

A Quasi-Experimental Study of Socio-Economic Effects of Social Enterprise Vocational and
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Approval Page

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By

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Abstract

Sustainable economic development is a challenge in bottom of pyramid (BOP) communities, such as those in Myanmar, where people live in subsistence conditions. Contributing factors are the lack of vocational training and education available for BOP community members. The UN and the OECD are rallying the organizations around the world, including social enterprises, to address the challenge of increasing sustainable economic development. Social enterprises are businesses that address social and environmental challenges while creating economic profit. Some social enterprises offer vocational and education training (VET) in the BOP communities in which they operate. The problem addressed by this study is how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. In specific, this study aimed to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in terms of stakeholder theory as the theoretical foundation. The research site was the training center of a US-based social enterprise operating on the Thailand-Myanmar border. The study sample was a purposive sample method with an equal sample size of 49 VET trainees and 49 non-VET trainees, all from the Myanmar BOP. Archival data regarding wages and self-efficacy from 2012 to 2020 were collected from the US-based social enterprise director. The findings were that there is a statistically significant difference in wages and self-efficacy between VET trainees and non-VET trainees. The results of this study support the pivotal role of social enterprise in facilitating sustainable development. There is a need for studies about social enterprises operating in fragile and post-conflict nations.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP) markets experience challenges with sustainable economic development (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016; Mindt & Rieckmann, 2017; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017). The “‘bottom of the pyramid’ describes the large numbers of people living in subsistence conditions, typically earning less than \$2 per day, having inadequate access to food, education, transportation, [and] consumption choice” (Mason & Chakrabarti, 2016, p. 1). There is a lack of vocational and educational training in BOP markets, which are necessary components of sustainable economic development (e.g., Bendul, Rosca, & Pivovarova, 2015; Bocken, Fil, & Prabhu, 2016; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Tukundane, Minnaert, Zeelen & Kanyandago, 2015; Vladimirova & LeBlanc, 2016).

The United Nations (UN) and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) are taking a multi-stakeholder approach to rally the world in pursuit of the global agenda of increasing sustainable development (Kim, 2018; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017). Stakeholders include governmental and regional leaders, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), multinational corporations (MNCs), small and medium enterprises (SMEs), and social enterprises (SEs) (Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Verboven & Vanherck, 2016). NGOs come in a vast array of sizes with different donor bases and purposes but tend to function with varying levels of effectiveness, juggling stakeholder expectations and regulations (Banks, Hulme, & Edwards, 2015; Mitchell, 2018). MNCs and SMEs may participate in corporate social responsibility (CSR) to share expertise, donations, and other assets to benefit the BOP through co-value creation (Kim, 2018; Verboven & Vanherck, 2016). These stakeholders act alone or in partnership to positively impact another group of stakeholders, the local people and the BOP

communities, who are the intended beneficiaries of the sustainable development initiatives (Littlewood & Holt, 2018; Verboven & Vanherck, 2016).

The UN and the OECD list social enterprises as part of the solution to sustainable economic development (OECD, n.d.a; UN, 2018). Social enterprises are businesses that address social and environmental challenges while creating economic profit (Cheah, Amran, & Yahya, 2019; Džunić, Stanković, & Janković-Milić, 2018; Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Littlewood & Holt, 2018). Some social enterprises offer vocational educational training (VET) programs for the BOP communities in which they operate (Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Napathorn, 2018).

The primary reason social enterprise was the focus of this study is the unique organizational structure relative to non-profit and for-profit organizations. Social enterprises have dual, and often conflicting motives, of people and profit (Costa & Pesci, 2016; Santos, Pache, & Birkholz, 2015). Unlike NGOs which focus primarily on social objectives and corporations which focus on financial objectives, social enterprises must mind both social and financial objectives (Cheah et al., 2019). There are two primary social enterprise models, the US capitalist model, and the UK socialist model (Džunić et al., 2018). Both social enterprise models operate in BOP communities around the world (Lumpkin, Bacq, & Pidduck, 2018).

With a population of over 622 million people, the nations of Southeast Asia represent the third-largest market base in the world, behind only India and China (ASEAN, 2015). Myanmar, in Southeast Asia, a vast network of BOP communities, is one of the poorest nations in the world, with more than 25% living in extreme poverty (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017). In the first census conducted since 1983, over 25 percent of people aged 15-24 were not in school, in training, or employed (UNFPA, 2017). Myanmar's political leaders recognize the challenge of building the skills of an adequately trained and educated population and, thus, established the

Social Enterprise Development Association of Myanmar to support social enterprises (Tun, 2017). Myanmar social enterprises are more likely based on the socialist model (British Council, 2019). However, the social enterprise director, who provided the archival data from the Myanmar BOP, is a US citizen applying the capitalist model of social enterprise.

Myanmar was the focus of this study because of Myanmar's relatively recent re-emergence into global relations. Because of Myanmar's political regime, Western nations implemented trade sanctions and isolated Myanmar from the world economy for over 40 years. Myanmar is re-emerging and has substantial capacity for growth (Bernhardt, Dickenson-Jones, & De, 2017). Because of the lack of skilled labor, some Myanmar companies hire foreign workers who are better qualified and have more skills (Simona, Garnizova, & Shkreli, 2014). Myanmar leaders want to work together with social enterprises to set up viable businesses for sustainable economic development instead of just receiving donations (Cahalane, 2012).

Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed by this study is how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. BOP markets, where people live on less than \$2 per day, experience challenges with sustainable economic development (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016; Mindt & Rieckmann, 2017; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017). One of the reasons is the absence of vocational and educational training (VET), which is a necessary component of sustainable economic development in BOP markets (Bendul et al., 2015; Bocken et al., 2016). The advantages of VET include improved access to the labor market, improved livelihoods due to the ability to earn money, self-confidence, and motivation (Tukundane et al., 2015). Social enterprises have a significant role in achieving the UN's sustainable development

goals (SDGs) centered around employment, education, and poverty reduction in BOP communities thanks to their ability to collaboratively tackle economic and social issues (Lumpkin et al., 2018; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Rahdari, Sepasi, & Morahi, 2016). However, it is unclear, based on the extant studies, how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET to contribute to sustainable economic development (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019; Costa & Pesci, 2016; Crucke & Decramer, 2016; Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a, 2015b, 2016; Littlewood & Holt, 2018; Ramus, La Cara, Vaccaro, & Brusoni, 2018).

Stakeholder theory suggests that for organizations to be successful, it is necessary to balance the needs of multiple stakeholders (Freeman, 2010). Social enterprise donors and beneficiaries have conflicting needs, and social enterprises struggle to fulfill the demands of both. Donors often want immediate impact for their investment. Beneficiaries need time for skill development (Costa & Pesci, 2016). Social enterprise leaders need to increase the scale and scope of the social enterprise for long-term viability (Bocken et al., 2016). Donors, policymakers, and social enterprise leaders need to understand the potential impacts of social enterprises on beneficiaries, both positive and negative, because of the shared goals of supporting sustainable development and addressing acute BOP issues (Holt & Littlewood, 2015). Examining two factors of social enterprise VET - (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2) self-efficacy difference, a social factor - between the Myanmar BOP, led to understanding whether social enterprises balance the needs of stakeholder groups by showing a return on donors' investments while teaching the BOP skills to lift themselves out of poverty (e.g., Chui, Shum, & Lum, 2019; Dolan, & Rajak, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). Not knowing the answer to how social enterprises contribute to sustainable economic development for the Myanmar BOP

leaves a potentially valuable resource for reducing poverty untapped and unsupported (e.g., Rahdari et al., 2016).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. In specific, this study aimed to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in terms of stakeholder theory as the theoretical foundation. The study was conducted by retrieving archival data from the director of a US-based social enterprise, operating in Mae Sot, Thailand, the border town adjacent to Myawaddy, Myanmar, a BOP community. The archival data consisted of information that already existed in the US-based social enterprise's internal records concerning trainees' wages and self-efficacy before and after completing VET programs.

Based on the results of a G*3 power analysis, the sample contained wages data and self-efficacy data for 98 participants (e.g., Faul, Erdfelder, & Lang, 2007). The independent variable is social enterprise VET program (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019). The US-based social enterprise of the study offers four types of VET programs: (a) sewing; (b) café barista and baking; (c) cooking; and (d) bicycle repair. The two dependent variables are: (a) the monthly wages personally earned by each participant (e.g., Ahmed, 2016); and (b) self-efficacy, the personal feelings an individual has about the ability to overcome adversity to accomplish a task (e.g., Sherer et al., 1982; Chui et al., 2019). Archival data from VET trainees from all four VET programs were included in the study. Delimitations in the study included aspects of the study population, the study sample, and the social enterprise outcome variables. See Figure 1 below of

the sequence, relationship, and measurement of the one independent variable and two dependent variables.

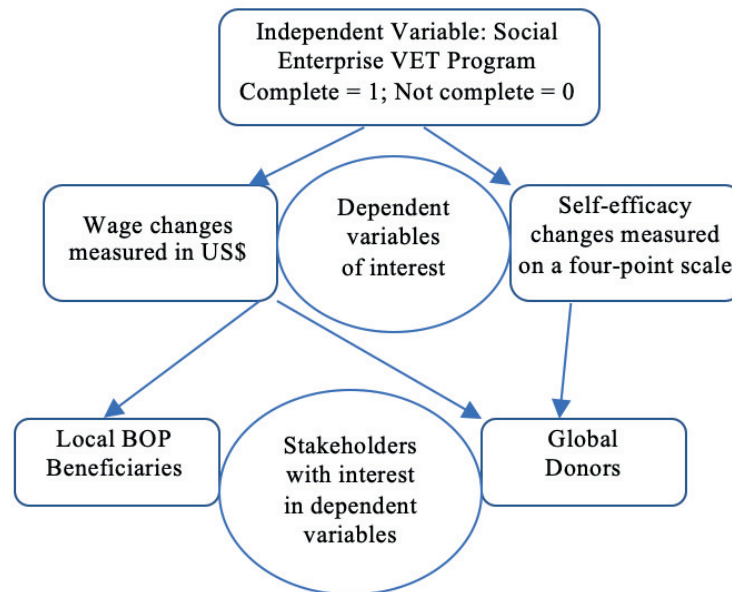


Figure 1. The sequence, relationship, and measurement of the variables in the study.

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) test was conducted using SPSS software to compare the two dependent variables, mean monthly wage and self-efficacy differences, between who completed a social enterprise VET (the independent variable) and did not complete a social enterprise VET program in the Myanmar BOP community. One-way MANOVA was selected because there is one independent variable, social enterprise VET program completion, and two dependent variables, wages and self-efficacy, with ratio and interval data, respectively (Burns & Burns, 2008). Examining wage and self-efficacy differences between these two groups of people led to determining whether participation in the social enterprise VET program contributes to an increase in wages and self-efficacy, which lead to improved financial livelihoods for VET graduates (e.g., Dane, 2011; Tukundane et al., 2015).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study of how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP's sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy, is stakeholder theory. R. Edward Freeman (1984) developed the modern form of stakeholder theory. Freeman (1984) described a way of conducting activities of an organization wherein leaders must address the interests of various stakeholders beyond shareholders. The theory indicates that the success of an organization depends on the ability of leaders to effectively manage a broad range of relationships with internal and external stakeholders (Joensuu, Koskela, & Onkila, 2015).

Stakeholder theory views organizations at the center of a network of stakeholders who either have the power to affect or are affected by the organization achieving its objectives (Freeman, 2010). The definition of a stakeholder varies depending on their relationship with the focal organization (Clarkson, 1995). Broadly, stakeholders are considered individuals or groups that affect or are affected by the purpose of the organization (Costa & Pesci, 2016). The identification of stakeholders is often the first step in initiative design for impact assessment and implications (e.g., Holt & Littlewood, 2015). Social enterprises may have up to ten stakeholder groupings, and primary and secondary classification varies depending upon where the firm falls in the profit to the non-profit spectrum (Holt & Littlewood, 2015).

Stakeholder theory is rooted in the literature on corporate and for-profit firm activities and governance. Stakeholder theory can not only serve as a theoretical framework (e.g., Clarkson, 1995; Harangoz & Zilahy, 2015), but also serve as a component of other theories such as: the stewardship model (e.g., Karns, 2016); corporate social responsibility (CSR) (e.g., Singh, Baksi, & Mishra, 2015); and sustainable supply chain management (SCMM) (e.g., Bitzer &

Glasbergen, 2015). Stakeholder theory was carried over into the non-profit sector, including social enterprises, and serves as the base of other theories such as: BOP, SCMM, and CSR (e.g., Holt & Littlewood, 2015); relations model theory (e.g., Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2016; Selsky, 2016), and social systems theory (e.g., Valentinov, Roth & Will, 2016). Within the stakeholder theory literature on the BOP, Selsky (2016) drills down into the BOP issues, discussing wicked problems- problems requiring the cooperation of multiple sectors and organizations to solve. Maintaining a stakeholder orientation is critical to addressing wicked problems because organizations must go beyond traditional boundaries of relationships and interact with multiple stakeholders with varying cultures and goals (Dentoni, Bitzer, & Pascucci, 2016).

The study responds to the call in the stakeholder theory literature for future research on firms initiating sustainable development at the BOP (e.g., Sulkowski, Edwards, & Freeman, 2019). The study contributes to stakeholder theory by examining whether social enterprises, which operate at the intercept of social and economic initiatives, successfully serve two primary stakeholder groups, donors and beneficiaries, while contributing to the local communities in which they operate and filling institutional voids left by local governments. Donors are stakeholders who provide start-up and some operational funds (Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). Beneficiaries are the Myanmar BOP, who participate in VET programs (e.g., Costa & Pesci, 2016). By focusing on stakeholders, firms address tensions between the firm and the social challenges and sustainability in the environment in which the firm operates (Valentinov et al., 2018). At the same time, social enterprises must find areas of compromise required for successful partnerships with NGOs, governments, community members, and businesses to generate long-term, sustainable impacts.

Nature of the Study

The problem of the study was how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP's sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. Stakeholder expectations vary among donors and beneficiaries, and the social enterprise leaders must balance these different expectations along with the social enterprise's needs for viability. The purpose of the quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in two factors of social enterprise VET participation, wages and self-efficacy, to determine if social enterprises balance stakeholder needs by increasing both as a result of VET in the Myanmar BOP community. The reason for choosing the quantitative approach is that the researcher took a top-down perspective (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008). In the study, the theoretical foundation is stakeholder theory. The research problem involved how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in the particular context, the Myanmar BOP. The study consisted of testing hypotheses about wages and self-efficacy to determine whether stakeholder theory held in this context. Quasi-experiments are an inherent part of conducting experiments with in-tact groups such as the experiment group, VET trainees at the US-based social enterprise, and the control group, non-VET trainees who live in the neighboring village (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008).

The data source was archival data provided by the director of the US-based social enterprise offering VET to the Myanmar BOP (e.g., Ramus et al., 2018). The researcher did not conduct interviews or administer questionnaires with the US-based social enterprise VET trainees. Instead, the US-based social enterprise director provided existing internal records, which included trainee wage and self-efficacy data as part of the US-based social enterprise's routine VET trainee application and post-VET program process. The reason for using the US-

based social enterprise's archival data was to mitigate the outsider effect of a researcher who has not developed trust among VET trainees (e.g., Ngo, Bigelow, & Lee, 2014).

The US-based social enterprise director provided monthly wages in Thai baht, since this is the currency in which VET trainees are paid. The Thai baht were converted to US dollars for data analysis. The US-based social enterprise director provided VET trainee self-efficacy data from VET trainees' responses to the Self-Efficacy Scale, a four-point Likert scale the US-based social enterprise routinely requests VET trainees to complete (e.g., Sherer et al., 1982). SPSS software was used to analyze the data.

The measurement instrument was a one-way MANOVA test, commonly used to conduct testing with the pre and post test design. One-way MANOVA was used to determine whether there is a difference between the independent variable, social enterprise VET participation, and the dependent variables, monthly wages and self-efficacy (Burns & Burns, 2008). In MANOVA testing, two dependent variables are combined into one new dependent variable (Laerd, 2015). In this regard, although this study began with "wages" and "self-efficacy," it tested a new combined dependent variable "wages and self-efficacy" for the MANOVA. However, part of the MANOVA follow-up is to interpret univariate tests on each original dependent variable, wage difference and self-efficacy difference (Laerd, 2015). Thus, it was possible to discern if there was a difference of means, whether more of the difference was from one dependent variable or the other.

Research Question

The following research question addressed the challenge of social enterprises balancing multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP's sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The research question served to

compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy between those who completed and who did not complete a VET program in the Myanmar BOP community. Answering this research question led to an understanding of whether social enterprises balance the different needs of donors and beneficiaries. Differing needs include the donor's expectation of immediate impact from VET and beneficiaries' needs for longer-term training, which may not yield immediate results (Costa & Pesci, 2016). Wage increases may signal to donors that VET leads to beneficiaries improving their economic standing, though it may not be immediate (e.g., Ahmed, 2016). Self-efficacy increases may signal to beneficiaries that with VET, the individual will learn to overcome obstacles to increase socio-economic standing (e.g., Vázquez-Maguirre, Portales, & Velásquez Bellido, 2018). If there were increases in both wages and self-efficacy, donors could see tangible results for their investment, and beneficiaries could believe for a higher-quality future for his- or herself and their families. The use of MANOVA testing made it possible to answer one research question concerning both wages and self-efficacy, while discerning if there was a difference of means, whether more of the difference was from one dependent variable or the other.

Q1. What is the difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between people in the Myanmar BOP who complete a social enterprise VET program and Myanmar BOP who do not complete a VET program?

Hypotheses

H1₀. The completion of a social enterprise VET program results in no difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between the people in the Myanmar BOP.

H1_a. The completion of a social enterprise VET program results in a difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between the people in the Myanmar BOP.

Significance of the Study

The study of social enterprises balancing multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP's sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy, was significant for understanding whether social enterprises are part of the solution to the problem of sustainable development. Social enterprises depend on the financial and social support of multiple stakeholders such as donors, governments, and communities to operate and to serve the social enterprise beneficiaries, which are also stakeholders (Lyon & Owen, 2019). In 2016, the UN, an inter-governmental organization focused on sustainable development issues, introduced the SDGs with the objective of eliminating systemic poverty and heal the planet by 2030 (UN, n.d.). The SDGs link education to the solution for sustainable development in BOP contexts (Vladimirova & LeBlanc, 2016).

The study contributed to the field of international business since Asia is the region of focus for the UN in addressing sustainable development. Global leaders highly contest the role and responsibility of business to contribute to the social benefit of sustainable development in Asia because of cultural and institutional contexts (Kim, 2018). The UN has promoted social enterprise in order to meet the SDGs in the Asia-Pacific region (British Council, n.d.). Specifically, the BOP in Southeast Asia is significant in terms of the needs of the people and the potential for sustainable development. In the Southeast Asian nation of Myanmar, of those employed, almost 12 million were underqualified (UNFPA, 2017). This study advanced stakeholder theory and contributed to the literature by meeting the need for more research in fragile, post-conflict nations; examining the social and financial impacts of the capitalist versus socialist social enterprise model; and tying actions that improve sustainable development to theory (e.g., Kim, 2018; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018).

Definitions of Key Terms

Bottom of the pyramid (BOP). The “‘bottom of the pyramid’ describes the large numbers of people living in subsistence conditions, typically earning less than \$2 per day, having inadequate access to food, education, transportation, [and] consumption choice” (Mason & Chakrabarti, 2016, p.1).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a personal expectation that an individual can and will perform in a manner leading to positive outcomes. Self-efficacy is one of the most powerful determinants of success when an individual performs under adverse conditions (Sherer et al., 1982). This is because “self-efficacy expectancies determine the initial decision to perform a behavior, the effort expended, and persistence in the face of adversity” (Sherer et al., 1982, p.1).

Social enterprise. Social enterprises are designed with a variety of legal structures, which allows owners to pursue social and economic initiatives to benefit people and communities with an entrepreneurial spirit. Social enterprises have dual motives of service and profit (OECD, n.d.a).

