. However, this push to continue could undermine the necessary
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15 process of disintervention—disengaging to provide those who were “helped” the autonomy to
16
17 help themselves (Nili, 2011). This area of organizing research could potentially serve as a
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19 parallel argument to those made in the traditional economic literature on the potential “perils of
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21 excellence” (Miller, 1994). For example, future studies could explore different types of
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23 performance (e.g., dissolving a venture due to accomplished goals, serving the maximum number
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25 of people, enabling independence in those being helped, moving from one social problem to
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27 another, etc.) and the ways different forms of organizing shape performance.
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33 Furthermore, we know that the community of inquiry can influence the entrepreneur’s
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35 opportunity beliefs and the refinement of a potential opportunity (Autio et al., 2013; Shepherd,
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37 2015). Thus, the entrepreneur’s assessment of prosocial impact is likely influenced by the
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39 community of inquiry’s beliefs about, actions toward, and reactions to the outcomes of the
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41 current hybrid organizing (i.e., the apparent degree of hybridity). Thus, a disconnect between the
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43 entrepreneur’s and the community of inquiry’s assessments of the organization’s impact likely
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45 leads to a change in beliefs and, subsequently, a change in the nature of the potential opportunity
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47 co-constructed and the degree of hybridity. Indeed, prosocial impact can be considered “interim”
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49 feedback about the potential opportunity to the entrepreneur from the community of inquiry;
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3 therefore, the community of inquiry can influence the strength of the organization's logics and
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5 thus the degree of hybridity. Based on the above reasoning, we offer the following:
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8 **Research Question 6:** What impact does the successful exploitation of a potential
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10 opportunity to create economic and social value have on the organization's degree of
11
12 hybridity? Specifically, how, when, and why does the successful exploitation of a
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14 potential opportunity to create economic and social value impact **(a)** the relative
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16 importance gap between the organization's economic and social logics and **(b)** the
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18 intensity of the organization's economic and social logics?
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22 **Research Question 7:** How, when, and why does **(a)** a decrease in the relative
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24 importance gap between the organization's economic and social logics and **(b)** an
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26 increase in the intensity of the organization's economic and social logics impact the
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28 likelihood of successfully exploiting a potential opportunity to create economic and
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30 social value?
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33 **Failure as an Organizational Outcome and the Degree of Hybridity**

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35 The pursuit of potential opportunities inherently involves navigating uncertainty (Knight,
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37 1921; McGrath, 1999). As such, a great number of entrepreneurial endeavors end in failure
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39 (Headd, 2003; Wiklund, Baker, & Shepherd, 2010). A significant body of research has explored
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41 failure (Shepherd, Williams, Patzelt, & Wolfe, 2016; Ucbasaran et al., 2013), including the
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43 challenges (e.g., grief, loss, and disruption for the entrepreneur [Cope, 2011; Shepherd, 2003])
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45 and benefits (e.g., learning and renewal [Hoetker & Agarwal, 2007; Knott & Posen, 2005;
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47 Shepherd, 2003]) of failure. Indeed, we also have a good understanding of individuals'
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49 reluctance to terminate failing ventures (DeTienne, et al., 2008; Shepherd, Wiklund, & Haynie,
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51 2009) as well as of the financial (Lee, Yamakawa, Peng, & Barney, 2011), emotional (Shepherd,
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3 2003), and social (Cardon, Stevens, & Potter, 2011) consequences arising from the failure of
4 economically driven organizations (for a review, see Ucsbasaran et al., 2013).
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8 ***Future research on degree of hybridity and failure.*** While entrepreneurship scholarship
9 has advanced our understanding of the costs and outcomes of traditional business failure, there is
10 much to be learned about the antecedents and outcomes of hybrid venture failure. Indeed, there
11 are likely important differences in the consequences of an organization's failure for those
12 involved (i.e., the entrepreneurs and members of the community of inquiry) depending on the
13 degree of hybridity. Specifically, the assessment of what represents unacceptable performance
14 and the need for termination (i.e., the performance threshold under which a venture is terminated
15 [Gimeno, Folta, Cooper, & Woo, 1997]) is more complex when considering both economic and
16 social performance together than when considering one type of performance or the other. As we
17 argued above, there are numerous ways to assess organizational performance from a hybridity
18 perspective, which suggests the need for different criteria to evaluate performance. Without a
19 nuanced understanding of the dimensions of performance (and how they are weighted and
20 combined across individuals), it is difficult to determine when an organization is failing—that is,
21 it is difficult for the entrepreneur to know when it is time to change the degree of hybridity,
22 persist, or terminate the organization entirely.