Sustainable development. Sustainable development refers to initiatives which balance the current needs of people with the needs of future generations (UN, n.d.).

Vocational education training (VET). The VET system provides workers with firm- or industry-specific skills to increase skill formation, and create a larger workforce to overcome national skill mismatches and shortages (Napathorn, 2018).

Summary

BOP communities experience challenges with sustainable economic development (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). Part of the cause is a lack of vocational training and education in BOP communities (Bendul et al., 2015). Some social enterprises operating in the BOP communities

offer VET (Napathorn, 2018) and a social enterprise operating in the Myanmar BOP offers VET in sewing, café barista and baking, cooking, and bicycle repair. Social enterprises need to balance the needs of multiple stakeholder groups, such as donors and beneficiaries. However, since social enterprises operate with dual motives of social progress and profit, there are often priority discrepancies among stakeholders (Costa & Pesci, 2016).

Stakeholder theory suggests firms must balance the needs of multiple stakeholders to achieve organizational success (Freeman, 2010). Wage difference is an economic factor, and self-efficacy difference is a social factor, which combined, may lead to meeting both the desires of donors and the needs of beneficiaries. The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to determine if VET trainees experience a difference in wages and self-efficacy, leading to sustainable economic development.

Data was collected from a US-based social enterprise operating on the Thailand-Myanmar border. Data analysis was conducted to determine if there was a difference in wages and self-efficacy of VET and non-VET trainees. The findings of this research were helpful in determining if social enterprises offering VET in the BOP are part of the solutions to sustainable economic development.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Using the stakeholder theory developed by Freeman (1984) as the theoretical foundation, this study compared differences in wages and self-efficacy between Myanmar BOP with and without VET to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs. The problem addressed by this study was how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs.

Sustainable economic development is a challenge in BOP communities, such as those in Myanmar, where people live in subsistence conditions (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). Contributing factors are the lack of vocational training and education available for BOP community members (Bendul et al., 2015; Bocken et al., 2016; Kapteyn & Wah, 2016; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). The UN and the OECD are rallying the organizations around the world, including social enterprises, to address the challenge of increasing sustainable economic development (Kim, 2018).

A social enterprise is a type of organization that generates economic profit while creating social value for the benefit of society (Douglas, Eti-Tofinga, & Singh, 2018). Social enterprises, generating economic profit and social value, are in operation around the world, serving underprivileged people (Steiner & Teasdale, 2018). There are various types of social enterprises, depending on the type of economic profit and social value the social enterprise leaders seek to provide. Some types of social enterprises include microfinance, fair trade, cooperatives, benefit

corporations, work integration social enterprises, and indigenous enterprises (Douglas et al., 2018).

Social enterprises have existed in various forms since the 1890s (Conway Dato-on & Kalakay, 2016; Lyon & Owen, 2019). It was not until nearly a century later, in the 1990s, that researchers began discussing social enterprises in the academic literature (Battilana, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). In the last 20 years, social enterprises have come to the forefront of addressing sustainable development challenges (Lumpkin et al., 2018). The reason for social enterprises coming to the forefront in addressing sustainable development challenges because of social enterprise leaders' abilities to collaboratively take on social and economic issues such as the lack of vocational training and education (Džunić et al., 2018). Social enterprises have a significant role in achieving the UN's sustainable development goals (SDGs) centered around employment, education, and poverty reduction in BOP communities (Rahdari et al., 2019).

This chapter begins by acquainting the reader with Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, supporting the need for organizations to mind the needs of multiple stakeholders. The chapter includes: (a) a historical overview of the BOP and sustainable development actors and initiatives; and (b) factors contributing to a lack of sustainable development. The remainder of this chapter comprises a review of the literature on social enterprises, including: (a) the distinctions of social enterprise; (b) the challenges for social enterprises in balancing stakeholder expectations; (c) the prerequisites for creating a financially sustainable social enterprise; and (d) the role of social enterprises in achieving sustainable economic development. The overview of the distinctions of social enterprises includes: (a) models of social enterprises; (b) types of social enterprises; (c) people social enterprises serve; (d) where social enterprises operate; and (e) VET programs.

Social enterprises face the challenge of balancing stakeholder expectations in the following areas: (a) social innovation; and (b) performance and impact assessment. The prerequisites for creating a financially sustainable social enterprise include: (a) business development planning; (b) capitalizing for customer engagement; and (c) adapting to the changing BOP context. The role of social enterprises in achieving sustainable economic development includes providing vocational training and education to increase wages and self-efficacy in the BOP. This chapter closes with an overview of the conclusions reached regarding social enterprises within the current literature.

Documentation

The literature for this study was gathered from databases, including: Google Scholar; EBSCOhost; ProQuest; Sage; Springer; and Science Direct. Keyword searches include: bottom of the pyramid; corporate social responsibility; economic development; economic impact; humanitarian organizations; hybrid organizations; international business; less-developed countries; NGO; social enterprises; Asia; South East Asia; Myanmar; sustainable economic development; self-efficacy; stakeholders; donor; and beneficiaries. Additional searches were conducted using terms found within the literature such as: base of the pyramid; fragile states; NGO-business partnerships; cross-sector partnerships; and capitalistic. Literature published more than five years ago was excluded unless the studies or theories provided seminal value, or there were no new information sources. Full-text, peer-reviewed journals from the international business field were used to identify current trends related to social enterprises. Secondary sources such as newspaper articles (e.g., Tun, 2017) and web pages (e.g., UN, 2018; UNFPA, 2017; OECD; 2019; Cahalane, 2012) are necessary to supplement information regarding intergovernmental organizations and Myanmar-based social enterprise.

Theoretical Framework

Stakeholder theory is the theoretical framework for the study of how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP's sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The modern form of stakeholder theory was introduced by R. Edward Freeman (1984). Freeman (1984) described a way of conducting activities of an organization wherein leaders must address the interests of various stakeholders beyond shareholders. Stakeholder theory is based on the conception that the success of an organization depends on the ability of leaders to effectively manage relationships (Ali, 2017; Atiq, Siddique, & Mufti, 2018; Gooyert et al., 2017).

According to stakeholder theory, the organization is at the center of a network of stakeholders. Some stakeholders affect the organization's ability to achieve its objectives (Freeman, 2010). Examples of organizational objectives are increasing profit, supporting a social cause, or investing in environmentally responsible practices (Joensuu et al., 2015). Other stakeholders are affected by the organizational leaders' actions (Freeman, 2010). Organizational leaders' actions include whether there are safe working conditions, sustainable supply chains (Rodriguez et al., 2016), or opportunities for training, employment, or microfinancing opportunities (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). What defines a stakeholder depends on the stakeholder's relationship with the organization (Clarkson, 1995). Seminal authors distinguished stakeholders in different ways, including: internal versus external stakeholders (Wood & Jones, 1995); upstream, downstream, and lateral stakeholders (Edwards & Hulme, 1996); and primary versus secondary stakeholders (Clarkson, 1995). In this study building on Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, this study took the Clarkson's (1995) distinction of primary and secondary stakeholders.

Primary and secondary stakeholder identification varies based on the type of firm (Clarkson, 1995). In for-profit firms, primary stakeholders may be investors, customers, and suppliers, while secondary stakeholders may be NGOs and governments (Rodriguez, Giménez, & Arenas, 2016). For non-profit firms, such as NGO's, primary stakeholders may be donors, board members, staff, and BOP beneficiaries, while secondary stakeholders may be government, local businesses, and the general public (Hielscher, Winkin, Crack, & Pies, 2017). Social enterprises, which have both for-profit and non-profit objectives, may have up to ten stakeholder groupings. The primary versus secondary classification of stakeholders depends on the firm identity in the profit to the non-profit spectrum (Holt & Littlewood, 2015). For social enterprises, the BOP beneficiary is considered the customer and is a primary stakeholder (Atiq et al., 2018; Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Ortiz-de-Mandojana & Bansal, 2016). Donors, who are also referred to as funders and investors, are an additional primary stakeholder group for social enterprises (Holt & Littlewood, 2015). For social enterprises, identifying stakeholders is often the first step in initiative design for impact assessment and implications (Atiq et al., 2018; Holt & Littlewood, 2015).

Current Scholarly Literature Relating to Stakeholder Theory. In the current scholarly literature, stakeholder theory is the theoretical foundation or a component of other theories for studies regarding nearly all types of organizations. Stakeholder theory is rooted in the literature on corporate and for-profit firm activities and governance and serves as a theoretical framework (e.g., Clarkson, 1995; Harangozo & Zilahy, 2015). Stakeholder theory also serves as a component of other theories such as: the stewardship model (e.g., Karns, 2016); corporate social responsibility (e.g., Singh et al., 2015); sustainable supply chain management (e.g., Bitzer & Glasbergen, 2015; Soundararajan, Brown, & Wicks, 2019); and relational models

theory (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2016). The reason for noting the stakeholder theory literature on for-profit firms is corporations have the challenge of accommodating stakeholder claims because the long-term viability of a firm depends on cooperative relationships with these stakeholders (Freeman, 2010). The viability of a firm can hinge on leadership's choice to be reactive or proactive to societal expectations and repercussions from regulators and other stakeholders regarding the need to promote the economic development of underprivileged people and groups (Kolk, 2016).

Stakeholder theory is also foundational in the literature regarding the non-profit sector, including NGOs (non-governmental organizations), CSPs (cross-sector partnerships), and social enterprises. Regarding NGOs, stakeholder theory may serve as a theoretical framework (e.g., Mitchell, 2018) or include one or more of the following models or concepts: BOP (e.g., Golini, Kalchschmidt, & Landoni, 2015); social proximity model (e.g., Joensuu et al., 2015); or sustainable supply chain management (e.g., Bitzer & Glasbergen, 2015). In the NGO literature, researchers apply these models and concepts in combination with stakeholder theory to express the challenges of balancing multiple stakeholder demands. There is substantial pressure on NGO leaders because of the multiple and often conflicting accountability demands, which are a central tenant to stakeholder theory (Dhanani & Connelly, 2015).

For cross-sector partnerships, the application of stakeholder theory combined with other strategic, ethical, and wise CSP practices, provides a framework to support responsiveness for all stakeholders (Freeman, Manno, & Mores, 2016). Cross-sector partnerships include a combination of organizations discussed in this study of stakeholder theory which work together to address sustainable development challenges. CSPs may include non-profit organizations such as NGOs and aid agencies; for-profit businesses such as MNCs, SMEs, and local businesses and

cooperatives; social enterprises and hybrid organizations; and, in some cases, government and local authorities. Direct communication among partners regarding stakeholder identification, value creation assessment, and strategic and ethical decision-making should be an explicit part of the CSP process (Freeman et al., 2016). Stakeholder theory was carried into social enterprise literature and can not only serve as a theoretical framework (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Aziz & Mohamad, 2016; Figueroa Díaz, & Magaña Hernández, 2018), but also serves as the base of other theories including BOP, sustainable supply chain management, and corporate social responsibility (e.g., Holt & Littlewood, 2015), and faultline theory (Crucke & Knockaert, 2016).

Within the stakeholder theory literature on the BOP, Selsky (2016) drilled down into the BOP issues by discussing wicked problems. Examples of wicked problems are educational deficiencies and opportunity deficits in BOP communities, which stem from chronic market and governance failures (Kummithia, 2018; Selsky, 2016). As an example, Catalyst, a US-based capitalist social enterprise operating in the Kenyan BOP offering sales training emphasized *training, training, training* in promotion posters because the Kenyan BOP was desperate for education because education was not available in the slums (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). People in turbulent environments, such as BOP communities, cannot rely on norms and laws for stability (Selsky, 2016). In an effort to provide stability for BOP trainees, the social enterprise, Catalyst, taught *keeping time* as part of the sales training, where BOP trainees learned to punch a clock to be accountable for their actions during their training and working hours. The reason for this training element was because the idle time of youth is often the source of lawlessness and instability in the community (Dolan & Rajak, 2018).

Strategy execution is difficult in turbulent environments because existing institutions, such as local governments, do not address the potential consequences of taking action or lack of

action (Selsky, 2016). To share and mitigate risks of strategy execution, organizations such as social enterprises interact with multiple stakeholders to increase their long-run chances of survival when tackling wicked problems (Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, 2010; Valentinov et al., 2018). To effectively address wicked problems, maintaining a stakeholder orientation is critical. This is because organizations must go beyond traditional boundaries of relationships and interact with multiple stakeholders with varying cultures and goals to solve wicked problems (Dentoni et al., 2016) as well to address less insidious social welfare issues (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2016).

Bridoux and Stoelhorst (2016) built onto stakeholder theory and relational models theory to emphasize individual stakeholders' perceptions of contributions to joint value creation in solving social welfare issues. Stakeholder theorists emphasize that individuals are not exclusively motivated by self-interest, but instead, they are motivated to work relationally toward collective goals. It is the collective actions of individual stakeholders, based on their responses to the firm's actions, that create value in solving social welfare issues. Stakeholder theory calls for a focus beyond firms managing stakeholders for the sake of profit, toward engaging stakeholders to create more social welfare (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2016).

Also, in the literature about engaging stakeholders to create more social welfare, Valentinov et al. (2018) combined stakeholder theory and social systems theory. Valentinov et al. (2018) suggested social enterprises create *operational closure*, meaning social enterprise leaders operate based on the structure and organization, not being whipsawed by the surrounding environment (Maturana & Varela, 1980). The implication is that social enterprise leaders have increased efficacy in solving social welfare problems because of the focus of the organizational mission, not the turbulent environment in which the social enterprise operates. By engaging stakeholders, firms address tensions between the firm and the social challenges and sustainability

in the environment in which the firm operates (Valentinov et al., 2018). The value in noting stakeholder theory in tandem with relations model theory or social systems theory is the expression of the complexity of the environment in which social enterprises function and the need to develop relationships and the expectation of creating value for multiple stakeholder groups. The reason for choosing stakeholder theory as the theoretical foundation for this study versus other theories (e.g., social systems theory and relational models theory) is the other theories are grounded in anthropology or sociology. In contrast, stakeholder theory is grounded in business, particularly international business.

Social Enterprise Research within the Stakeholder Theory Literature. The study of social enterprises balancing differing stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP's sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy, fits within the stakeholder theory literature by extending the focus and the scope of the current research. The study extended the focus of stakeholder theory by examining whether social enterprises implementing a capitalist social enterprise model impact the beneficiaries, the BOP VET trainees, while navigating the demands of more powerful stakeholders, the donors. Donors are stakeholders who provide start-up and some operational funds (Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). In this study, the beneficiaries were the Myanmar BOP, the stakeholders who participate in VET programs and may become employees of the social enterprise providing VET, get hired by another firm, or start their own business (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Costa & Pesci, 2016). Social enterprises must make compromises among differing stakeholder needs required for successful partnerships with NGOs, governments, community members, and businesses to generate long-term, sustainable impacts for beneficiaries. However, the needs of stakeholders such as donors and beneficiaries to realize an impact may be more similar than firms realize,

reducing the need for making compromises (Valentinov et al., 2018). Measuring the impacts of social enterprises is under-theorized (Costa & Pesci, 2016). Due to Costa and Pesci's (2016) findings that there is a lack of theory in social enterprise impact measurement, there may be a space for stakeholder theory as a framework for social enterprises balancing differing stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP's sustainable economic development.

This study extended the scope of stakeholder theory literature regarding wicked problems by examining whether social enterprises contribute to sustainable economic development in BOP communities by filling institutional voids left by local governments. In the stakeholder literature, there was a need for more research on the actions firms take to address and create sustainable development in BOP markets (Sulkowski et al., 2019). Further, there is a need to tie actions that improve sustainable development to theory because the practical application is missing in current theories (Kim, 2018). The implication is that this study extended the scope of stakeholder theory by measuring the impacts of social enterprise actions to address sustainable economic development in the BOP to create differences in wages and self-efficacy.

Assumptions, Perspectives, and Controversies Surrounding Stakeholder Theory.

Though stakeholder theory has held in the scholarly literature as the business environment and social issues have become more complex and intertwined, there are assumptions, perspectives, and controversies surrounding stakeholder theory.

Assumptions. One of the assumptions is that taking a stakeholder approach to conducting business means creating as much value for as many stakeholders as possible without compromising with trade-offs (Freeman, 2010; Valentinov et al., 2018). An alternative assumption of taking a stakeholder approach is that organizations prioritize addressing stakeholder needs based on the power and strength of one stakeholder group relative to other

stakeholder groups (Sarman et al., 2015). For social enterprises, the implication of these differing assumptions of stakeholder theory is social enterprises must prioritize the power and strength of multiple stakeholder groups (Sarman et al., 2015) without trade-offs (Valentinov et al., 2018) because of the dual objectives of the organization (Crucke & Knockaert; 2016; Sarman et al., 2015).

Perspectives. Perspectives of stakeholder theory include: (a) a trend toward value co-creation; and (b) the firm's ability to shake stakeholders into action to address social issues. The first perspective of stakeholder theory is that there is a trend toward value co-creation and away from traditional value creation. Whereas traditional value creation involves one organization creating solutions for the organization's stakeholders, value co-creation occurs when multiple organizations work together to create solutions for multiple stakeholders (Mortimer et al., 2019). For social enterprises creating solutions to social issues while creating profit for viability, relational approaches to managing stakeholders, such as value co-creation, are more effective than economic, profit-driven approaches. Stakeholders, such as donors, perceive they are creating more social value, such as supporting VET for social enterprise beneficiaries, in partnering with social enterprises when there is a relational orientation (e.g., Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2016).

Another perspective of stakeholder theory from the seminal author (Freeman, 1984; Freeman, 2010) and a team of scholars (Sulkowski et al., 2019) is the firm's ability to influence stakeholders to cooperate in addressing societal issues. The notion of *shaking stakeholders* means organizational leaders affect substantial social change and are not merely whipsawed by the whims of stakeholders. Stakeholder shaking occurs as firms: (a) bring social issues to the forefront, moving stakeholders from a place of complacency to engagement; and (b) influence

stakeholders to cooperate in addressing societal issues, creating sustainable value (Sulkowski et al., 2019). The implication is that while stakeholders influence social enterprises with differing needs, social enterprises also influence stakeholders, shaking them out of complacency (e.g., Sulkowski et al., 2019). An example of stakeholder shaking is a social enterprise bringing BOP issues to the attention of donors, and the opportunity for- and benefits of- vocational and education training to the attention of beneficiaries (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018). Though both value co-creation and stakeholder shaking are perspectives of stakeholder theory, which ultimately lead to positive change, there are controversies in the literature about the implementation of stakeholder theory in practice.

Controversies. Controversies of stakeholder theory include: (a) the normative versus the instrumental justification of stakeholder theory (Mitchell, 2018; Valentinov et al., 2018); and (b) the potentially harmful effects of stakeholders with excessive power (Crucke & Knockaert, 2016). The controversy concerning the normative versus instrumental justification of stakeholder theory is about decision making based on morality, in the normative justification, versus decision making based on consequences, in the instrumental justification (Mitchell, 2018; Sulkowski et al., 2019; Valentinov et al., 2018). The normative justification of stakeholder theory suggests that organizational leaders make decisions based on what stakeholders perceive as the morally right decision (Mitchell, 2018; Sulkowski et al., 2019). According to Donaldson and Preston (1995), the normative justification of stakeholder theory is the most fundamental.

On the other hand, the instrumental justification suggests that organizations make decisions based on the perceived consequences of the decision, either to create positive outcomes such as increasing revenue generation in a for-profit firm or to avoid adverse outcomes such as inappropriately high salaries in a non-profit (Mitchell, 2018). The instrumental justification

means that leaders who ignore stakeholders will not survive (Mitchell, 2018; Valentinov et al., 2018). Some authors suggest that stakeholder theory combines both the normative and instrumental justification (Sulkowski et al., 2019; Valentinov et al., 2018). Valentinov et al. (2018) suggested the normative and instrumental justifications are not mutually exclusive, but Mitchell (2018) suggested there are times, especially for non-profit firms, where the two perspectives contradict each other. Social enterprises are not alone among global organizations in the quest to do the right thing in the eyes of stakeholders, by employing the normative justification, while maintaining viability, by employing the instrumental justification. However, for social enterprise leaders, in contrast to leaders of for-profit organizations, the answer to the normative justification and the answer to the instrumental justification are farther apart in the decision-making areas of accountability, efficiency, efficacy, collaborative partnerships, fundraising, financial management, and scaling (Mitchell, 2018).