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42 Therefore, it is important for us to build new knowledge about how emphasis on poor
43 economic performance and poor social performance and the interaction of the two influence
44 entrepreneurs' termination decision policies and the broader consequences of the termination of
45 organizations based on their degree of hybridity. Could persisting with an organization despite it
46 having achieved its mission or having failed to address the social ill end up altering motivations?
47 For example, an organization might alleviate suffering and “put itself” out of business by
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3 eliminating the need for its services or products. However, due to the power attained by
4 dominating a market, the organization might persist. Similarly, an organization might
5 aggressively compete with others to address a social ill, expending resources and energy on
6 “winning the social market” rather than simply allowing the solution that best eliminates the
7 social problem to achieve its objectives.
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15 Perhaps organizations with a strong social logic and a weak economic logic (i.e., low-
16 hybridity social ventures) are more likely to escalate commitment to losing courses of action in
17 response to both anticipating the loss of social benefits to those in need from organizational
18 failure and anticipating stronger feelings of shame, disappointment, and other negative emotions
19 vis-à-vis organizations with a weaker social logic and/or a stronger economic logic.²
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21 Specifically, perhaps entrepreneurs’ level of grief over the failure of an organization is higher
22 (and both learning and recovery are slower) for organizations with a stronger social logic. That
23 is, perhaps entrepreneurs’ negative emotional reactions to the loss of such organizations are
24 greater because the associated social problems persist (e.g., people who could have otherwise
25 been helped if the organization had not failed continue to suffer).
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38 However, grief is a negative emotional reaction to the loss of something important
39 (Archer, 1999). A strong logic, whether economic or social, indicates the high importance
40 assigned to creating economic and social value, respectively. Therefore, perhaps there are no
41 substantial differences in the level of grief over the loss of an organization with a strong
42 economic logic versus a venture with a strong social logic. Indeed, entrepreneurs (and members)
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51 ² Escalation of commitment can lead to permanently failing organizations that create an economic drain on society
52 (McGrath, 1999; Meyer and Zucker, 1989). Permanently failing hybrid ventures are likely a subset of all
53 permanently failing organizations. What is the economic and social drain on a society from permanently failing
54 organizations at different degrees of hybridity?
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3 of organizations with a high degree of hybridity—a strong economic logic and a strong social
4 logic—are likely to experience the most grief because they lose something of high importance on
5 multiple fronts. Future research can explore entrepreneurs’ negative emotional reactions to their
6 organizations’ failure and the moderating role of the degree of hybridity in this relationship.
7 Understanding the level of grief is important because it helps explain learning from failure and
8 the motivation to try again (Shepherd, 2003, 2009).
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12 Further, organizations are not always voluntarily terminated; sometimes resource
13 providers “pull the plug.” It is important to understand how investors decide to pull the plug on
14 organizations based on their degree of hybridity and the nature of the community of inquiry.
15 Whether the plug is pulled by the entrepreneur or an investor, we know that entrepreneurs are
16 typically stigmatized for their failure (Cardon, et al., 2011), but this stigma has been found to be
17 less for entrepreneurs who tried to create non-economic value (e.g., protect the natural
18 environment [Shepherd & Patzelt, 2015]). Perhaps entrepreneurs of failed social ventures are less
19 stigmatized by the public than those of purely economic ventures, but does the level of
20 stigmatization depend on the degree of hybridity, the type of social problem, or the geographic
21 location?
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40 Despite grief over organizational failure, entrepreneurs have an opportunity to learn from
41 their failure experience and try again by creating a subsequent organization (Bau et al., 2017;
42 Hsu et al., 2017; Shepherd et al., 2014). Therefore, it is important to understand how the degree
43 of hybridity of failed organizations influences entrepreneurs’ ability to learn from failure and
44 their motivation to try again and how failure experiences affect the degree of hybridity in
45 subsequent entrepreneurial pursuits. If entrepreneurs try again after the failure of their
46 organizations, what do they learn about the degree of hybridity? For example, does the
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3 entrepreneur deliberately create a new organization with a different degree of hybridity than the
4 previous organization, does the entrepreneur implement a different set of mechanisms to better
5 manage the tradeoff (and exploit complementarities) between the economic and social logics,
6 and/or does the entrepreneur identify and co-construct (with a different community of inquiry) a
7 potential opportunity with a different mix of economic and social value? Addressing these
8 questions can advance our knowledge of entrepreneurship and will hopefully have practical
9 implications for the formation and management of organizations with differing degrees of
10 hybridity. Based on the above, we offer the following:

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22 **Research Question 8:** What impact does the failure of an organization (with a given
23 degree of hybridity) have on the degree of hybridity of the entrepreneur's next
24 organization? Specifically, how, when, and why does organizational failure impact (a)
25 the relative importance gap between the subsequent organization's economic and social
26 logics and (b) the intensity of the subsequent organization's economic and social logics?
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33 **Research Question 9:** How, when, and why does (a) a decrease in the relative
34 importance gap between the organization's economic and social logics and (b) an
35 increase in the intensity of the organization's economic and social logics impact the
36 likelihood of the organization failing?
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42 CONCLUSION

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45 The purpose of the current paper was to offer a revised conceptualization of the degree of
46 hybridity to provide a framework organized around key processes of entrepreneurship that
47 encourages further exploration of the antecedents and consequences of hybrid organizing.
48 Beyond the specific research opportunities detailed above, we offer three more general
49 recommendations about conducting such research. First, to understand how actors combine and
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3 blend dimensions of hybridity—namely, relative hybridity and hybrid intensity—we likely need
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5 to combine and blend different literatures for our theorizing. In other words, to develop new
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7 individual- and cross-level theories of hybrid organizing, it will not be sufficient to borrow
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9 theories from other disciplines (e.g., psychology) but will require conceptual blending (Oswick
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11 et al., 2011)—that is, theory building through an analogous process (Weick, 1989) that involves
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13 a two-way exchange between the source theory (e.g., from a discipline like psychology) and the
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15 target (e.g., the degree of hybridity). This two-way exchange provides the opportunity to create
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17 new theories of hybrid organizing (including a counterintuitive blend) as well as contributions
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19 back to the source theory.
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24 Second, while scholars can continue to investigate hybridity in old and established
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26 organizations, there are many interesting research questions around the formation and emergence
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28 of new organizations. The “pre” of the pre-organization and the “newness” of the new
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30 organization are both challenging topics for research on hybridity but are rewarding for those
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32 willing and capable of taking on the challenge. Although interesting in their own right, hybridity
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34 research focused on the pre and the new of organizing provides the basis for understanding
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36 antecedents to the large and growing literature on well-established hybrid organizations. A focus
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38 on the pre and the new highlights the importance of investigating potential opportunities to create
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40 both economic and social value, which are likely more complex, more subjective, and more co-
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42 constructed than potential opportunities to create economic value. Thus, in studying the degree
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44 of hybridity in organizing specifically and entrepreneurship more generally, we will gain much
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46 new knowledge from keeping our eyes on entrepreneurs and their potential and evolving
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48 opportunities to create economic and social value.
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3 Finally, scholars are always told to choose a topic they are passionate about, but this
4 general advice is difficult to translate into specifics. Research on the hybridity organizing is not
5 tied to a single dependent variable, and scholars have the opportunity to explore social and/or
6 environmental problems that are close to their heart, identity, and/or office. For example, a
7 scholar who lifted him- or herself up by the bootstraps may be motivated and have “inside
8 information” useful for investigating entrepreneurs’ motivation to alleviate poverty. The
9 hybridity of organizing is a research topic rich in various outcomes, and scholars have the unique
10 chance to put themselves in the shoes of actors who are making a difference in the world (and
11 hopefully, in doing so, we can make a difference in the world—an ambitious but worthwhile
12 notion of our research potential).