In addition to the controversy concerning the normative versus instrumental justification of stakeholder theory, there is a controversy about the potentially harmful effects of stakeholders with excessive power in decision-making for social enterprises. An example of a stakeholder group with potentially excessive power in decision-making is the social enterprise board of directors (Crucke & Knockaert, 2016). The reason for a social enterprise having a board of directors is to bring perspectives of the multiple stakeholder groups of a social enterprise so the organization can more readily understand stakeholders' needs and set out to fulfill those needs (Harrison & Freeman, 2004; Mair, Mayer, & Lutz, 2015). The lack of balanced board member representation with social and financial experience can lead to the failure of the social enterprise (Bruneel, Moray, Stevens, & Fassin, 2016). However, too much diversity in stakeholder group representation among a board of directors can negatively affect the performance of the board

because stakeholders do not have enough in common to understand each other (Crucke & Knockaert, 2016). The subsequent conflict among board members regarding the task at hand makes the negative effects of excessive board member power even worse (Crucke & Knockaert, 2016; Crucke, Moray, & Vallet, 2015). The implication of the controversy about the potentially harmful effects of stakeholders with excessive power is the need for social enterprise leaders to balance board member representation and to clearly articulate mutual goals to the board members. Articulating the mutual goals helps to overcome the potentially harmful effects of too many different stakeholder groups directing the social enterprise in conflicting directions (Crucke & Knockaert, 2016; Pache, Battilana, & Spencer, 2018). The research on the controversies about the potentially harmful effects of stakeholders with excessive power and the normative versus the instrumental justification of stakeholder theory, along with the assumptions and perspectives of stakeholder theory contributed to the development of the problem statement, purpose statement, and research question for this study of social enterprises.

Stakeholder Theory Alignment with the Study of Social Enterprises. This study used the theoretical framework, stakeholder theory, to guide the development of the problem statement, purpose statement, and research question for this study of social enterprises. First, stakeholder theory aligns with the problem of social enterprises addressing sustainable economic development challenges in the Myanmar BOP by offering VET. As stakeholder theory researchers suggest, it is necessary to focus on stakeholder needs for organizational success (Freeman, 1984; Freeman, 2010; Freeman et al., 2016; Sulkowski et al., 2018), social enterprises must balance multiple primary stakeholders, such as donors' expectations of performance, while meeting the immediate needs of intended beneficiaries (e.g., Costa & Pesci, 2016; Ramus et al., 2017; Ramus et al., 2018). By focusing on stakeholders, as stakeholder theorists suggest, social

enterprise leaders address the tension between the social enterprise and the economic, social, and environmental sustainability needs in the local community (Valentinov et al., 2018; Woodside, 2018).

Second, stakeholder theory aligns with the purpose of the study, which was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP between people who complete a social enterprise VET program and who do not complete the program to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs. The expectation was that in the comparative study, the independent variable, the social enterprise VET program, influenced the two dependent variables of wages and self-efficacy. Stakeholder theory is applicable to the measurement of the social enterprise dependent variables, wages and self-efficacy, because according to stakeholder theory, success is measured by how the organization manages stakeholders, with stakeholder interests as the foundation of social enterprise strategy (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Donaldson & Lee, 1995). In a social enterprise strategy, the primary stakeholder is the BOP beneficiary, the VET trainee (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Holt & Littlewood, 2015). However, in the stakeholder theory study where the independent variable was stakeholder management (e.g., Donaldson & Lee, 1995), in this study, the independent variable, the existence of social enterprise VET, is a proxy for stakeholder management (e.g., Cooney, 2017). The existence of social enterprise VET was a proxy for stakeholder management because offering VET programs are a function of how the social enterprises serve BOP beneficiaries by providing VET programs (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018).

Third, stakeholder theory aligns with the research question regarding the social enterprise independent and dependent variables because, through the research question, differences in wages and self-efficacy are measured with and without social enterprise VET. In social

enterprise VET, wages are an economic factor, and self-efficacy is a social factor (e.g., Dolan, & Rajak, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). Donors, one stakeholder group, might be more interested in productivity and efficiency increases (Cooney, 2017; Ramus et al., 2017), such as wage changes of BOP VET trainees (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Cooney, 2017). Meanwhile, BOP VET trainees, the beneficiaries, may need both wage and self-efficacy increases, which may take more time to develop (Chui et al., 2019; Meltzer, Kayess, & Bates, 2018). Answering the research question regarding wage and self-efficacy differences are relevant to stakeholder theory because according to the theory, a firm must address the conflicting needs of multiple stakeholders for long-term survival (Ali, 2017; Atiq et al., 2018; Gooyert et al., 2017; Miles, 2017; Sarman et al., 2015). By answering the research question, which are part of the purpose of this study, it was possible to address the problem of social enterprises balancing multiple stakeholder expectations through VET (Ramus et al., 2018) using stakeholder theory as the guiding framework.

Historical Overview of the BOP and Sustainable Development Initiatives and Actors

A historical overview of the BOP and sustainable development initiatives and actors is provided to orient the reader to the current international business environment and social enterprises offering VET in BOP communities to promote sustainable economic development.

BOP. The concept of the BOP was introduced by Prahalad (1999), along with colleagues Stuart Hart and Allen Hammond, as a result of research in low-income populations (Erbil, 2017). Prahalad initially focused the message about the BOP on multinational corporation (MNC) leaders, challenging leaders to engage the low-income segment of the world population at the bottom of the economic pyramid. Prahalad contended MNC profits would increase while helping lift billions of people out of poverty by offering products and services relevant to BOP communities. Since the introduction, however, the concept has evolved to include wide

variations of BOP contexts, initiatives, and impacts (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). In the literature, authors examine the BOP in terms of how to: (a) address voids caused by the absence of institutional structure (e.g., Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos, 2015; Selsky, 2016); (b) include the BOP within sustainable supply chains as product and service providers, beyond beneficiaries of assistance (e.g., Bitzer & Glasbergen, 2015); and (c) decrease separation between CSR efforts and BOP market development (e.g., Singh et al., 2015).

One of the largest BOP markets in the world is in Southeast Asia, consisting of the following nations: Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. Together, these Southeast Asian nations represent the third-largest market in the world, following China and India (ASEAN, 2015). Of the Southeast Asian nations, Myanmar has the largest BOP population, with more than 25% living in extreme poverty (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017). Of those employed, almost 12 million are underqualified, and more than 50% are in vulnerable employment arrangements (UNFPA, 2017).

Initiatives for sustainable development. The UN and the OECD are inter-governmental organizations focused on sustainable development issues in BOP communities. Early in the 21st century, after the 1999 introduction of the BOP, the OECD and the UN implemented initiatives specifically for increasing sustainable development in BOP communities. In 2000, the UN introduced the Millennium Development Goals (MGDs), which were eight broad goals centered around reducing poverty and improving lives around the world (UN Foundation, 2015). The initial focus was on improving global environmental conditions because the BOP contributed least the environmental degradation, but were impacted the most. In 2005, the OECD began the States of Fragility Report to track official development assistance

(ODA) cash flows specifically to a group of countries affected by fragility based on data from the World Bank, African Development Bank, Asian Development Bank Harmonized List, and the Fund for Peace Fragile States Index (OECD, 2019). States of Fragility include nations in which citizens are plagued with war and internal conflict, famine, violent extremism, and forced displacement. Addressing fragility is significant because fragility is a primary barrier to achieving peace, which is necessary for sustainable development. At the inception of the OECD's States of Fragility Report, three Southeast Asian nations were on the Fragile States list, including Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Myanmar (OECD, 2019).

The more recent years of 2016 and 2017 were pivotal for sustainable economic development initiatives in BOP communities. The UN and the OECD both shifted the focus of initiatives from solving acute problems to creating longer-term solutions. The UN expanded the focus beyond environmental conditions, and the OECD expanded the focus beyond violence. Both organizations included environmental, economic, social, political factors impeding growth. The objective was a renewed global partnership for development among scholars, practitioners, civil society, and government (UN, n.d.).

In 2016, the UN introduced the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as a sequel to the Millennium Development Goals initiative, which ended in 2015. The objective of implementing the SDGs is to eliminate systemic poverty and heal the planet by 2030 (UN, n.d.). The SDGs consist of 17 goals falling under the five principals of people, planet, prosperity, peace, and partnering, with the first three listed as priorities (Kolk, 2016; van Zanten & van Tulder 2018). The SDGs link education to the solution for sustainable development in BOP contexts (Vladimirova & LeBlanc, 2016).

Also, in 2016, the OECD re-visited the focus of the States of Fragility report to include societal, political, environmental, and economic dimensions, beyond the security dimension regarding violence (OECD, n.d.a). The OECD partnered with ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) Economic Community (AEC) to raise productivity, integrate small emerging businesses into global value chains, and promote social progress such as education and vocational training (Bernhardt et al., 2017; OECD, 2016). As of 2019, Myanmar was the only Southeastern Asian nation remaining in the top States of Fragility with severely fragile security (i.e., the prevalence of violence), economic, political, environmental, and societal dimensions (OECD, n.d.b). The implication of Myanmar's continued presence of the Fragile States list is reaching the UN's SDGs in Myanmar will continue to be a substantial challenge (Nolte, 2019; OECD, 2019).

Actors in sustainable development. As the UN's SDGs have taken root on a global scale, the UN and the OECD are partnering to pursue the *2030 Agenda*, the achievement of all 17 SDGs by the year 2030, when no one is left impoverished (OECD, 2018; UN, n.d.). The UN and the OECD are rallying public and private sector actors such as NGOs, cross-sector partnerships, MNCs and SMEs pursuing CSR, and social enterprises to pursue the 2030 Agenda.

NGOs. NGOs are not-for-profit groups, classified as part of *civil society*, which focus on issues in support of the public good. Since the mid-1990s, NGO-business partnerships have become omnipresent in attempting to solve complex socio-economic challenges, including poverty, food insecurity, biodiversity loss, and climate change (Bitzer & Glasbergen, 2015). Volunteers organize NGOs at the local, national, or international level, and the NGOs either work alone or in partnership with other actors. NGOs utilize donor support to equip people in fragile economies (Banks et al., 2015).

Researchers' views on the contribution of NGOs to sustainable economic development vary. Some researchers believe that NGOs lack effectiveness in affecting long-term development. NGOs face challenges in the international aid chain, primarily because conflicting relationships among donors, partners, states, and other stakeholders exist (Banks et al., 2015). International development projects initiated by NGOs, are considered one of the pillars for BOP assistance, yet there are high failure rates because of the lack of project management capabilities (Golini et al., 2015).

Conversely, other researchers conclude NGOs are effective contributors to sustainable economic development because NGOs fill institutional voids that occur due to a lack of formal structure and intermediaries in BOP markets (Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos, 2015). NGOs also take the leading role in creating supply chains because of proximity, relationships, and market knowledge (Rodriguez et al., 2016). NGOs enhance the sustainability of the supply chain without creating trade-offs between social and economic outcomes. However, what happens to BOP suppliers after NGO involvement ends is unknown (Rodriguez et al., 2016), which was like the unknown consequences in some studies on cross-sector partnerships (e.g., Stadtler, 2016).

Cross-sector partnerships. In cross-sector partnerships (CSPs) working for the benefit of BOP, partners from sectors of civil society, business, and government bring complimentary skills, competencies, and resources and share responsibilities and risks to address complex societal problems that a single entity cannot solve alone. Complex social problems include economic development, social equity, and poverty alleviation (Freeman et al., 2016; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a). An example of the proliferation of partnerships is evident in the CSPs involving MNCs and NGOs. In the agri-food sector alone 22 of 50 of the largest MNCs, such as Unilever, Heinz, and Sara Lee were involved in 38 partnership projects with NGOs to address

BOP issues and proactively engage with stakeholders such as consumers and local governments and communities in which the MNCs had operations (Dentoni et al., 2016).

A longer-term benefit of development-oriented CSPs is the contribution to economic status and living standard of the overall community to which the target group belongs, leading to sustainable economic development (Stadtler, 2016). However, costs and positive and negative ripple effects cannot be ignored. There are direct, and even more critical indirect implications, known and unknown, of development partnerships on stakeholders in terms of benefits and costs (Stadtler, 2016).

MNCs & SMEs. MNCs and SMEs are corporations with either a global reach, in the case of MNCs, or regional reach, as with SMEs, which often implement CSR initiatives by focusing on people, planet, and profit, with the corporate objectives being social, environmental, and economic, respectively. The focus on initiatives to advance people, planet, and profit is called a triple bottom line approach to conducting business. MNCs and SMEs adopt a triple bottom line approach by shifting the firm's focus from maximizing shareholder profits to stakeholder value (Høgevold et al., 2015). In a study of publicly traded North American and European Financial Times Global 500 MNCs, 81 MNC leaders responded to pursuing CSR initiatives to specifically tied to achieving the SDGs (van Zanten & van Tulder, 2018).

MNCs and SMEs implement CSR initiatives with the goal of achieving global sustainability, which includes conducting home- and host-nation activities that meet the needs of the present generation without compromising resources for future generations. In turbulent BOP communities, MNCs and SMEs contribute to peace through: (a) core business practices; (b) social investment programs; and (c) engaging in civic institution building and policy design to fill institutional voids (Melin, 2016). In developing nations, economic aspirations have often

overshadowed the social and environmental and social factors of CSR (Obiri et al., 2016). Corporate leaders wanting to do more than *check the box* of CSR initiatives in developing nations can take lessons from social enterprises (Battilana, 2018).

Social enterprises. While social enterprise embodies the contemporary notion of CSR, giving attention to the triple bottom line of people, planet, and profit, social enterprises move beyond the MNC and SME CSR initiatives to become development agents serving BOP communities by providing new business models featuring consumer-specific products, entrepreneurship programs, and financial resources (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). Social enterprises are the evolution from the hand-out of NGOs to the hand-up of teaching people to care for themselves. Meanwhile, a social enterprise may be an alternative to the harsh world of MNC and SME capitalism for some budding entrepreneurs by providing training and credit (e.g., Dolan & Rajak, 2018). Some social enterprises provide vocational training to the world's most impoverished people (Napathorn, 2018). The results of social enterprise initiatives to effect sustainable economic development in the BOP matter because social enterprises are accountable to multiple stakeholders because they often rely on start-up donations or loans to provide the training programs (Lyon & Owen, 2019) and for scaling operations regionally and globally (Bocken et al., 2016). See Figure 2 for the actors in the 2030 Agenda multi-stakeholder approach to sustainable development.



Figure 2. 2030 Agenda multi-stakeholder approach.

International business in sustainable development. Though this study was about international business and not politics, when addressing sustainable development in BOP communities, the two fields are interconnected (e.g., Melin, 2016). The increasing involvement of business in global politics and the UN's and OECD's push for the Agenda 2030 means conducting business, especially in BOP communities, is both a challenge and an opportunity (Melin, 2016). Because abandoning business operations during conflict is not always an option, business leaders often take a proactive approach toward maintaining peace with stakeholders (Kolk & Lenfant, 2016; Melin, 2016). Both the UN's 2013 Global Compact and the OECD's 2011 Guidelines for Multinational Enterprise are examples of initiatives by the UN and OECD to help businesses leaders operating in BOP communities, such as those in Myanmar, continue efforts to bring sustainable economic development (Melin, 2016).

Myanmar. Myanmar is a nation of BOP communities ravaged by internal conflict and war (Bernhardt et al., 2017). Part of the reason for the internal conflict is that Myanmar is

comprised of over 135 different identified ethnic minorities with various ideals. Despite the 2015 victory of the National League for Democracy (NLD) with the platform for freedom for the various ideals, the incumbent 60-year military dictatorship still governs most national policies. Fighting increased as recently as late 2016 between the military and four of the ethnic groups and the numbers of even more than the half-million citizens already displaced by war increased (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017). Refugees of ethnic violence live on the nation's borders and are vulnerable to exploitation because of their tenuous lack of national identity (Sharples, 2018). Myanmar's economic challenges stem from a lack of infrastructure, access to capital, tax revenue base, tax revenue collection and banking systems, property rights enforcement, and vocational training. However, conditions are improving in some sectors, such as banking and telecommunications (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017).

Myanmar is a prime example of an OECD-listed fragile state with the potential for sustainable economic development as the nation becomes more peaceful because of its strategic geopolitical location in Asia. Myanmar is situated between two powerhouse BRICS nations, China and India, and one of the newest members of ASEAN. During the time of the US and European nations' sanctions, Myanmar increased trade with Asian nations, especially China, because of Asian needs for products and services to fuel high growth. Today, most foreign direct investment (FDI) in Myanmar is regional, from Asian nations such as China, India, and Japan. The primary FDI sector is garment manufacturing, followed by food products manufacturing and hotels and tourism (Bernhardt et al., 2017). For firms pursuing FDI, as well as Myanmar SMEs, which comprise the majority of Myanmar companies, one of the biggest obstacles besides corruption (Soans & Abe, 2016; Vogiatzoglou, 2016) is a lack of skilled labor (Bernhardt et al., 2017; Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). See Figure 3 for Myanmar's economic challenges.

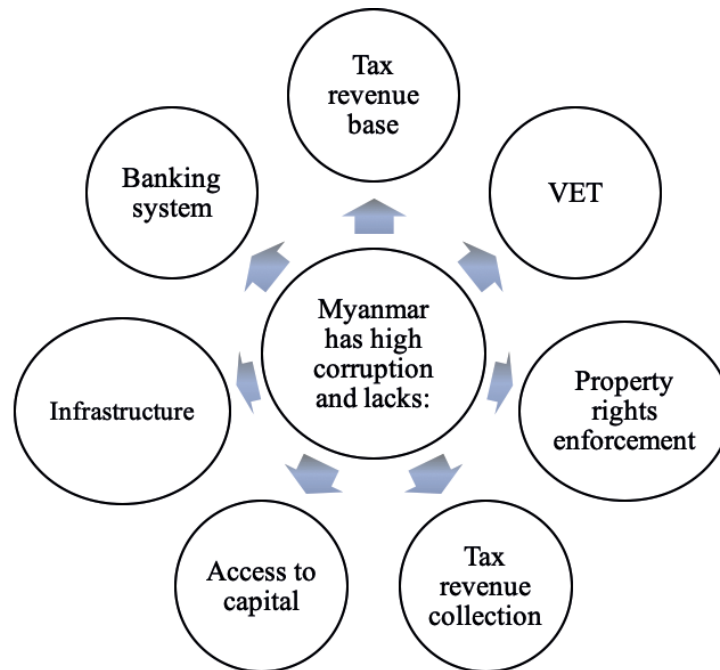


Figure 3. Myanmar's economic challenges. Adopted from “Myanmar’s new era: A break from the past, or too much of the same?” by A.M. Thawnghmung, and G. Robinson, 2017, *Southeast Asian Affairs*, 1(1), pp. 235-257.

Myanmar leaders recognize the challenge of building the skills of an adequately trained and educated population, and Myanmar’s president, Suu Kyi, advocated for vocational training (Thawnghmung & Robinson, 2017). Access to skilled labor is a primary factor driving corporate growth in both developed and developing nations. Even in turbulent developing nations, such as Myanmar, the availability of access to education mitigates the effect of the relationship between skilled labor and corporate growth (Mertzanis & Said, 2019). Leaders in Myanmar want to work with social enterprises that provide VET to help build the Myanmar skilled labor force and Myanmar entrepreneurs to support opportunistic growth sectors such as manufacturing and tourism (e.g., Cahalane, 2012; Tun, 2017).

The US-based social enterprise. The US-based social enterprise, which is the focus of this study, provides VET to Myanmar refugees in a turbulent BOP community. The VET

trainees learn English in tandem with skills such as sewing, baking and barista, marketing, and business management. The vocational and educational skills taught in the US-based social enterprise's VET support Myanmar's national growth sectors of garment manufacturing, food manufacturing, and hotels and tourism (e.g., Bernhardt et al., 2017). The study of the US-based social enterprise also has relevance in the field of international business the US-based social enterprise conducts business globally. The US-based social enterprise responsibly sources raw materials from the region, including Myanmar and Thailand, then VET beneficiaries design and manufacture products such as bags and accessories which the managers and VET beneficiaries market and sell around the world. The US-based social enterprise managers exemplify the practical application of concepts referenced in the stakeholder theory literature including: sustainable supply chain management (e.g., Bitzer & Glasbergen, 2015); collaboration to address wicked problems such as educational deficiencies and opportunity deficits (Selsky, 2016); corporate social responsibility (e.g., Singh et al., 2015); juggling the needs of beneficiaries, donors, and the social enterprise's viability (e.g., Karns, 2016; Sarman et al., 2015); and inclusive capitalism (e.g., Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018).

Social enterprise VET is an example of a present-day effort that spawned from Prahalad's (1999) introduction of the BOP and the UN and the OECDs subsequent introduction of initiatives to address sustainable economic development. Understanding the history of the BOP and sustainable development initiatives and actors is relevant to the current international business environment and to social enterprises offering VET in BOP communities to promote sustainable economic development. The historical perspective enables scholars and practitioners to know where and how to channel present-day efforts toward mitigating factors that contribute to the

lack of sustainable development in BOP communities in ways that may not be currently obvious (e.g., Melin, 2016).

Factors Contributing to a Lack of Sustainable Development

Sustainable development involves integrating social, environmental, and economic considerations (Obiri et al., 2016). BOP communities have unique challenges which make sustainable development more difficult than in more traditional markets including weak infrastructure, lack of effective legal and regulatory systems, weak financial markets, socio-cultural system differences, and low levels of training and education (Atiq et al., 2018; Bendul et al., 2015). The broad set of factors contributing to a lack of sustainable economic development include the lack of access to food, healthcare, education, water, and energy (UN, n.d.). The OECD historically considered violence the primary factor of fragility leading to a lack of sustainable development. However, the absence of violence does not mean a context is not fragile. In addition to violence, societal, political, and environmental vulnerabilities are also the causes and consequences leading to sustainability challenges (OECD, 2018).

The specific set of contributing factors to sustainable economic development challenges in the BOP, which is the focus of this study, are the lack of vocational education and training. “Education is a key determinant of household formation, structure, socio-economic status, and value judgment in every endeavor” (Obiri et al., 2016, p. 11). When creating the SDG, the UN’s leadership specifically addressed the links between education and sustainable economic development in BOP contexts, identifying vocational training and education as keys to sustainable economic development (Vladimirova & LeBlanc, 2016).

Education and vocational training are necessary components of sustainable economic development in BOP markets (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Bendul et al., 2015; Bocken et al., 2016;

Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos, 2015). Due to low literacy and work skills in the BOP in Mozambique, Bangladesh, Ethiopia, and Tanzania, there were product and labor market voids (Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos, 2015). In a study of BOP communities in India, Ghana, and China, low levels of training and education made developing supply chains to get products and services into an out of BOP communities more complicated than traditional markets (Bendul et al., 2015). There was increased crime and violence in BOP communities in African nations including the DRC (Democratic Republic of Congo) (Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a), Angola, DRC, and Rwanda (Kolk & Lenfant, 2015b), and Kenya (Dolan & Rajak, 2018) due to a lack of education and training. The young adult BOP, especially young men, who are excluded from education and training but expected to provide for their families, live in a state of chronic uncertainty, unable to transition from childhood to adulthood, because of no hope for a job or career (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). In Pakistan, women's lack of access to education, training, and the labor market have led to diminished national economic development (Atiq et al., 2018). In the Myanmar BOP, the exodus of Rohingya Muslim refugees into neighboring Bangladesh and India due to their persecution in Myanmar is attributable to a lack of education (Milton et al., 2017). See Figure 4 for the consequences of a lack of VET.

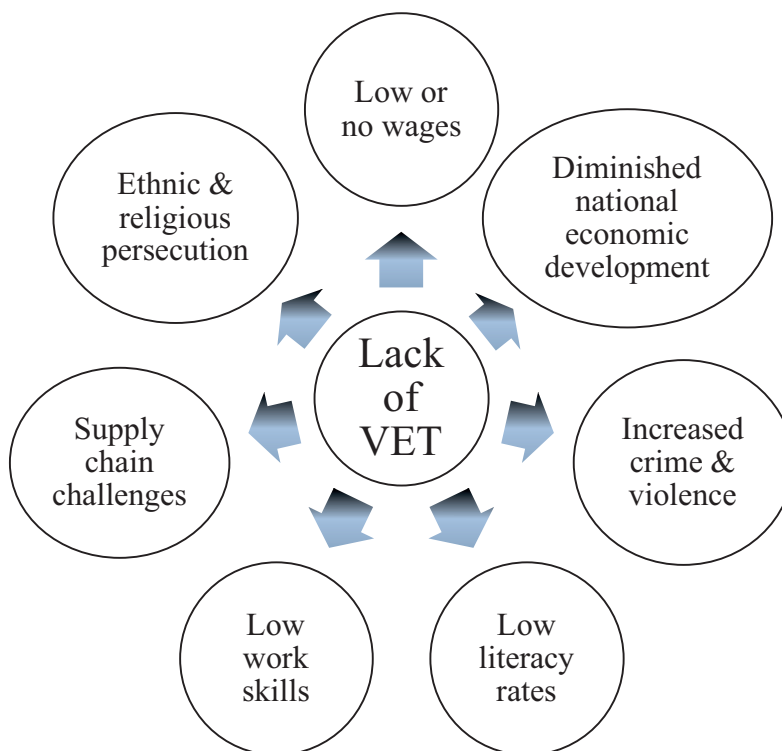


Figure 4. Consequences of the lack of VET. Adopted from Atiq et al. (2018); Bendul et al. (2015); Dolan & Rajak (2018); Kolk & Lenfant (2015a); 2015b; and Milton et al. (2017).

Based on the research on the consequences of the lack of vocational training and education in the BOP around the world, there is a need to fill the institutional void of vocational training and education in BOP communities to create sustainable economic development. Sustainable economic development is created in BOP communities by designing: (a) new institutional arrangements; (b) new institutions; and (c) support specifically for social enterprise leaders (Selsky, 2016). The reason for designing support specifically for social enterprise leaders is social enterprise leaders are the people working toward solutions to sustainable economic development inside BOP communities. For BOP communities, social enterprise leaders play a pivotal role in creating partnerships, mobilizing resources, and engaging stakeholders (Selsky, 2016). The role and potential contributions of social enterprises offering vocational training and education in the BOP is the focus of this study. Specifically, the purpose

is to determine whether social enterprises fill the institutional void of vocational training and education in BOP communities, which are factors contributing to a lack of sustainable development.

Social Enterprise Distinctions

Social enterprises are organizations with dual objectives of positively impacting societal issues and generating a profit so the firm can continue and possibly scale operations to impact more people (Santos et al., 2015). Unlike the distinctions of corporate and non-profit structure, models, and governance; there is minimal agreement on social enterprises in the literature (e.g., Arena, Azzone, & Bengo, 2015; Conway Dato-on & Kalakay, 2016; Džunić et al., 2018; Lyon & Owen, 2019). Part of the reason is though some forms of social enterprises have been in operation since the 1800s (Conway Dato-on & Kalakay, 2016; Lyon & Owen, 2019), the academic study of social enterprises is relatively new (Cheah et al., 2019). The academic literature on social entrepreneurship became more prevalent in the 1980s and 90s than in years past (Battilana, 2018). Another reason is that social entrepreneurship implies creativity, and different social problems in various social contexts require different solutions (Džunić et al., 2018). The following distinctions of social enterprises are presented: (a) the socialist versus the capitalist model; (b) types of social enterprises in market sectors; (c) the people social enterprises serve; (d) where social enterprises operate; and (e) vocational and education training programs.

The socialist versus the capitalist model. The two primary social entrepreneurship models stem from the UK and the US (Džunić et al., 2018). The socialist model, from the perspective of socialist economics, began in the UK and was formed because of the need to provide welfare-type services from which European governments disengaged. The focus of the socialist model of social enterprises is to fill the gap in social services and reinvesting profits to

provide more services. The socialist model was not originally about maximizing profits for owners and shareholders (e.g., Džunić et al., 2019). However, in the current literature, there seems to be a call for profit-maximization for investors and other stakeholders (e.g., Lyon & Owen, 2019).

The capitalist model, from the perspective of capitalist economics, began in the US and has two identities, social enterprise and social innovation. Social enterprise stresses an entrepreneurial bent to performing social services, a market orientation, and income-generating activities (Džunić et al., 2018). Social enterprise is a sustainable solution that enables BOP communities to develop and implement social innovation strategies to overcome local social issues (Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018).

The first identity of the capitalist model, social enterprise, is the conduit for the second identity of the capitalist model, social innovation (e.g., Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). Schumpeter (1964) defined the notion of innovation as part of the theory of economic development introduced in 1912. Schumpeter suggested the necessity of social innovation to occur synonymously in economic, social, and political sectors for economic efficacy (Schumpeter, 1964). The implication is that social innovation does not occur in isolation. For innovation to lead to sustainable economic development in the BOP, there must be a progression in the economy, society, and policy development.

Whereas social enterprise is geared toward a market-orientation, social innovation stresses entrepreneurial innovations to perform social services, regardless of whether the firm is market-oriented or profitable (Džunić et al., 2018). Social innovations include new services, products, processes, organizational structures, and often integrate with different business sectors and people to solve societal issues (Howladt, Domanski, & Kaletka, 2016) such as sustainable

economic development. Two key distinctive goals of social innovation are inclusive growth, where all actors benefit, and increasing scalability to impact more people (Portales, 2015). The results of social innovation include increased quality to life and a strengthened local economy because inclusive capitalistic practices break historical exclusion patterns and poverty cycles (Morais-Da-Silva, Takahashi, & Segatto, 2016; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). Because of the creativity required to address sustainable economic development in BOP communities (Džunić et al., 2018), social enterprise leaders innovate organizational structures (Howladt et al., 2016) which leads to challenges in international business because of the lack of legal precedence (Battilana, 2018).

Legal structures. Governments around the world are creating legal entities suited for social enterprise establishment (Abramson & Billings 2019; Triponel & Agapitova, 2017). The availability of equity financing, the status of a parent organization, human capital, and the funding environment are four factors affecting the type of legal entity social enterprise leaders choose (Addae, 2018). In the US, Benefit Corporations are the social enterprise legal structure expanding the fastest (Rawhouser, Cummings, & Crane, 2015). The Benefit Corporation's legal structure allows for a focus on the triple bottom line as in the MNC and SME corporate social responsibility triad of people, planet, and profit (Abramson & Billings 2019). The primary arguments for and against social enterprise legislation are societal spillovers and category redundancy. Proponents suggest social enterprise benefits society, employees, beneficiaries, consumers, and social enterprise leaders. Social enterprises enhance stakeholder clarity by making the mission clearer to current stakeholders and preventing mission drift (Rawhouser et al., 2015). Opponents contend that regulators and firms within an existing legal status will face complications. Social enterprises cause stakeholder confusion as the novelty confuses

stakeholders trying to relate social enterprises to existing profit and non-profit categories (Rawhouser et al., 2015).

In the US and abroad, choosing the legal structure for a social enterprise is a challenge because the structure sends a message to stakeholders, such as donors and governments, whom social enterprises rely on for monetary or social support (Abramson & Billings 2019; Addae, 2018). If chosen incorrectly, social enterprises send the wrong message to stakeholders, which results in damage to identity, legitimacy, and resources (Addae, 2018).

Commonalities. The common denominator of both the capitalist and socialist models of social enterprise is the focus on the social mission, which encompasses addressing social needs, creating value for society, or making an impact on society. The common problem of the capitalist and socialist models are navigating the dual bottom lines: pursuing financial profitability to fund impactful social ventures (Džunić et al., 2018). Because of the commonalities of the capitalist and socialist models, the literature review contains research on both models. However, the focus of the experiment of this study was a social enterprise utilizing the capitalist model of social enterprise.

Types of social enterprises in market sectors. There are several types of social enterprises in operation in various market sectors (Battilana, Sengul, Pache, & Model, 2015). Market sectors include: (a) social services; (b) agricultural; (c) financial; and (d) health (Arena et al., 2015). Social enterprises in these market sectors address a range of social issues from local development, welfare and health care services, urban regeneration, and environmental protection (Džunić et al., 2018). Socially-driven types of social enterprises focus on: (a) extreme poverty; (b) education; (c) persons with disabilities; (d) youth; (e) corporate social responsibility; and (f) the environment (Sarman et al., 2019). Financially-driven types of social enterprises are: (a)

enterprises for employment; (b) foundations; (c) business incubators; (d) development agencies; (e) citizens' associations; and (f) cooperatives (Džunić et al., 2018).

People social enterprises serve. The people social enterprises serve include: (a) young people; (b) elderly; (c) women; (d) people without professional qualification; (e) people with only elementary education; and (f) vulnerable groups (Džunić et al., 2018). People in the *vulnerable groups* category include refugees and displaced people groups (DPGs), people with disabilities, ethnic minorities, victims of violence, people with no education, and people over age 50 who were laid off (Džunić et al., 2018). Another classification of people in vulnerable groups is *marginalized*. Marginalized people include immigrants or refugees with minimal or no education, recovering drug and alcohol addicts, and disabled people (Ramus et al., 2018). Both terms *vulnerable* and *marginalized* refer to people who are socially excluded from vocational education training and subsequent job opportunities. This study focused on a social enterprise that serves refugees, a vulnerable group of the BOP community who are socially excluded by non-refugees from vocational training and jobs. Refugees are vulnerable because they often must illegally move in and out of refugee camps to find education and work to support their families (Sharples, 2018).

Where social enterprises operate. Social enterprises operate in both developed and developing nations (Aziz & Mohamad, 2016; Napathorn, 2018). Social enterprises around the world expected to contribute to the UN's SDGs (Kim, 2018). Generally, social enterprises emerge in areas where barriers to market entry of products and jobs occur, leading to marginalization and exclusion of people-groups (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018).

Developed nations. Developed nations, such as Italy and Germany, take on more of a socialist approach to social enterprise, especially with work integration programs, filling voids

by training and employing workers (e.g., Napathorn, 2018; Ramus et al., 2018). In some cases, the government subsidizes the social enterprise based on the number of people the social enterprise puts back into the workforce (Džunić et al., 2018). Though some disagree social enterprises should depend on government subsidies, the social enterprise may deliver specialized services which are not economically viable, but socially necessary (Steiner & Teasdale, 2019). In the US, social enterprises with a capitalist model may also provide socially necessary services such as work integration programs, but self-fund without the help of government subsidies (Abramson & Billings, 2019).

Developing nations. In developing nations, social enterprises are key players in promoting sustainable economic development (Atiq et al., 2018; Cheah et al., 2019; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). Developing nations such as those in Southeast Asia, Eastern Europe, and Africa, as well as India and China, have an acute need for social enterprises to not only create social impact but to self-fund operations (Bocken et al., 2016). Self-funding operations mean social enterprises must be profitable, and in many cases, raise money from investors or donors, without reliance on government support. To support social enterprise leaders' abilities to self-fund operations, the UN partnered with the British Council to promote social enterprise in meeting the SDGs in the Asia-Pacific region (British Council, n.d.). For example, social enterprises in Thailand have increased rapidly since 2013 because the government promotes social enterprises as a mechanism to provide sustainable strength to Thai communities (Napathorn, 2018).

Fragile states. Post-conflict developing nations, such as those listed by the UN as fragile states like Myanmar, have the greatest need for social enterprises because of their large BOP communities, but empirical data is lacking because of the danger of data collection (Kolk &

Lenfant, 2016). Myanmar is a nation that has been ravaged by internal conflict and wars (Sharples, 2018) and is emerging from four decades of isolation from the global economy (Bernhardt et al., 2017). However, political tensions resulting from decades of military dictatorship and the burgeoning democracy lead to social challenges such as continued human rights issues. Myanmar's economic challenges stem from a lack of infrastructure, vocational training, access to capital, tax revenue base, tax revenue collection and banking systems, and property rights enforcement (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017).

In Myanmar, many people from the Karen State seek refuge in the Mae La refugee camp or the neighboring town of Mae Sot, Thailand, on the Thailand-Myanmar border. The border is porous with products, people, and thus, ideals, culture, and information moving back and forth (Sharples, 2018). These refugees have limited access, if any, access to education and healthcare and are more vulnerable to crime and exploitation because of the fear of deportation. In the border town of the Mae Sot area, some humanitarian organizations service the large numbers of Burmese refugees in the absence of effective governance, including providing vocational education and training (e.g., Sharples, 2018). One such organization is the US-based social enterprise which is the focus of this study. The US-based social enterprise provides vocational education and training for Burmese refugees living on the Thailand-Myanmar border in Mae Sot and the Mae La refugee camp. What is significant about Mae Sot is the social interactions among locals, including Burmese refugees, Thai residents, Western aid workers, lead to the transformation and development of the towns and villages along the national borders (Sharples, 2018).

Vocational and education training programs. A WISE (work integration social enterprise) is a type of social enterprise with a focus on hiring, training, mentoring, and

counseling marginalized people (Crucke & Decramer, 2016; Ramus et al., 2018). One of the most renowned forms of a WISE is the German vocational and education training (VET) system. The German VET system provides workers with a firm- or industry-specific skills (Napathorn, 2018). The result of VET is increased skill formation and a larger workforce to overcome national skill mismatches and shortages (Ahmed, 2016; Napathorn, 2018). A focus on increasing employability and work integration is the core of addressing social exclusion in the workforce (Džunić et al., 2019). Social enterprises offering VET not only help decrease the number of socially- and financially-dependent people, which eases the burden on the economy, but also social enterprises promote positive values which lead to community cohesion (Džunić et al., 2019).

VET in developing nations. Social enterprises in the developing nations of India and Thailand commonly refer to the VET system (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Napathorn, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). Therefore, in this study, the researcher utilized this term, VET, to distinguish the type of social enterprise of focus in this study, serving BOP beneficiaries on the Thailand-Myanmar border. However, VETs operated by Indian- and Thai-nationals follow the socialist model versus the capitalist model. The business structure of the social enterprise in this study most resembles the inclusive capitalist structure of social enterprises serving indigenous people (e.g., Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). Indigenous social enterprises focus on the social issue of extreme poverty by designing a capitalistic business to create jobs to increase employment (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). In this study, the social enterprise takes an inclusive capitalist approach providing VET programs for Burmese refugees in sewing, café and barista, and business management.

Perspectives of VET in developing nations. Though the VET system has a favorable track record, there are alternative views about the long-term success of the VET system. While the focus of this study was on capitalist social enterprises, it is important to note the positive and negative perspectives of VET in both socialist and capitalist social enterprises. Focusing on both models enables the development of best practices which social enterprise leaders and stakeholders could draw from in policy and business model development (e.g., Melin, 2016).

Socialist VET in developing nations. In a study investigating socialist-model social enterprise financing patterns, the VET-focused social enterprises were the type of social enterprise least likely to apply for external financing but were most likely to receive external financing if they applied for it. This indicates favorable qualities of VET- based programs in the eyes of lenders, and thus, external stakeholders (Lyon & Owen, 2019). Alternatively, socialist-model social enterprise VET led to increased employment for some people, but left many trainees without jobs because there were not enough job openings or because of ineffective employee recruiting and retaining practices (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Napathorn, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). Thai social enterprises operating along the Thailand-Myanmar border perpetuated the problem of skilled labor shortage because of alternative employee recruitment methods and paternalistic employee relations practices (Napathorn, 2018). In a study to investigate the magnitude of the relationship of VET on employment status, type of employment, and wages for participants who complete VET, the findings indicated VET completion positively corresponded to increased salaried jobs and increased wages in careers at higher education levels. However, unemployment remained high for VET participants at lower general education levels (Ahmed, 2016). In Uganda, the VET programs offered for BOP youth were outdated and not relevant to what the young people needed, such as technology, agribusiness, and transport such as motorbike

taxi (Tukundane et al., 2015). The implication for social enterprise leaders and stakeholders is that there are factors beyond the availability of VET, which influence whether a person experiences increased wages. Despite the lack of broad-range success of these socialist-model social enterprise VET programs, in each of these studies, researchers agreed the lives of VET beneficiaries were better off with VET than without VET.