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Figure 1a. Conceptualization of Hybrid Relativity

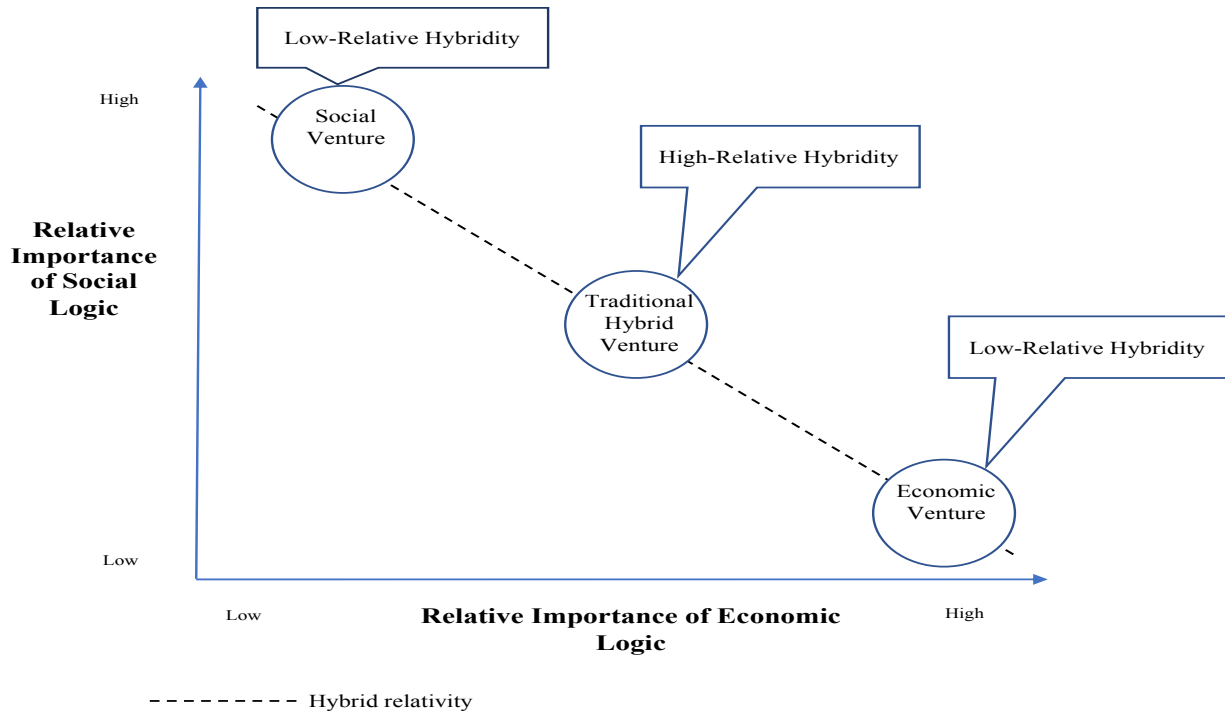