Capitalist VET in developing nations. Because of the long history of socialist VET in developing nations, there are several studies on socialist VET (Ahmed, 2016; Cheah et al., 2019; Costa & Pesci, 2016; de Bruin & Read, 2018; Douglas et al., 2018; Džunić et al., 2018; Meltzer et al., 2018; Napathorn, 2018), but there is currently quite a bit less research on social enterprises with the capitalist model of VET. Though most of the studies show overall positive effects of capitalist VET in developing nations, there were mixed impressions among researchers whether the results are short-, medium-, or long-term (Atiq et al., 2019; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018).

In the study of a social enterprise started by two Americans, using the capitalistic VET model, serving the Kenyan BOP, the benefits were more medium-term than short- or long-term. Catalyst provided VET, specifically sales agent training on Catalyst products that Kenyan consumers needed but were unable to access. Then Catalyst provided credit to the VET graduates to purchase the products to sell after training was complete (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). Catalyst learned early in the sales training development to emphasize *training* over *sales* because education was more attractive to Kenyans than a sales opportunity. Dolan and Rajak (2018) found that the results of the Catalyst capitalistic VET model was the potential benefits of rising out of the BOP were more a medium-term opportunity. There was no short-term quick-fix from intense poverty, nor was the idea of the profitability of capitalism so long-term that it seemed

entirely out of reach (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). The implication for social enterprise leaders and stakeholders is regardless of short-term disappointment; the future opportunity was enough to keep some beneficiaries moving forward (e.g., Dolan & Rajak, 2018).

There were more short- and long-term benefits in other studies on capitalist VET. Vázquez-Maguirre and Portales (2018) was a qualitative case study to explore how social enterprises serving marginalized people in Mexico, Guatemala, and Peru navigated the organizational tensions of achieving both social and economic objectives. The findings of Vázquez-Maguirre and Portales (2018) were that social enterprises adopted different organizational structures to meet the needs of beneficiaries. In all three nations, the capitalist VET model of social enterprise increased the quality of life for VET trainees by providing skills and job opportunities and strengthened the local economies (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018).

The results of a study of capitalist social enterprise operated by a Pakistani social entrepreneur providing VET to the BOP in Pakistan showed both short- and long-term benefits of VET (Atiq et al., 2019). The VET curriculum consisted of marketing and business management skills, quality control, and capacity building for trainees who were already artisans. According to Atiq et al. (2019), the VET trainees lacked entrepreneurial skills, access to markets to sell their products, and earned wages below the quality of the products they produced. Upon completion of the VET program, the VET graduates experience a ten percent increase in wages (Atiq et al., 2019). Over time, the VET graduates contributed more toward household income and invested more in their children's education and healthcare (Atiq et al., 2019).

As with socialist VET, whether the results of capitalist VET were short-, medium-, or long-term, the opportunity for social enterprise VET was a benefit to BOP trainees and their

families (e.g., Atiq et al., 2019; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). It is important to note that even in the success stories of socialist and capitalist VET, social entrepreneurs did not always *get it right* the first time. Instead, there was somewhat of a trial and error balancing stakeholders' expectations and the need for the social enterprise to profit enough to remain viable.

Challenges of Balancing Multiple Stakeholder Expectations

Based on the research context, the study defines a social enterprise as a firm (1) with a clear social mission, (2) which adopts a market-based approach to pursue a self-sustaining revenue model, and (3) allocates significant profits and human and fiscal resources to fulfilling its social mission (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019). The mission of leaders of social enterprises is to tackle the most challenging issues in society (Cheah et al., 2019). The challenging social issues are often a result of institutional voids left when governments and public bodies are unable or unwilling to provide public services (Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos, 2015; Sepulveda, 2015). In some cases, social enterprises can fill the public needs more cost-effectively, even when governments are willing and able to provide public services (Sepulveda, 2015). For example, one social enterprise employs over 400 people from a marginalized ethnic tribe in the Peruvian highlands, which was once the most impoverished in the country because of military-led agrarian reforms (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). Without social enterprise employment, the people would have continued to live impoverished lives because the government would not provide public services, leaving the people in a vulnerable position.

Social enterprises, like for-profit and non-profit firms, leverage finite resources and capabilities to create and sustain a competitive advantage and increase organizational efficiency both socially and financially (Cheah et al., 2019). Because of the dual objectives of financial and

social performance, social enterprise leaders often face different pressures from various stakeholder groups (Battilana et al., 2015; Mair et al., 2015; Sarman et al., 2015). Social enterprises have even more significant challenges juggling stakeholder demands for financial and social performance because multiple stakeholders have relatively equal priority depending on the issue at hand (Sarman et al., 2015). Lacking a dominant stakeholder group, social enterprises must manage the conflicting social and financial performance expectations of different principal stakeholder groups (Mair et al., 2015).

Social performance. Social performance refers to how well a social enterprise leverages the firm's resources to tackle and solve social and environmental challenges (Battilana et al., 2015). Examples of how social enterprises enhance social performance include: (a) process innovation such as implementing a training program to help socially disadvantaged or excluded people (re)-enter the workforce; (b) product innovations such as providing a new vaccine affordable for impoverished people; or (c) partnering with an organization or person enabling the social enterprise to scale and grow (Ramus et al., 2018). Stakeholders who prioritize social performance include beneficiaries, donors, employees, local public entities, volunteers, and social or humanitarian-focused partners to whom the social enterprise has a fiduciary responsibility.

Financial performance. Financial performance refers to how well a social enterprise leverages the firm's resources to profit after accounting for costs. Examples of how social enterprises enhance financial performance include: (a) process innovation to increase efficiency; (b) product and service innovations to increase revenues; or (c) creating a partnership to enter a new market segment (Cho & Kim, 2017; Ramus et al., 2018). Stakeholders who prioritize financial performance include investors, donors, commercial partners, and customers to whom

the social enterprise has an economic responsibility to profit and continue operations (Ramus et al., 2018).

Stakeholder demands on social enterprises strategies and choices. Stakeholder theorists suggest for organizational success, the organization's leaders must prioritize stakeholder demands based on the relative power and strength of the stakeholder (Sarman et al., 2015). Stakeholder demands influence social enterprises' strategies and choices such as innovation strategies and performance and impact assessment (Crucke & Decramer; 2016; Stevens, Moray, Bruneel, & Clarysse, 2015; Ramus et al., 2018).

Innovation strategies. As for any organization, social enterprises must develop innovative strategies involving products, partnerships, and processes. Innovation is necessary not only for profitability but to effectively address social issues over the long term (Battilana et al., 2015). However, unlike other types of organizations, social enterprises run the risk of leaning too far toward either financial or social objectives, neglecting the other objective, and degrading stakeholder relationships (Ramus, Vaccaro, & Brusoni, 2017). The finding of Ramus et al. (2018) was that especially during times of economic volatility, the composition of the board and external stakeholders were more influential than administrative leaders of the social enterprise in determining the innovation strategies social enterprises adopted. If the external stakeholders had more of a financial background (i.e., business owner or CFO), then the social enterprise would adopt more financially-driven product-, process-, and partnership-innovation. Alternatively, if the external stakeholders had more of a social background (i.e., psychologist or NGO manager), then the social enterprise would adopt more socially-driven product-, process-, and partnership-innovation. These findings were contradictory to Rey-Martí, Ribeiro-Soriano, and Sánchez-García's (2016) findings that the social enterprise leaders' experience significantly

influences innovation strategies. Whether it is due to the influence of the board and external stakeholders or the social enterprise leader, leaning too far toward either financial or social objectives degrades the social enterprise efficacy and can cause conflict among stakeholders.

To innovate and avoid neglecting either the financial or social objective, some social enterprises adopt different organizational structures depending on the needs and abilities of the beneficiaries. Indigenous social enterprises, which serve marginalized indigenous people by teaching skills and providing job opportunities, innovate by adopting different organizational structures, prioritizing either the social or the financial objective, but maintaining both. There is a critical need for social enterprises to mitigate dual-objective tension for survival and long-term impact (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018).

Regarding the need for social enterprises to avoid degradation of stakeholder relationships, while innovating for long-term viability, there are four factors which impact stakeholders' perceptions of their contribution when partnering to addressing social issues. These are: (a) the rank of authority among partners (authority ranking); (b) whether they feel they are part of a collective (community sharing); (c) whether they feel each partner is equal (equality matching); and (d) the expectation of a return for their investment (market pricing) (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2016). Market pricing is a transactional factor, whereas authority ranking, communal sharing, equality matching are relational factors. In the absence of a strong relationship between an organization and its stakeholders, market pricing is the default approach to stakeholder management. Alternatively, authority ranking, communal sharing, and equality matching lead to substantial stakeholder contributions to social issues (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2016). The implication is that for social enterprises to innovate to better-serve beneficiaries,

there is a need to develop a robust relational culture that engages stakeholders to partner and evolve with the organization.

Performance and impact assessment. Performance and impact assessment is a significant challenge for social enterprises because of the dual objectives of financial profitability and social impact (Abramson & Billings, 2019; Addae, 2018; Cheah et al., 2019; Cooney, 2017; Cordes, 2017; Costa & Pesci, 2016; Greico, 2018; Pandey, Kim & Pandey, 2017). Current scholars debate the prioritization of the assessment of financial performance and social impact. Greico (2018) suggested that the focus on financial activity is what differentiates social enterprises from the broader non-profit sector, including social movements and philanthropic and charitable ventures. It is just as crucial for social enterprises to prove the efficacy of impact as it is to undertake the social challenge (Greico, 2018). Pandey et al. (2017) agreed with Greico (2018) that having a passion for the social cause is not enough; social enterprise leaders must achieve and maintain economic viability.

Alternatively, maintaining viability requires juggling stakeholders' needs, governance requirements, and social outcomes beyond just output financial performance (Addae, 2018). The most significant skill for increasing social impact is the ability to engage stakeholders, including donors, beneficiaries, customers, volunteers, and the community in the social mission (Bacq & Eddleston, 2018). In the research of Abramson and Billings (2019), some scholars and practitioners did not believe financial and social impact should be measured at all.

There is a lack of a common language, so social enterprises may not understand what and how to measure impact (OECD, 2015). Of the financial performance and social impact tools available for social enterprises, 25 percent were designed to measure the social impact, and fewer than five percent were designed to assess the financial impact (Abramson & Billings, 2019).

Cheah et al. (2019) and Costa and Pesci (2016) agreed that a blend of social and financial performance assessment is better than one or the other. Costa and Pesci (2016) presented a model in which unique stakeholder needs were considered throughout the assessment process, and not just at the end. In multiple studies, authors expressed the importance of considering the unique needs of donors and beneficiaries as stakeholders as well as the complications with presenting financial and social performance (e.g., Abramson & Billings, 2019; Battilana et al., 2015; Cheah et al., 2019; Costa & Pesci, 2016; Cooney, 2017; Cordes, 2017; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018; Sarman et al., 2015).

Donors. For donor interests, Sarman et al. (2015) suggested there is a lack of information about social enterprise social and financial performance provided to donors and the general public who are potential donors. The findings of Sarman et al. (2015) were only ten percent of Malaysian social enterprises provided accountability disclosures, which meant that 90% of financial, social performance, and political accountability measures were undisclosed. None of the social enterprises reported financial accountability disclosures, 14% reported social performance accountability disclosures, and 13% reported political accountability disclosures (Sarman et al., 2015). In developing nations, donor funding for social enterprises comes from outside sources (Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). In one region of India, social enterprise agglomeration, occurring because of resource networks, lead to financial resources being driven toward communities with an established history and away from newer social enterprise communities (Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). These findings suggest the importance of donors, the stakeholder group serving as the outside financial source, placed on believing their investment was wisely spent, as they continually gave to established social enterprises with a track record of effectiveness, and not necessarily to new ventures.

Beneficiaries. Beneficiaries also have an interest in social enterprise performance (Cooney, 2017; Cordes, 2017). Some researchers found an over-emphasis on beneficiaries' priorities can increase operational costs and reduce financial efficiency (Battilana et al., 2015), while others disagree and suggest the focus on donors' needs over beneficiaries' needs caused social enterprise to fall short (Abramson & Billings, 2019; Cheah et al., 2019). In addition to blending social and financial performance and considering unique stakeholder needs and interests in presenting the information, there is a consideration of where to disclose information.

The Internet is a primary source of information for stakeholders, meanwhile some social enterprises whose beneficiaries are marginalized people may not be able to have a robust Internet presence for the safety and security of beneficiaries (Sarman et al., 2015). The US-based social enterprise in this research study works around the challenge of blending social and financial performance for the unique needs of donors and beneficiaries while protecting beneficiaries while having a limited Internet presence. The US-based social enterprise has a private Facebook page where the social enterprise manager shares stories about the social and financial impact to which only donors and beneficiaries have access.

Creating a Financially Sustainable Social Enterprise

Though social enterprises have dual objectives of social and financial performance, and often the triple objectives of social, financial, and environmental performance, social enterprises must generate a profit and be financially sustainable for long-term viability (Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Staicu, 2018). Because of the dual, and often competing objectives of financial and social performance, and normal market forces, social enterprises are just as susceptible to failure as for-profit firms (Bruneel et al., 2016; Staicu, 2018; Woodside, 2018). Without profitability, social enterprises cannot remain in business to create social impact or ameliorate poverty (Staicu, 2018;

Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). The prerequisites for creating a financially sustainable social enterprise include: (a) business development planning; (b) capitalizing for customer engagement; and (c) adapting to the changing BOP context.

Business development planning. To create a profitable social enterprise, social enterprise leaders are more likely to adopt business development models and methods similar to those of for-profit firms versus service development models and methods of non-profit firms (Szijarto, Milley, Svensson, & Cousins, 2018). Osterwalder and Pigneur's (2010) business model canvas (BMC) is one business development tool, both for-profit and social enterprise leaders utilize to discern how to create and capture the value of a business. The BMC consists of nine components of the social enterprise: (a) customer segments; (b) customer relationships; (c) distribution and communication channels; (d) the value proposition; (e) key activities; (f) key resources; (g) key partners; (h) cost structure; and (i) revenue streams (Dumalanède & Payaud, 2018; Sparviero, 2019). The focus of the first seven components is on how the social enterprise delivers value to customers, and the last two components are about the financial impact of delivering value to customers (Heinze, Griffiths, Fenton, & Fletcher, 2018). The BMC is essentially a one-page business plan that is attractive to social entrepreneurs and business leaders because it allows them to connect concepts in a variety of ways to make sense of doing business (Keane, Cormican, & Sheahan, 2018).

Some social enterprise leaders use an even more specific BMC, explicitly geared toward social enterprises, the Social Enterprise Model Canvas (SEMC) (Sparviero, 2019). The primary difference between the BMC and the SEMC is the inclusion of two additional components: (a) social and environmental costs; and (b) social and environmental benefits in the business planning process (Sparviero, 2019). The value proposition component of the SEMC also

includes the social enterprise beneficiaries in addition to customers (Sparviero, 2019; Dumalanède & Payaud, 2018).

One example of social enterprise adoption of a for-profit business development method is marketing to increase the visibility and demand of the social enterprise's products and services (Szijarto, 2018). In the BMC and SEMC, marketing is part of the distribution and communication channels component and is where the social enterprise leader determines how the firm delivers its value proposition to each customer segment (Keane et al., 2018). However, like non-profit firms, social enterprises have the additional challenge of allocating resources, part of the cost structure component on the BMC and SEMC, to activities, such as marketing, which some perceive as outside the social mission (Keane et al., 2018; Littlewood & Holt, 2018).

In a study of South African social enterprises serving the BOP, the biggest challenge was marketing products and services because of budget constraints (Littlewood & Holt, 2018). Though allocating resources for marketing is a challenge for most SMEs, it was especially challenging for social enterprise leaders to justify an expense not directly related to social performance. Littlewood and Holt (2018) found that most social enterprises depended on volunteers with marketing skills to fill this need. The implication for social enterprises facing this marketing challenge is the use of the SEMC, in particular, could be a useful tool because leaders can visualize whether the social benefits offset the cost (Sparviero, 2019).

Capitalization for customer engagement. When developing the social enterprise business model and methods, the ultimate goal of social enterprise leaders is to self-fund operations through profit (Abramson & Billings, 2019; Bocken et al., 2016). However, social enterprise leaders often depend on a variety of capitalization methods from donors, private investors, banks, philanthropic foundations, and in some cases, governments, to get a social

enterprise up and running to generate the first transaction with a customer (Abramson & Billings, 2019; Lyon & Owen, 2019; Staicu, 2018; Szijarto, 2018). Social enterprise customer segments vary depending on the social mission of the social enterprise (the value proposition segment of the BMC) and the context in which the organization operates, and include BOP community members, non-BOP individuals, and non-profit and for-profit firms serving the BOP.

BOP customers. Some social enterprises make products and sell directly to customers in the local BOP community, sometimes by the BOP sales force (Bocken et al., 2016; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Dumalanède & Payaud, 2018). For example, Catalyst, a US-based social enterprise serving the Kenyan BOP, sold affordable cooking equipment and solar lights designed for the BOP. Catalyst provided sales training to BOP VET trainees, then offered credit for BOP graduates to purchase products to sell in the BOP community (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). In this case, Catalyst had two customer segments: (a) the BOP beneficiary who received training and credit to distribute Catalyst's products; and (b) the BOP community members who were the end-users of Catalyst's products. The social enterprise leaders discovered this customer segment by moving to Nairobi and meeting young people in the BOP and learning what products the BOP needed for off-grid living (Dolan & Rajak, 2018). The first sale to the customer came after the social enterprise leaders began the first sales VET training program, and VET trainees went into their communities to sell products (Dolan & Rajak, 2018).

Non-BOP customers. Some social enterprises hire and train BOP community members to make and sell products to customers locally and internationally outside the BOP (Atiq et al., 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). An example of a social enterprise with this customer segment is Fascino Couture in Pakistan (Atiq et al., 2018). While the BOP artisan VET trainees were the social enterprise beneficiaries, the customer

segment was the retailers of high quality, reasonably priced artisan leather products, jewelry, clothing, and accessories. The social enterprise leader knew of this customer segment from being an artisan growing up in Pakistan. The first customer transaction occurred after the social enterprise leader started the first business development VET program and secured contracts in place between the BOP artisans and the buyers (Atiq et al., 2018).

BOP, non-BOP, and organizational customers. Some social enterprises serve a combination of BOP customers, non-BOP customers, and other non-profit and for-profit organizations, also serving the BOP (Holt & Littlewood, 2015). Cookswell Enterprises is an example of a social enterprise with these multiple customer segments. Like Catalyst, Cookswell operated in Kenya and manufactured, marketed, and sold cook stoves. Because the social enterprise was founded in the early 1980s, the social enterprise leader was an early entrant to the market and had developed the customer segments over time by developing trust and capacity (Holt & Littlewood, 2015).

Adaptation. Along with sound business development planning and solid capitalization to engage customers, social enterprises must often adapt and morph over time to provide different products or services to different customer bases depending on the context of the shifting BOP environment (Bocken et al., 2016; Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). Adaptation to the local context is critical not only for the survival of the social enterprise but also for generating enough profit to scale operations (Holt & Littlewood, 2015). For example, a social enterprise in Guatemala split operations into two business units, one focused on commercial sales to fully fund the social enterprise, and the second focused on the social goal of increasing the well-being of indigenous women artisans without the pressure of financial performance (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-

Maguirre et al., 2018). Social enterprise leaders with the nimbleness to adapt to changing environments is a hallmark quality required for a financially sustainable social enterprise (Szijarto, 2018).