Figure 1b. Conceptualization of Hybrid Intensity

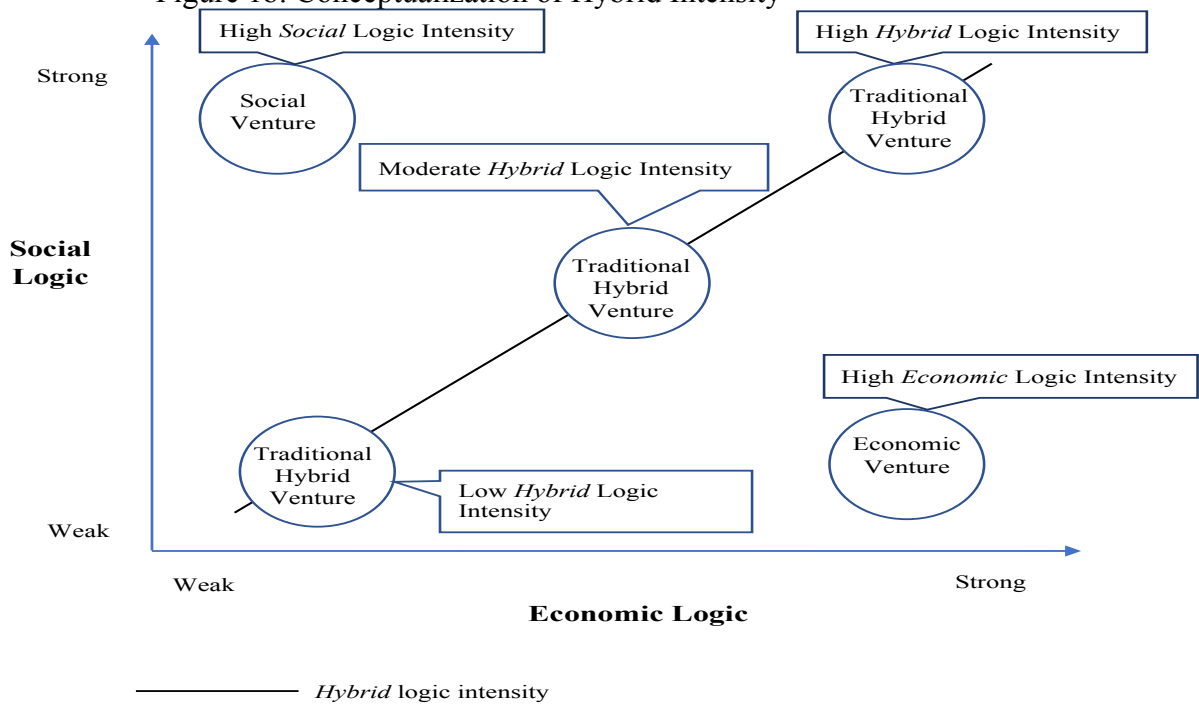


Figure 1c. Conceptualization of the Degree of Hybridity