The unique adaptability of social enterprise leaders, especially those operating in BOP communities, is sometimes referred to as design thinking (Galvin & Iannotti, 2015; Kummitha, 2018). Design thinking involves trial and error in problem-solving, iterative processes, and a results orientation unique from for-profit and non-profit firms (Galvin & Iannotti, 2015). Especially in BOP communities, social enterprise leaders use design thinking both intentionally and unintentionally as they interact with multiple stakeholders to determine the most effective products, services, and delivery methods to enhance the impacts to ameliorate poverty (Kummitha, 2018).

Nafa Naana is a social enterprise that used the BMC, was capitalized for customer engagement, and adapted its business model overtime to meet the needs of the local community (Dumalanède & Payaud, 2018) by using design thinking. Nafa Naana, which means *advantages come*, manufactured and sold energy-efficient cook stoves and equipment for the BOP in Burkina Faso. Nafa Naana began as an NGO with a program providing credit and affordable cook stoves, and eventually sold enough stoves to break away from the NGO and adapted the BMC to form a social enterprise. According to Dumalanède and Payaud (2018), Nafa Naana sold to customer segments in three ways. The first was direct sales at two stores located in the same building as the NGO offices. The second customer segment was local NGOs and women's associations, which purchased products to distribute to the BOP. The third customer segment was the local shopkeepers. Nafa Naana built the shopkeeper network from scratch, convinced

each shopkeeper that Nafa Naana's products would increase their business, then trained each to promote and sell the products (Dumalanède & Payaud, 2018).

Nafa Naana improved the standard of living in the BOP by providing: (a) the community with trustworthy products; and (b) jobs and wages from stove manufacturing and product distribution, and thus, has contributed to alleviating poverty (Dumalanède & Payaud, 2018).

Nafa Naana leaders recognized that the financial sustainability of the social enterprise to continue alleviating poverty depended on the acceptance of multiple stakeholders in the local community (Dumalanède & Payaud, 2018).

The Role of Social Enterprises in Achieving Sustainable Economic Development

Donors, policymakers, and social enterprise leaders need to understand the potential impacts of social enterprises on beneficiaries, both positive and negative, because of the shared goals of supporting sustainable development and addressing acute BOP issues (Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Littlewood & Holt, 2018). Social enterprises have a significant role in achieving the UN's sustainable development goals (SDGs) centered around employment, education, and poverty reduction in BOP communities thanks to their ability to collaboratively tackle economic and social issues (Rahdari et al., 2019). Džunić et al. (2018) specifically suggested social enterprise leaders are potential contributors to poverty amelioration because social enterprise vocational training programs increase employability, which encompasses three areas of the SDGs- employment, education, and poverty reduction.

In developing nations, there is often a dependence on developed-nations' donors, grants, social investments, and central governments for sustainable economic development (Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). However, developing nations, such as those in Southeast Asia, who need help the most, often do not receive assistance from developed-nations'

donors and social investors because of the weaknesses of the local government, market and civil society capacity (Cheah et al., 2019; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). For example, donor support of social enterprises in Zambia and Zimbabwe was substantial because of a history of social enterprise, whereas donor support of social enterprises in Southeast Asian nations was minimal, leading to the limited social enterprise sector expansion (Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). Because of the infancy of social enterprise development in Southeast Asia, and the subsequent lack of familiarity with the social enterprise business model, financial stability is an acute issue for social enterprise leaders (Cheah et al., 2019).

The lack of awareness among current and potential stakeholders about the capabilities of social enterprise leaders to contribute to sustainable economic development (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018) are examples of why scholars have called for more research to gain a more comprehensive and generalizable understanding of social enterprise function and performance (e.g., Abramson & Billings, 2019; Battilana, 2018; Crucke & Decramer, 2016; Džunić et al., 2018; Greico, 2018; Medina Munro & Belanger, 2017; Rahdari et al., 2016; Ramus et al., 2018). Further, there is a lack of quantitative studies on social enterprises because of the need for empirical data (Džunić et al., 2018; Littlewood & Holt, 2018; Ramus et al., 2018; Steiner & Teasdale, 2019) which may be dangerous to collect in fragile nations (Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a, 2015b, 2016). Still, scholars called for more international research to understand of the conditions under which sustainable economic development can occur (Crucke & Decramer, 2016; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a, 2015b, 2016; Littlewood & Holt, 2018).

Much of the social enterprise research on developing, and fragile nations and people groups is about Africa (e.g., Diochon & Ghore, 2016; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Dumalanède &

Payaud, 2018; Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a, 2015b, 2016; Littlewood & Holt, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015); Latin America (e.g., Figueroa Díaz, & Magaña Hernández, 2018; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018); Asia (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Bhatt, Qureshi, & Riaz, 2019; Chui et al., 2019; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018; Kummitha, 2018); the Middle East (Aziz & Mohamad, 2016); and even small Pacific Island nation of Fiji (e.g., Douglas et al., 2018). There was one study from Southeast Asia about the social enterprise in Malaysia (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019). What was noticeably absent from the literature is research on the fragile nation of Myanmar. Nolte (2019) discussed the challenges of partnerships for sustainable development but did not mention social enterprises specifically. Conducting this quantitative study, by examining two factors between the BOP in the fragile nation of Myanmar - (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2) self-efficacy difference, a social factor – fills the call by scholars for more quantitative international research on developing, fragile nations.

In addition to the need for more quantitative research on social enterprises in fragile nations, there was also a need to study social enterprises from the stakeholder theory perspective (Sarman et al., 2015; Sulkowski et al., 2019). Vázquez-Maguirre and Portales (2018) suggested there is a need for more research on the influence of stakeholder pressure, including donors and beneficiaries, to generate either social or economic value. Meanwhile, Lyon and Owen (2019) specifically suggested the need for assessing the impact of social enterprise investment on beneficiaries as a future study.

Examining wage differences and self-efficacy differences between the Myanmar BOP led to understanding whether social enterprises balance the pressures of stakeholder groups by showing a return on donors' investments while teaching the BOP skills to lift themselves out of

poverty (e.g., Chui et al., 2019; Dolan, & Rajak, 2018; Steiner & Teasdale, 2019; Tukundane et al., 2015). A scholarly literature search for abstracts containing “social enterprise” and “stakeholder theory” from 2016 to 2019 led to only three studies: microfinance in Mexico (Figueroa Díaz, & Magaña Hernández, 2018); Islamic business (Aziz & Mohamad, 2016), and Pakistani capitalistic social enterprise with the VET beneficiaries as the stakeholder of focus (Atiq et al., 2018). In the literature, Atiq et al. (2018), was the closest research to this study with stakeholder theory as the framework for social enterprises. Whereas Atiq et al. (2018) was qualitative and focused on the impact of (a) VET on the social enterprise beneficiaries and (b) stakeholders on the social enterprise leader, this study in quantitative and focuses on the impact of VET on social enterprise beneficiaries wage and self-efficacy differences on beneficiaries and donors. This study was conducted in response to the calls from other scholars for more research with the stakeholder theory, and the aim of this researcher was to validate and extend stakeholder theory, focusing on the different effects of social enterprise VET programs on wage and self-efficacy differences between Myanmar BOP beneficiaries.

Summary

Sustainable economic development is a challenge in BOP communities because of the lack of vocational training and education (Bocken et al., 2016). Social enterprise is a type of organization with the dual objectives of profitability and providing social value (Littlewood & Holt, 2018). Since the 1980s, social enterprises have emerged and expanded as one of the primary forces to reducing or eliminating societal problems (Lumpkin et al., 2018). Social enterprises operate in many different contexts juggling a myriad of stakeholder expectations to address the world’s toughest social problems, such as the lack of sustainable economic development. Stakeholder theorists postulate that firms may prioritize the needs of stakeholders

based on power and strength (Sarman et al., 2015). When taking a stakeholder theory perspective, social enterprise leaders have the extra challenge of balancing financial and social bottom lines and are accountable to donors and beneficiaries (Sulkowski et al., 2019). The impact of social enterprise programs is difficult to measure because the impact depends on the perspective of the stakeholder (Costa & Pesci, 2016). The strength of stakeholders influences the trajectory of the organizations, including innovation strategies and performance and impact measurement (Ramus et al., 2018). To create a financially sustainable social enterprise, the prerequisites include business development planning, capitalizing for customer engagement, and adapting to the changing BOP context. Social enterprises are playing a role in achieving the 2030 Agenda (Rahdari et al., 2019) by offering vocational training and education in BOP communities to increase wages and self-efficacy (Atiq et al., 2018; Džunić et al., 2018).

Chapter 3: Research Method

BOP markets experience challenges with sustainable economic development (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). An example of a nation comprised of a vast network of BOP communities is Myanmar. Myanmar is one of the poorest nations in the world, with more than 25% living in extreme poverty (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017). Part of the reason is the lack of vocational and educational training, which are necessary components of sustainable economic development (Bendul et al., 2016; Bocken et al., 2016).

The UN and the OECD leaders list social enterprises as part of the solution to sustainable economic development (OECD, n.d.a; UN, 2018). Social enterprises are businesses that address social and environmental challenges while creating economic profit (Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Littlewood & Holt, 2018). Some social enterprises offer vocational educational training (VET) programs for the BOP communities in which they operate (Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Napathorn, 2018). Researchers are studying the contributions of social enterprises that offer VET to sustainable economic development (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Atiq et al., 2019; de Bruin & Read, 2018; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Douglas et al., 2018; Džunić et al., 2018; Meltzer et al., 2018; Napathorn, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). There are mixed results of recent studies of social enterprises offering VET regarding the abilities of social enterprises to balance stakeholder needs (e.g., Abramson & Billings, 2019; Battilana et al., 2015; Cheah et al., 2019; Costa & Pesci, 2016; Cooney, 2017; Cordes, 2017; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018; Sarman et al., 2015).

This study addressed the problem of how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in offering VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The purpose of this quantitative quasi-

experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between those who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program to examine how social enterprises balanced multiple stakeholder needs. The study design was quantitative quasi-experimental, using a static group comparison with a non-equivalent group design (NEGD). The study compared two groups: VET trainees and non-VET trainees, using a between-subjects approach (Burns & Burns, 2008). The objective of the study was to answer the following question:

Q1. What is the difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between people in the Myanmar BOP who complete a social enterprise VET program and Myanmar BOP who do not complete a VET program?

The chapter begins with a discussion of the rationale for the research method and design choice of a quantitative quasi-experimental approach using a static group comparison with a non-equivalent group design. The chapter continues with a description of the study procedure and detailed information on data collection and analysis. The chapter concludes with assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the research process along with ethical assurances.

Research Methodology and Design

The study adopted a quantitative quasi-experimental design comparing the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program to examine whether social enterprises balanced multiple stakeholder needs. The two primary approaches to research are quantitative and qualitative methods. Though each differs, the two approaches are complementary and are appropriate for use during different phases of theoretical development and to address different types of questions (Burns & Burns, 2008). Qualitative assessments are

inductive. Researchers start at the bottom of the problem, examining and exploring raw data, and attempt to establish patterns that may lead to theoretical or principal development (Burns & Burns, 2008). Quantitative assessments are deductive. Researchers begin at the top, with theory and a perceived problem in a particular context, then test hypotheses to determine whether the theory holds (Burns & Burns, 2008). The reason for choosing the quantitative approach was that the researcher is taking a top-down perspective, beginning with the theoretical foundation. In this study, the theoretical foundation is stakeholder theory, and the research problem involves how social enterprises address beneficiaries' needs in a particular context, the Myanmar BOP. Stakeholder theorists suggest stakeholder expectations vary among donors and beneficiaries (Sulkowski et al., 2019), and social enterprise leaders must balance these different expectations along with the social enterprise's needs for viability (Bocken et al., 2016). When testing theories, such as the stakeholder theory, the quantitative research method using archival data is useful because archival data may be the primary evidence of a phenomenon or the foundation for future research (Grant, 2017). The hypotheses about monthly wages and self-efficacy using archival data were tested to determine whether stakeholder theory held in this context.

Within the quantitative approach, there are four types of studies: (a) exploratory; (b) observational; (c) correlational; and (d) experimental. Following is an explanation of why an experimental study was conducted in preference to an exploratory, observational, or correlational study. The purpose of experimental studies is to determine cause and effect relationships between the independent and dependent variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). Whereas in an experimental study, the researcher manipulates an independent variable to observe changes in one or more dependent variables, in an observational study in which the researcher observes phenomena in the natural setting without intervention (Burns & Burns, 2008). An observational

study was not possible for this study. The reason was that there was an intervention, the social enterprise VET program, and the purpose was to establish whether there was a cause and effect relationship.

Correlational studies examine the strength of association between the independent and dependent variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). The strength of correlational studies is describing the magnitude of co-occurrence with minimal to no researcher-control, ease of conducting, and most common in business and social science (Burns & Burns, 2008). However, the downside to correlational studies is that there is no determination of cause and effect because there is no independent variable manipulation (Burns & Burns, 2008). The goal of the research was to compare the difference in wages and self-efficacy between Myanmar BOP with and without VET to determine a potential cause and effect relationship, not the magnitude of change, as is the purpose of correlational studies (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008).

In addition to observational and correlational studies, an exploratory study was not as appropriate as an experimental study for this research. While the strength of exploratory studies is providing the direction and focus for future research when there is minimal information about the phenomena of interest, the disadvantage is the results may be judgmental because of a lack of experimental control and adequate sampling (Burns & Burns, 2008). The study of social enterprises is relatively new, so the majority of the current literature is either exploratory or observational. Researchers are calling for more directed, quantitative research to examine social enterprises (e.g., Džunić et al., 2018).

The strength of experimental studies is if conducted under strict control, the findings often advance knowledge or a theory by either supporting or refuting a hypothesis (Burns & Burns, 2008). This study aimed to validate and extend stakeholder theory, focusing on the

different effects of two outcome variables of social enterprise VET programs- (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2) self-efficacy difference, a social factor - between VET trainees and non-VET trainees. The disadvantage of experimental studies is time- and cost-intensity to achieve the required level of control (Burns & Burns, 2008). In this study, the disadvantage of time- and cost-intensity was overcome by utilizing archival data. Archival data is an effective research option because of the abundance of electronic information and ease of access and use (Ivanov, 2017).

Of the types of experimental studies, both a true experiment and a quasi-experiment were considered. Both true experiments and quasi-experiments are used to make group comparisons to establish cause and effect relationships between variables (Mertens, 2015). Because the goal of the study was to compare trainees' wages and self-efficacy before and after VET completion, either a true experiment or a quasi-experiment would have been appropriate.

The quasi-experiment has advantages over a true experiment for this study. The hallmark of a true experiment is a combination of: (a) randomization of participants into the experiment group and control group; and (b) control of potential confounding variables. A weakness of quasi-experiments, which do not incorporate randomization, is that it is difficult to know how similar the experiment group and the control group were before the experiment (Burns & Burns, 2008). Quasi-experimental studies are easier to implement than randomized designs and allow for increased validity and authenticity (Elffers, Hollis-Peel, Reynald, van Bavel, & Welsh, 2011) and are an inherent part of conducting experiments with in-tact groups such as the VET trainees at the US-based social enterprise (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008). Further, the use of archival data is appropriate for situations under which true experiments would be unethical, complicated, or inappropriate (Malina, Norreklit, & Selto, 2011), resulting in the need for a quasi-experiment.

There are several choices of quasi-experimental designs. The one-group pre and post design and the non-equivalent group design (NEGD) were the most feasible, and the NEGD was selected. In both designs, two measurements are taken, one before and one after the experiment, and compares the two measurements. Though the one-group pre and post design is rather simple to perform, there is a high possibility of confounding variables for which the researcher cannot control. The NEGD is similar to the one-group pre and post design but is a stronger design because of the addition of a control group with pre and post measures (Burns & Burns, 2008). The inclusion of a control group reduces internal validity threats due to confounding variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). NEGD is often used with intact groups (Burns & Burns, 2008), such as the Myanmar BOP VET trainees at the US-based social enterprise. Using the NEGD, two monthly wage and self-efficacy measurements were taken, one before the VET program began, and another three months after program completion (e.g., Cozby, 2014).

Population and Sample

To align with the study problem, purpose, and research question, the population for the study was comprised of all individuals in the Myanmar BOP, including Burmese and Karen refugees and migrants, living within the sampling frame, the Thailand-Myanmar border towns of Mae Sot, Thailand, and Myawaddy, Myanmar (Dannecker & Schaffar, 2016). The population fluctuates widely depending on the presence of humanitarian and migrant workers (Sharples, 2018). There are approximately 40,000 people in the Mae La refugee camp (Burma Link, 2016), where many of the control group members live. The population of Mae Sot is about 46,000 and increases to 118,000, including the nearby sub-districts (Sharples, 2018). The study population excluded Thai, Chinese, Hmong, or Indian BOP community members living in Myanmar, Thailand, or along the borders (e.g., Sharples, 2018).

The study sample was selected based on a purposive sample method with an equal sample size of VET trainees and non-VET trainees, all from the Myanmar BOP, which ensured an equally represented target population between VET trainees and non-VET trainees. Thus, the sample was appropriate, given the study problem, purpose, and research question. Archival data were collected regarding 98 people in the Myanmar BOP from 2012 to 2020. The archival data set, containing no personal identifiers, was provided securely by the director of the US-based social enterprise offering VET to the Myanmar BOP (e.g., Ramus et al., 2018). A three-month span was used to assess differences in wages and self-efficacy between VET and non-VET trainees in the Myanmar BOP. Though a three-month span is relatively short, the US-based social enterprise measured this time frame because of the transient nature of the Myanmar BOP, most of whom are refugees, to minimize attrition (e.g., Sharples, 2018).

Characteristics of the people in the sample of archival data included: (a) an age range from 16 to 50 years; (b) mostly, but not exclusively, female; (c) mostly Karen or Burmese ethnicity; and, (d) minimal, if any, education, typically no higher than 5th grade. Exclusion criteria for the people in the sample of archival data included: (a) children under age 16 and adults over age 50; and (b) non-Myanmar BOP. The reason for these exclusion criteria was because these people are beyond the purview of the US-based social enterprise's VET programs. The experiment group consisted of archived data regarding 49 VET trainees who met the following inclusion criteria: (a) Myanmar BOP; (b) US-based social enterprise VET applicant; and (c) US-based social enterprise VET trainee who completed one training course. The control group for the study consisted of archived data regarding 49 non-VET trainees who met the following criteria: (a) Myanmar BOP; (b) a current or potential US-based social enterprise VET applicant; and (c) non-VET trainee who did not complete a VET training course.

It is important to have a large enough sample size to ensure the validity and reliability of the study results. However, the sample size must also be small enough to enable data management for study completion (Hazra & Gogtay, 2016). A statistical power of .80 and a confidence interval of .95 were suggested for meaningful results (Trochim, Donnelly, & Arora, 2016). The results of a G*3 Power analysis indicate with two groups, a statistical power of .80 (power = 0.80) and a confidence interval of .95 (alpha = 0.05) required a sample size of 98 ($N = 98$) for MANOVA analysis (e.g., Faul et al., 2007). Effect size was also a consideration for computing the target sample size. The effect size was .25 ($f = .25$), which is between a small and a medium effect (Faul et al., 2007). A sample size larger than 98 would yield a larger effect size and a greater statistical power, but the current sample size of 98 was adequate for the MANOVA analysis, and participant attrition was not a concern because of the use of archival data. To ensure an equally represented target population, the sample included two groups, equally distributed between VET and non-VET trainees, with 49 in each group.