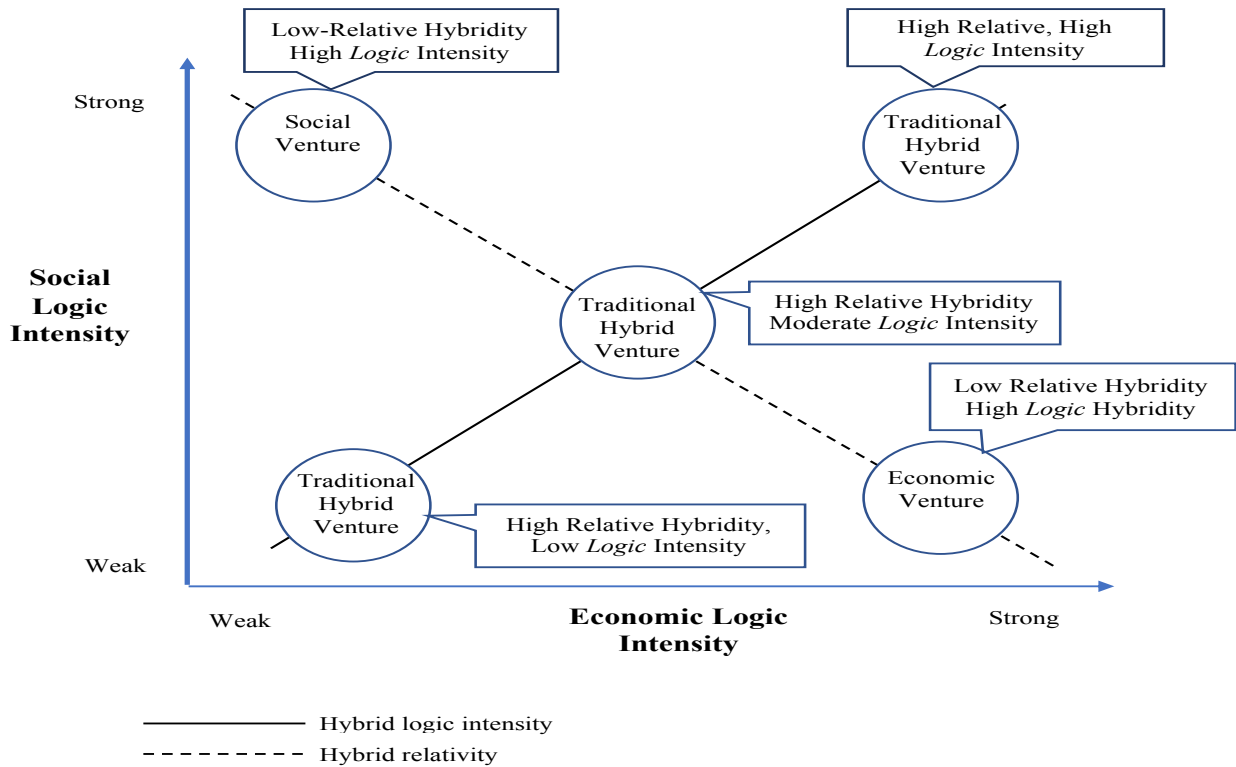


Figure 1d. Degree of Hybridity Curves

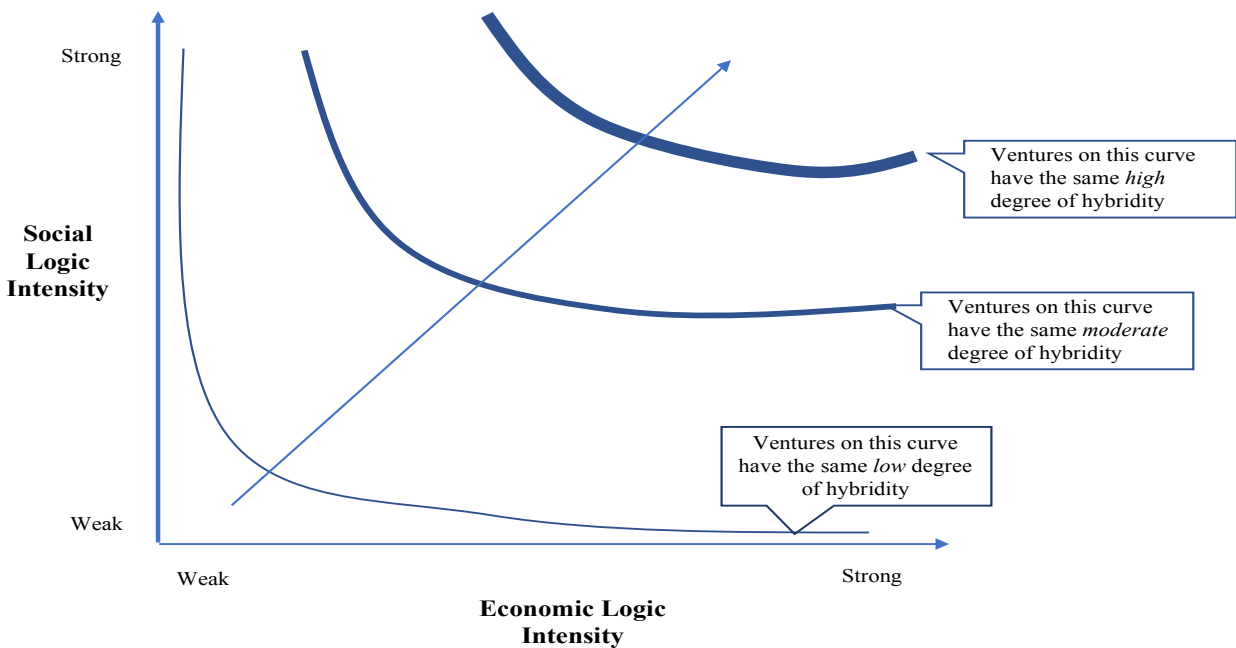
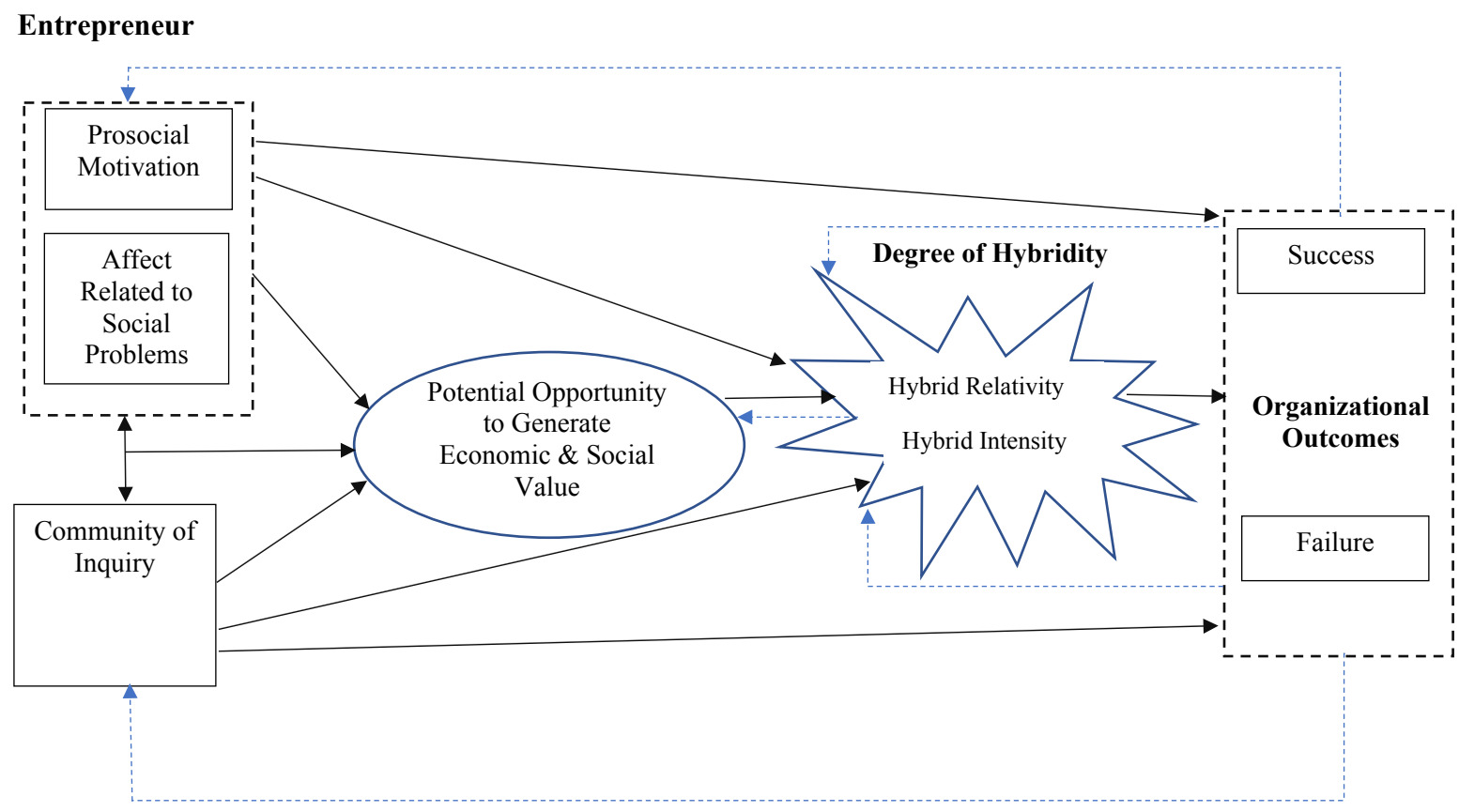


Figure 2. A Framework for Future Research on Hybrid Organizing and Entrepreneurship



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