Instrumentation

Archival data was provided by the director of the US-based social enterprise after Northcentral University's (NCU's) Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval (e.g., Ramus et al., 2018). The reason for using archival data collected by the director instead of asking the VET participants about wages and self-efficacy was to reduce the outsider effect of a researcher who has not developed trust among BOP participants (e.g., Ngo et al., 2014). There were no personal identifiers in the data provided by the director of the US-based social enterprise because the director removed personal identifiers before sending the data set in an Excel file. Using SPSS software to analyze the archival data set, the measurement instrument was a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), commonly used to conduct testing with the pre

and post test design (Burns & Burns, 2008). MANOVA is a tool for testing differences of means for dependent variables when there is a nominal independent variable (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). MANOVA was the most effective tool for determining whether the independent variable, social enterprise VET participation, had a significant effect on the dependent variables, monthly wages, and self-efficacy (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008, Jungbok, 2016).

Operational Definitions of Variables

There were three variables in the quantitative study. There was one independent variable: social enterprise VET program. There were two dependent variables: monthly wages and self-efficacy.

Social Enterprise VET Program. The social enterprise VET program was the independent variable with a nominal dichotomous level of measurement. One (1) equated to the VET trainee completing a single training program. Zero (0) equated to the VET trainee not completing a single training program. The source of the data was archival data. Trainees select from one of four courses: (a) sewing (6 months); (b) café barista and baking (3 months); (c) cooking (3 months); and (d) bicycle repair (3 months). VET trainees typically take one of the three courses, then apply for a job with the new skill, either at the US-based social enterprise or another company, or start her or his own business. For this study, the social enterprise VET program consisted of trainee completion of one program (Ahmed, 2016). The data for control group members was zero as these people did not complete a VET program.

Monthly Wages. Monthly wages were a dependent variable with a ratio level of measurement. The monthly wage for the experiment group and the control group were the gross wage the VET trainee or non-VET trainee personally earned each month for all hours worked

(e.g., Ahmed, 2016), and were calculated in US dollars for analysis. The gross monthly wage began at \$0.00 and ended at the highest monthly wage earned by a VET trainee or non-VET trainee. Monthly wages for both the experiment group and control group were collected from historical, archived data with two decimal places, and the differences were compared.

Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy was a dependent variable with an interval level of measurement. The measurement scale for the experiment and control group was the composite score of responses to a four-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *not true at all* to *exactly true* (Sherer et al., 1982). The data source for the experiment group was historical, archival data from pre- and post- VET program participation, and the differences were compared. The data source for the control group was historical, archival data from arrival at the neighboring village, and three months after arrival at the neighboring village, and the differences were compared.

Study Procedures

The study was conducted by retrieving archival data from the director of the US-based social enterprise offering VET to the Myanmar BOP. The researcher did not conduct interviews or administer questionnaires with the US-based social enterprise VET or non-VET trainees. Instead, the US-based social enterprise director provided existing internal records, which included 98 VET trainee and non-VET trainee wage and self-efficacy data collected as part of the US-based social enterprise's routine VET trainee application and post-VET program process from 2012 to 2020. The reason for using the US-based social enterprise's archival data was to mitigate the outsider effect of a researcher who had not developed trust among VET trainees (e.g., Ngo et al., 2014).

The dependent variables for this study were wages and self-efficacy. The archival data for the experiment group consisted of data from: (a) VET application interview questionnaires with pre-VET monthly wages and self-efficacy data per trainee; and (b) three-month post-VET follow-up assessments with the VET trainee wages and self-efficacy in his or her current employment. The archival data from the control group consisted of data from: (a) non-VET interview questionnaires with monthly wages and self-efficacy data per non-VET trainee; and (b) three-month non-VET follow-up assessments with the non-VET participant monthly wages and self-efficacy data per non-VET trainee.

There was one independent variable for this study, the social enterprise VET program, and the social enterprise VET program had a nominal dichotomous level of measurement (e.g., VET trainee completing a single training program = 1; VET trainee not completing a single training program = 0). The social enterprise VET program occurred at the US-based social enterprise training center during business hours, where both the café and sewing center were located. The training programs were conducted by both the director of the US-based social enterprise and the VET graduates who became managers. The US-based social enterprise VET graduates who became trainers are similar to the capitalist VET by the social enterprise Catalyst, where the VET trainers were Kenyans who graduated from the Catalyst sales agent training program (Dolan & Rajak, 2018).

The US-based social enterprise director and managers collected the VET and non-VET wage and self-efficacy data voluntarily both at the US-based social enterprise training center during business hours and in the Mae La refugee camp where many non-VET trainees live and may not be able to leave the camp (e.g., Sharples, 2018). The US-based social enterprise director provided archived data for the first dependent variable, monthly wages, in Thai baht (฿)

since this was the currency in which VET trainees and some non-VET trainees were paid. The researcher converted to US dollars for data analysis. The range of raw data was from ฿ 0, for participants who are currently unemployed, to the highest daily wage in baht that VET trainees or non-VET trainees report. For data analysis, the gross monthly wage began at \$0.00 and ended at the highest monthly wage earned by the VET trainee or non-VET trainee.

The US-based social enterprise director provided archived data for the second dependent variable, VET trainee self-efficacy, from VET trainees' responses to the validated instrument, the Self-Efficacy Scale, a four-point Likert scale the US-based social enterprise staff routinely requests VET trainees to complete (e.g., Sherer et al., 1982). The self-efficacy data was the interval level of measurement (e.g., *not true at all* = 1; *exactly true* = 4). The US-based social enterprise director entered the responses into a web-based self-efficacy calculator to compute the composite score of each VET trainees' pre- and post-VET self-efficacy score and each non-VET trainees' pre- and post- no VET score. The pre- and post-VET or no-VET composite scores were in the data set the researcher used for MANOVA inferential statistical testing using SPSS software. In addition to the MANOVA, descriptive statistics are presented including: means; standard deviations; the range of raw scores; estimates of effect size; observed power; and homogeneity (Levine's test) (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008).

The archival data is privately owned by the US-based social enterprise. The director of US-based social enterprise gave the researcher permission to access the data. The director removed personal identifiers from the data set before emailing the encrypted Excel file securely to the researcher. The researcher securely downloaded the Excel file on the researcher's password-protected computer, which is protected with a VPN, anti-virus software, and a firewall.

Data Collection and Analysis

After NCU's IRB approval, the researcher collected the archival data set in Excel via a secure encrypted email file from the social enterprise director. The general director, as the provider information, was consistent with other quantitative studies about social enterprise (e.g., Ramus et al., 2018). Accuracy of the archival data was ensured by verifying each entry in the data set from Excel into SPSS, then conducting an overview for outlying data points.

The results of a G*3 Power analysis indicated with two groups, a statistical power of .80 (power = 0.80) and a confidence interval of .95 (alpha = 0.05) required a sample size of 98 ($N = 98$) for MANOVA analysis (e.g., Faul et al., 2007). Effect size was also a consideration for computing the target sample size. The effect size was 0.25 ($f = 0.25$), which is between a small and a medium effect (Faul et al., 2007). A sample size larger than 98 would yield a larger effect size and a greater statistical power, but the current sample size of 98 is adequate for the MANOVA analysis, and participant attrition was not a concern because of the use of archival data. To ensure an equally represented target population, the purposive, non-random sample included two groups, equally distributed between VET and non-VET trainees, with 49 in each group.

A MANOVA test was conducted using SPSS software to compare mean monthly wage and self-efficacy differences between people who completed and who did not complete a social enterprise VET program in the Myanmar BOP community. MANOVA is a tool for inferential testing of the differences of means for dependent variables when there is a nominal independent variable (Hair et al., 2010; Jungbok, 2016). One-way MANOVA was selected because, in the study, there is one nominal independent variable and two dependent variables, one with interval level of measurement and one with ratio level of measurement (Burns & Burns, 2008).

MANOVA is the most effective tool for hypothesis testing to determine whether the nominal independent variable, social enterprise VET participation, has a significant effect on the interval- and ratio- level of measurement dependent variables, monthly wages, and self-efficacy, respectively (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008; Jungbok, 2016). MANOVA is more appropriate than other tests such as ANCOVA (analysis of variance), MANCOVA (multivariate analysis of covariance), or logistical regression, which require variables with different levels of measurement or much larger sample sizes for effect and significance. Upon conclusion of data analysis, the researcher kept the data on the researcher's password-protected computer with a VPN, anti-virus software, and a firewall, beyond the requirement of NCU's Institutional Review Board.

Assumptions

Assumptions of the study include the reliability of archival data, the accuracy of the data transfer, and MANOVA testing parameters. Because the data are archival and provided by the social enterprise, there is an assumption that the social enterprise collects reliable data on VET trainee and non-VET trainee wages and self-efficacy. The goal of the social enterprise is to serve the needs of Myanmar BOP to help them lift themselves out of poverty. As a result, the social enterprise has an incentive to capture reliable and unbiased data, so the director knows where to focus the efforts of the social enterprise resources, whether that includes offering VET or another program or service. As long as archival data pertains to specific outcome variables and is tacitly collected, the reliability of archival data is significantly stronger than other data collection measures (Das, Jain, & Mishra, 2019). Further, the archival data are unbiased by the VET or non-VET trainees' memories, comprehension, or perception about the socially acceptable response (Das et al., 2019).

Regarding the accuracy of the data, there is an additional assumption that the researcher accurately transferred the archival data set from Excel into SPSS. As for MANOVA testing parameters, there are assumptions at both the ANOVA- and MANOVA- level. Preliminary assumptions include the kind and quantity of variables and independent observations. ANOVA testing included the following assumptions: (a) normality; (b) the absence of univariate outliers; and (c) equality of variance (Jungbok, 2016). In addition to ANOVA-level assumptions, MANOVA assumptions included: (a) linearity; (b) the absence of multivariate outliers; (c) the equality of covariance matrices; and (d) the absence of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010; Jungbok, 2016). Assuming the MANOVA testing parameters were met, the archival data was reliable and unbiased, and the data was accurately transferred, there was minimal risk of subject dishonesty in this study.

Limitations

Due to the nature of the study utilizing archival data, some of the typical limitations of quantitative quasi-experimental studies were avoided, such as transfer bias and selection bias (e.g., Pannucci & Wilkins, 2010). However, there were limitations with the study including: (a) a small sample size; (b) mono-operation bias; (c) the potential for confounding variables; and (d) a lack of generalizability.

Sample size. The relatively small sample size limited the inferential statistical testing options to have significance and effect. In a qualitative case study of the social enterprise pathways to sector selection, the small size of the sample, four organizations, was a limitation (Addae, 2018). Like this study, the purpose of the Addae (2018) was not to make sweeping generalizations about social enterprises; but instead, the research reflected the realities and challenges of social enterprises.

Mono-operation bias. Mono-operation bias, a threat to construct validity (e.g., Trochim et al., 2016), was addressed by including trainee wages in multiple types of training programs such as sewing, and café barista and baking, sewing, and bicycle repair. This is so that if trainee wages increase after training, it was more likely that increased wages were because of training, in general, and not because of skill-specific training. Attempting to overcome mono-operation bias could lead to another limitation, the potential for confounding variables.

Confounding variables. Occupation, in addition to age and gender, was a potentially confounding variable, which could impede the VET trainees' ability to work and options for employment. For example, a 35-year old female seamstress with care-giving responsibilities for children and aging parents may not be able to work as many hours as a 22-year old male doing bicycle repair who does not have family care-giving responsibilities.

Generalizability. The results of this study may not be generalizable across non-Myanmar BOP members or Myanmar BOP in different ethnic groups. For example, researchers who conducted studies in BOP communities suggested results were not generalizable due to the specific context (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Tukundane, 2015). However, researchers suggested the findings served as a foundational for VET programs in other contexts (Tukundane, 2015).

Delimitations

Delimitations in the study included aspects of the study population, the study sample, and the social enterprise outcome variables. Regarding the population delimitation, though there are Thai, Chinese, Hmong, and Indian BOP community members living in Myanmar, Thailand, and along the borders (e.g., Sharples, 2018), the study delimited these people in the population in order to focus on the Myanmar BOP. This is because the US-based social enterprise of this study focuses on serving the needs of the Myanmar BOP because they are the most marginalized

ethnic group in the area. Of the Myanmar BOP population, the study delimited the sample to children under age 16 and adults over 50, because the Myanmar BOP in these age ranges are beyond the purview of the US-based social enterprise's VET training program. In the literature and practice, there are other outcome variables in social enterprise VET besides wages and self-efficacy. Examples of other outcome variables of social enterprise VET include VET trainees learning English and obtaining legal identification, which afford trainees legal border movement, and the chance to qualify for a driver's license and health insurance. However, this study delimited these and other outcome variables in favor of wages and self-efficacy, which are more easily quantifiable and make the study more manageable (e.g., Hazra & Gogtay, 2016).

These delimitations were in line with the existing literature on capitalist social enterprises serving marginalized people in which researchers focused on narrow geographic or ethnic populations, and only a few social enterprise outcome variables (e.g., Atiq et al., 2019, Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). By these delimitations, narrowing the focus to the Myanmar BOP, this researcher answered the calls of other researchers for more directed quantitative research on social enterprises in various global contexts (e.g., Crucke & Decramer, 2016; Džunić et al., 2018; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a, 2015b, 2016; Littlewood & Holt, 2018; Ramus et al., 2018; Steiner & Teasdale, 2019). Further, stakeholder theorists have called for more research to understand the implications of social enterprises for stakeholders (e.g., Sarman et al., 2015; Sulkowski et al., 2019). By delimiting the outcome variables to wages and self-efficacy, this study extended the stakeholder theory by examining how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs by offering VET to the Myanmar BOP to contribute to sustainable economic development.

Ethical Assurances

The researcher ensured the study complies with all the requirements of NCU's IRB regarding respect for persons, beneficence, and justice. Researchers who work with human participants should be cognizant of protecting people from emotional or physical harm during the research process (Sterling & Gass, 2017). According to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, ethical principles associated with research pertaining to human subjects, defined by the Belmont Report, include respect for persons, beneficence, and justice (HHS, 2016). Cozby (2014) defines respect for persons, beneficence, and justice in the social research context. Respect for persons means participants received all applicable information about the study and enter the study voluntarily. Beneficence means there was minimal risk to participants. Justice means participants equally shared risks and benefits of research (Cozby, 2014).

Because archival data was used in the study, there was no researcher interaction with human participants. However, before seeking permission from the director of the US-based social enterprise to access the US-based social enterprise's archival data, the researcher confirmed the conditions under which the US-based social enterprise staff originally obtained the data. The US-based social enterprise staff respected the VET and non-VET trainees by informing them for the reason of asking wage and self-efficacy information, along with age, gender, occupation, and the US-based social enterprise's other standard interview questions are written in Burmese at a 5th-grade level, more simple than the recommended 6th-grade level (e.g., Cozby, 2014).

Beneficence was adhered to because there is no risk to VET and non-VET trainees sharing their information with the US-based social enterprise staff. Because trusted relationships take a long time to develop, especially among vulnerable populations like the Myanmar BOP,

trust cannot be transferred from one person to another person without the significant risk that the newcomer will destroy the relationship (Ngo et al., 2014). The VET and non-VET trainees are familiar with the US-based social enterprise staff from the staff members' activities in the refugee camps and in the town of Mae Sot, Thailand, and Myawaddy, Myanmar (e.g., Dannecker & Schaffar, 2016; Sharples, 2018). The US-based social enterprise staff has established mutual trust, know the VET and non-VET trainees' backgrounds, personalities, and local context, including evident and obscure risks.

Regarding justice, in social research, there is a concern that some groups, such as ethnic minorities or impoverished people, may be singled out because of easy availability, compromised socioeconomic position, or manipulability rather than a direct relation to the study (HHS, 2016). Addressing the justice element is particularly important in the study of Myanmar BOP VET program participants because of the large number of ethnic minority groups in Myanmar (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017). Further, the study relates to the people in the bottom-of-the-pyramid community, which are, by definition, economically disadvantaged (e.g., Mason & Chakrabarti, 2016). The US-based social enterprise staff is keenly aware of the issue of justice, and through their documented application and training process, each VET applicant has an equal chance to be selected to the VET program to be trained and hired.

Using the archival data provided by the US-based social enterprise, the researcher conducted the study ethically and responsibly. As the research was archival, there was minimal risk to participants. The researcher received approval from the NCU IRB to conduct the study and approval from the director of the US-based social enterprise to utilize the data before beginning data collection. The NCU IRB provided a Not for Human Subjects Research approval for this study. The data was sent to the researcher with no personal identifiers via secure

encrypted email file transfer from the social enterprise director. Upon conclusion of data analysis, the researcher kept the data on the researcher's password-protected computer with a VPN, anti-virus software, and a firewall, beyond the requirements of NCU's Institutional Review Board.

Summary

BOP markets experience challenges with sustainable economic development (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). The UN and the OECD list social enterprises as part of the solution to sustainable economic development (Rahdari et al., 2018). This study addressed the problem of how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The purpose of the study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP, between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program, to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs. The study design was quantitative quasi-experimental, using a static group comparison with a non-equivalent group design. The study compared two groups, VET trainees and non-VET trainees, using a between-subjects approach (Burns & Burns, 2008). The study sample of 98 people was selected based on a purposive sample method with an equal sample size of VET trainees and non-VET trainees, all from the Myanmar BOP population. The study utilized archival data, which was provided by the director of the US-based social enterprise offering VET for the Myanmar BOP. Data analysis consisted of a one-way MANOVA test, in addition to descriptive statistics testing. This study aimed to use the quantitative quasi-experimental study to validate and extend stakeholder theory, focusing on the differing effects of two outcome variables of social enterprise VET programs- (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2)

self-efficacy difference, a social factor – between VET trainees and non-VET trainees.

Examining wage and self-efficacy differences between these two groups of people led to determining whether participation in the social enterprise VET program contributes to an increase in wages and self-efficacy, which lead to improved financial livelihoods for VET graduates (e.g., Dane, 2011; Tukundane et al., 2015).

Chapter 4: Findings

BOP markets experience challenges with sustainable economic development (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). One of the reasons is the lack of vocational and educational training, which is necessary for sustainable economic development (Bendul et al., 2016; Bocken et al., 2016). The UN and the OECD leaders list social enterprises as part of the solution to sustainable economic development (OECD, n.d.; Rahdari et al., 2018; UN, 2018). Some social enterprises offer vocational educational training (VET) programs for the BOP communities in which they operate (Napathorn, 2018; Dolan & Rajak, 2018).

The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs. In this study, there was one independent variable, social enterprise VET program (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019). The US-based social enterprise of the study offered four types of VET programs: (a) sewing; (b) café barista and baking; (c) cooking, and (d) bicycle repair. The two dependent variables were: (a) the monthly wages personally earned by each participant (e.g., Ahmed, 2016); and (b) self-efficacy, the personal feelings an individual has about the ability to overcome adversity to accomplish a task (e.g., Sherer et al., 1982; Chui et al., 2019). Archival data from VET trainees from all three VET programs were included in the study.

A static group comparison with a non-equivalent group design was used to examine two outcome variables of social enterprise VET, wages and self-efficacy, between two groups in the Myanmar BOP, VET trainees and non-VET trainees. The goal was to quantify and compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy of VET trainees three months after the completion of a

social enterprise VET program against a control group of Myanmar BOP without social enterprise VET. The study was conducted by retrieving archival data from the director of the US-based social enterprise offering VET to the Myanmar BOP regarding VET trainee and non-VET trainee wage and self-efficacy data. A one-way multivariate of variance (MANOVA) test was conducted using SPSS software to compare mean monthly wage and self-efficacy differences between people who completed and who did not complete a social enterprise VET program in the Myanmar BOP community.

Freeman (1984) suggested in the seminal research on stakeholder theory that for organizations to be successful, it is necessary to balance the needs of multiple stakeholders. Stakeholder theorists suggested stakeholder expectations vary among donors and beneficiaries (Sulkowski et al., 2019), and the social enterprise leaders must balance these different expectations along with the social enterprise's needs for viability (Bocken et al., 2016). This study aimed to validate and extend stakeholder theory focusing on the differing effects of two outcome variables of social enterprise VET programs- (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2) self-efficacy difference, a social factor – between VET trainees and non-VET trainees. Quantifying wage and self-efficacy differences between these two groups of people led to determine whether participation in the social enterprise VET program contributed to an increase in wages and self-efficacy, which led to improved financial livelihoods for VET graduates (e.g., Dane, 2011; Tukundane et al., 2015).

The research question examined the difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between people in the Myanmar BOP who completed a social enterprise VET program and Myanmar BOP who did not complete a VET program. In MANOVA testing, two dependent variables are combined into one new dependent variable (Laerd, 2015). In this regard, although

this study began with “wages” and “self-efficacy,” it tested for a combined new dependent variable “wages and self-efficacy” for the MANOVA. However, part of the MANOVA follow-up is to interpret univariate tests on each original dependent variable, wage difference and self-efficacy difference (Laerd, 2015). Thus, it was possible to discern if there was a difference of means, whether more of the difference was from one dependent variable or the other.

This chapter contains a review of the study results organized around the research question and hypotheses. First, the following are discussed: (a) validity and reliability of the data; and (b) the assumptions for MANOVA and how the assumptions were met. Second, the following are presented: (a) descriptive statistical analysis; and (b) demographic information of the study sample. Third, the results of the one-way MANOVA centered around the research question and hypotheses are provided. An evaluation of the findings of research question and hypotheses relative to the existing literature and theory are included. The chapter concludes with a summary of the study findings.

Validity and Reliability of the Data

The validity and reliability of a research study depend on unbiased data collection and accurate analysis (Trochim et al., 2016). In quantitative research, reliability; plus, three types of validity (external, internal, and construct validity); are the primary threats to the accuracy of the data. In this study, steps were taken to minimize threats to validity and reliability.

External validity. External validity refers to how the results of a study can be generalized to apply to additional people, places, times, or contexts outside the study (Cozby, 2014). External validity also referred to as generalizability, is present when the results from a sample of participants represent the same general outcomes as the population from which the sample was drawn (Trochim et al., 2016). The results of this study may not be generalizable

across non-Myanmar BOP members or Myanmar BOP in different ethnic groups. For example, researchers who conducted studies in BOP communities suggested results were not generalizable due to the specific context (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Tukundane, 2015). However, researchers suggested the findings served as a foundation for VET programs in other contexts (Tukundane, 2015).

Because it is not possible to generalize with certainty, researchers focus on the sampling methodology to increase the degree of external validity (Trochim et al., 2016). To minimize threats to external validity, the study used a purposive sampling method to reach the participants. Purposive sampling means choosing social enterprise VET participants who were available and willing to participate in the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In addition to employing a purposive sampling method, the study utilized archival data, which minimized threats to external validity that could result from intrinsic stressors, interruptions, and time constraints when there is participant-researcher interaction (Das et al., 2018).

Internal validity. Whereas external validity is about relationships outside the study, internal validity is about cause-and-effect relationships specific to the study (Cozby, 2014). Internal validity means there are no other causes for the outcome other than the experiment (the independent variable) (Trochim et al., 2016). Internal validity is higher when: (a) the cause comes before the effect; (b) the experiment group is affected while the control group is not affected; and (c) alternative explanations for the cause of the effect are eliminated (Cozby, 2014).

Internal validity is enhanced by employing specific research designs to mitigate internal validity challenges including: (a) single-group threats; (b) multiple-group threats; and (c) social threats (Trochim et al., 2016). Single-group threats were eliminated by adding a control group. The multiple-group threat that the groups were not comparable before the study was minimized

by using archival data, which eliminates a substantial number of potential bias factors (Das et al., 2018). Social threats, which occur because of human interaction between participants (Trochim et al., 2016), were also minimized by the use of archival data (Das et al., 2018).

Construct validity. In contrast to internal validity, which is more about ensuring the treatment is the real cause of change, construct validity is ensuring the variable the researcher has in mind is what is actually measured (Trochim et al., 2016). Construct validity is about operationalizing variables in a way that the researcher measures the intended test of the study (Cozby, 2014). Threats to construct validity occur when the truth of conclusions is compromised because the operationalization does not accurately reflect the constructs (Trochim et al., 2016).

Potential construct validity threats include: (a) an inadequate pre-operationalization explication of constructs; (b) mono-operation bias; (c) interaction of different treatments; and (d) social threats (Trochim et al., 2016). Inadequate pre-operational explication of constructs occurs when the researcher does not think through the elements clearly enough before beginning the study (Trochim et al., 2016). To minimize this threat, validated measurements in the literature were used. To measure wages, currency was used as the measurement instrument, as in Ahmed (2016) and discussed in Cooney (2017). To measure self-efficacy, Sherer et al.'s (1982) validated instrument, the Self-Efficacy Scale, was used. Using an unaltered off-the-shelf instrument for which validity and reliability are proven is optimum (Coughlin, Cronin, & Ryan, 2007).

Mono-operation bias, another threat to construct validity, occurs when the researcher only puts one version of a program, independent variable, cause, or treatment in the study (Trochim et al., 2016). Mono-operation bias was addressed by including trainee wages and self-efficacy in multiple types of training programs such as sewing, and café barista and baking, and

business management. Multiple types of training programs were included so that if trainee wages and self-efficacy increased after training, it was more likely that increased wages and self-efficacy were because of training, in general, and not because of skill-specific training. Attempting to minimize mono-operation bias led to another limitation, the potential for confounding variables. Occupation, in addition to age and gender, was a potentially confounding variable, which could impede the VET trainees' ability to work and options for employment. To test for confounding variables, such as occupation, an ANCOVA (analysis of covariance) was required instead of MANOVA. However, due to the relatively small sample size available for the study, ANCOVA was not feasible because of the subsequent small effect size.

Interaction of different treatments occurs when the researcher does not account for the possibility of another treatment, besides the independent variable, as the cause of a change (Trochim et al., 2016). To minimize this construct validity threat, a control group of non-VET trainees was included so that the effects of the experiment group, VET trainees, were separated from the effects on those with no VET program. Social threats to construct validity occur because of social tendencies of humans. For example, participants may alter behavior because of the desire to conform to the study or have anxiety about the idea of being tested, or the researcher may be biased about the outcome of a treatment (Trochim et al., 2016). Archival data was used to minimize the social threat to construct validity.

Reliability. The reliability of the data was enhanced by the use of archival data, ensuring the accuracy of the data, and minding the assumptions of MANOVA testing. Because the data are archival and provided by the social enterprise, there was an assumption that the social enterprise collects reliable data on VET trainee and non-VET trainee wages and self-efficacy. VET trainee and non-VET trainee wage and self-efficacy data collected as part of the US-based

social enterprise's routine VET trainee application and post-VET program process from 2012 to 2020. The goal of the social enterprise is to serve the needs of Myanmar BOP to help them lift themselves out of poverty. As a result, the social enterprise has an incentive to capture reliable and unbiased data, so the director knows where to focus the efforts of the social enterprise resources, whether that includes offering VET or another program or service. The archival data are unbiased by the VET or non-VET trainees' memories, comprehension, or perception about the socially acceptable response (Das et al., 2019). As long as archival data pertains to specific outcome variables and is tacitly collected, the reliability of archival data is significantly stronger than other data collection measures (Das et al., 2019).

Regarding the accuracy of the data, the researcher accurately transferred the archival data set from Excel into SPSS. The Excel file containing the archival data was dragged and dropped from Excel into SPSS so that there was no manual data entry by the researcher. Further, there were no missing values according to the SPSS output. Because the data set with a sample size of 98 participants ($N = 98$) included cumulative data such including dollars and composite scores of Likert scale questions and did not involve multiple Likert scale questions or multiple raters, it was not necessary to assessed reliability with Cronbach's Alpha (α).

Assumptions of MANOVA testing. MANOVA is a tool for inferential testing of the differences of means for dependent variables when there is a nominal independent variable (Hair et al., 2010). One-way MANOVA was selected because, in the study, there was one nominal independent variable and two dependent variables, one with interval level of measurement and one with ratio level of measurement (Burns & Burns, 2008; Hair et al., 2010). MANOVA was the most effective tool for hypothesis testing to determine whether the nominal independent variable, social enterprise VET participation, had a significant effect on the interval- and ratio-

level of measurement dependent variables, monthly wages, and self-efficacy, respectively (e.g., Burns & Burns, 2008; Jungbok, 2016).

Conducting the MANOVA procedure required addressing three levels of assumptions with ten assumptions in total. The first level of assumptions in the study included: (a) at least two dependent variables with a continuous (either ratio or interval) level of measurement; (b) one independent variable with at least two independent, categorical groups; and (c) independence of observations. The second level of testing, ANOVA-level testing, included the following assumptions: (a) the absence of univariate outliers; (b) normality; and (c) equality of variance (Jungbok, 2016). Third, MANOVA-level assumptions included: (a) linearity; (b) the absence of multivariate outliers; (c) the equality of covariance matrices; and (d) the absence of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010; Jungbok, 2016). Following is an assessment of how the findings of these ten tests addressed the assumptions of MANOVA testing. The test results are presented below in a different order than listed above because the order in which the tests were conducted was different than how the tests were listed by levels for organization and distinction.

The first three assumptions of MANOVA were satisfied. There was one nominal independent variable (social enterprise VET program) with two independent groups (VET trainees and non-VET trainees). For this reason, the independent variable of social enterprise VET program completion is the same variable as VET trainees. There were two dependent variables with continuous levels of measurement (wages and self-efficacy). There was independence of observation because each person was only in one group.

After meeting the first three assumptions, the remaining seven assumptions were tested. Of the remaining seven assumptions, three were satisfied with initial testing: (a) linearity; (b) the absence of multivariate outliers; and (c) the absence of multicollinearity. There was linearity, as

assessed by scatterplot matrix; no multivariate outliers, as assessed by Mahalanobis distance; and no multicollinearity, as assessed by Pearson's correlation ($r = .28, p = .006$).

Four of the assumptions of MANOVA were not met with the initial tests, including: (a) the absence of univariate outliers; (b) normality; (c) equality of variance; and (d) equality of covariance matrices. Despite violating these assumptions, the researcher made the decision to proceed with the MANOVA. The researcher discusses why this was a reasonable decision below.

Absence of univariate outliers. A univariate outlier is a value for one variable that is extremely different than the other values of that variable. The presence of univariate outliers may skew the results of the statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2010). To detect whether there were univariate outliers for either of the dependent variables, wages or self-efficacy, boxplots were assessed for values greater than 1.5 box lengths from the edge of the box. Because the values of the dependent variables were very different, the decision was made to conduct the procedure as “factor levels together” so that the output looked less cluttered.

There were no univariate outliers for wages for VET trainees. However, there were univariate outliers for wages for non-VET trainees and self-efficacy for both VET trainees and non-VET trainees (see Figures 5 and 6). The decision was made to continue testing for the remaining MANOVA assumptions for both statistical and practical reasons. From a statistical standpoint, the alternatives of dealing with univariate outliers were to: (a) transform the data and remove the univariate outliers; or (b) proceed with the univariate outliers in the data set (Laerd, 2015). From a practical standpoint, though the people in the VET trainee and non-VET trainee groups were similar demographically, the fact that they were part of a marginalized people group meant each has experienced unique circumstances for personal survival and family protection

(Sharples, 2018). Because of these unique circumstances, it was important to capture each unit in the data set, which is why the outliers were included.

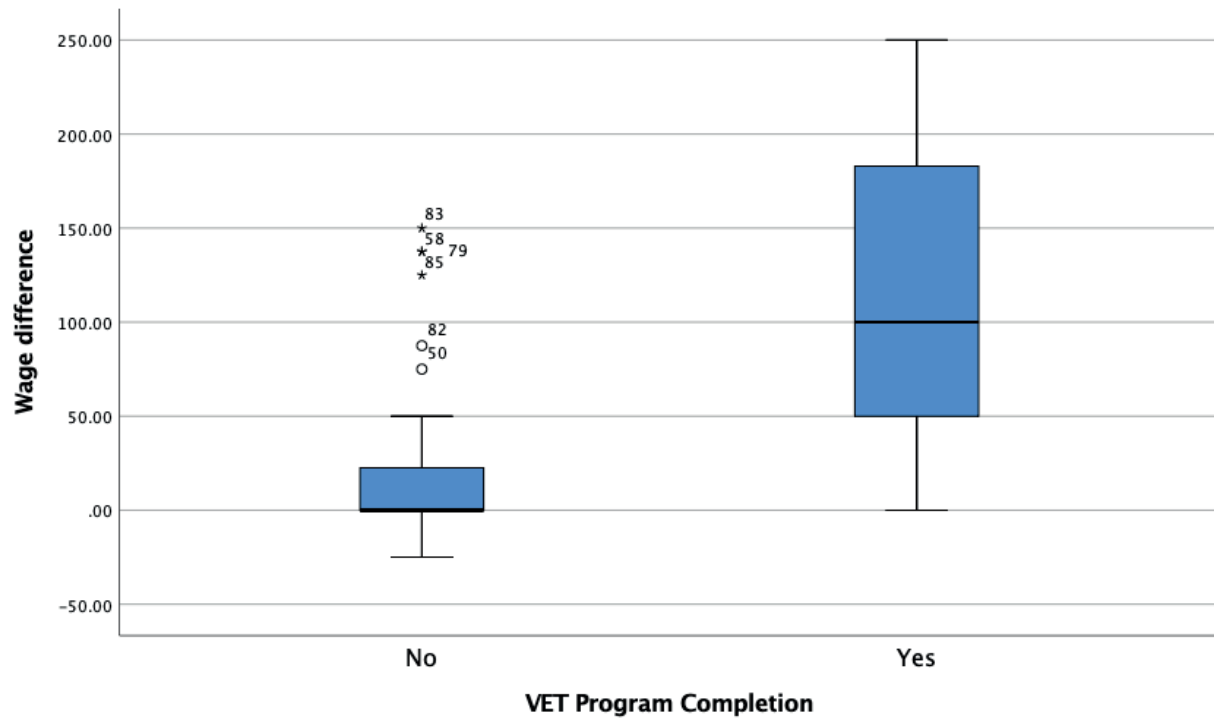


Figure 5. Boxplot of wages.

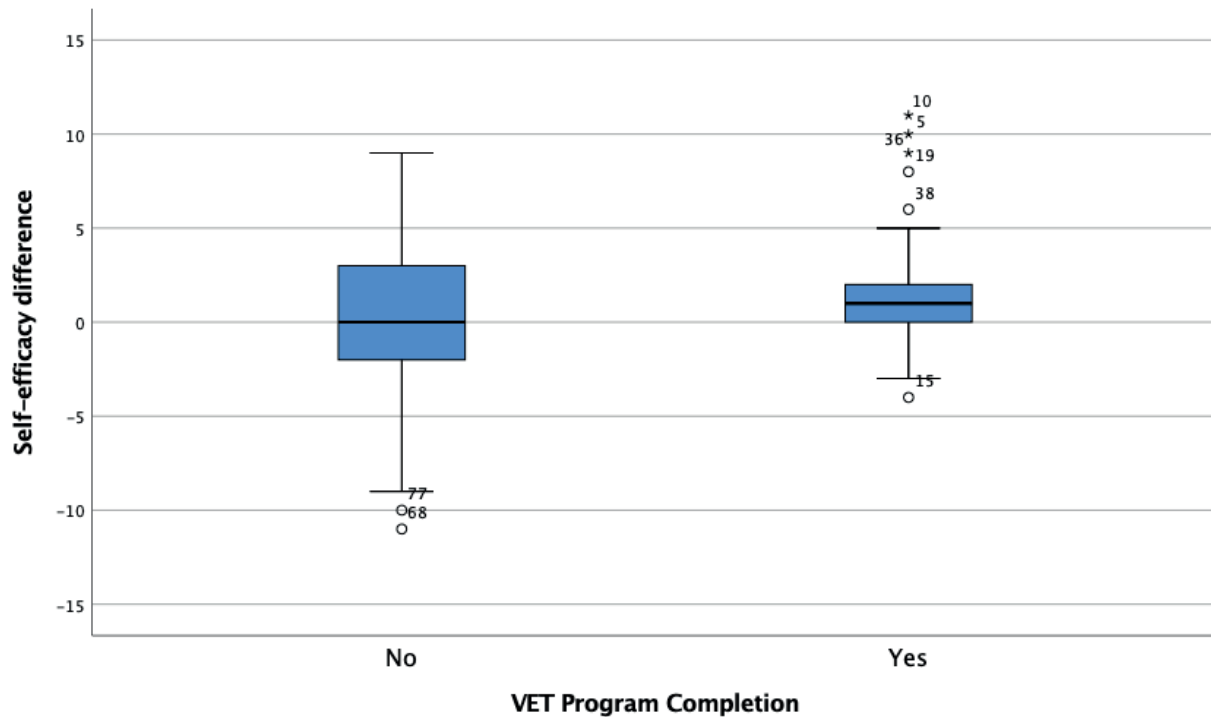


Figure 6. Boxplot of self-efficacy.

Normality. Normality is the degree to which all possible values for the variables and the probability of those values occurring fall along the X- or Y-axis, respectively, and create a bell-shaped curve. The bell-shaped curve is indicative of normal distribution (Hair et al., 2010). With Shapiro Wilk's testing for a normal distribution, wage difference was not normally distributed for VET trainees ($p < .001$) or non-VET trainees ($p < .001$). Self-efficacy was normally distributed for non-VET trainees ($p = .074$), but not for VET trainees ($p < .001$). Despite the deviations from normality, the decision to conduct the one-way MANOVA was made because the MANOVA test is fairly resilient to deviations from normality (Laerd, 2015).

Equality of variance. To account for factors which may have influenced variances between groups, a Levene's Test of Equality of Variance (homogeneity) was conducted to determine whether both VET and non-VET trainees had baseline similarity (wages: $F = 35.84$, p

= .000); self-efficacy: $F = 4.64, p = .034$). As the probability, or significance of the F value was less than or equal to 0.05, there was significant variance in the two groups. Thus, the assumption of equality of variance (homogeneity) was not satisfied for MANOVA. Though the equality of variance assumption of MANOVA was not satisfied, Laerd (2015) suggested it was possible to continue and accept a lower level of significance for the MANOVA result. This violation was accommodated for by interpreting the MANOVA with a Bonferroni adjusted level of significance ($p < .025$).

Linearity. Testing for linearity involves determining whether a constant unit change in the independent variable leads to a constant unit change in the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010). To determine if there was a linear relationship between each pair of dependent variables for each group of the independent variable, a scatterplot matrix was plotted for the independent variable, social enterprise VET program. There was a linear relationship between wages and self-efficacy for VET program completion and no VET program completion, as assessed by scatterplot. The assumption of linearity was satisfied for MANOVA (see Figure 7 and 8).

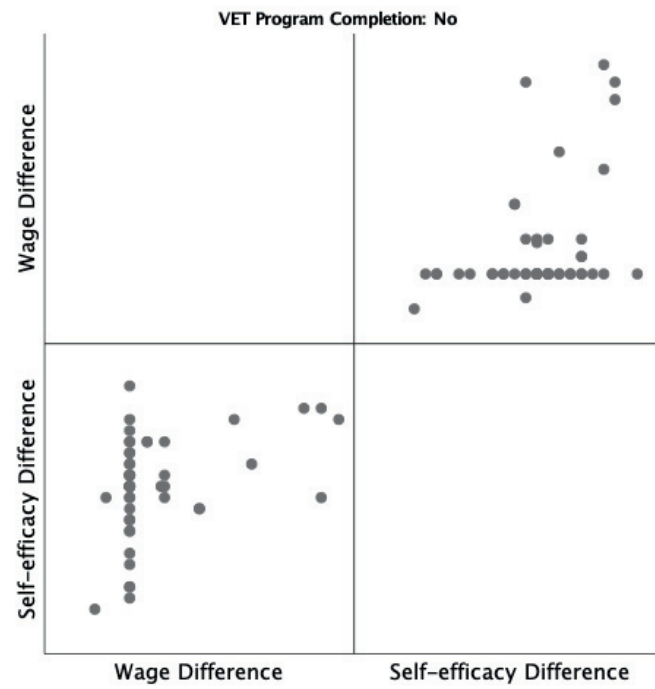


Figure 7. Scatterplot matrix for no VET program completion.

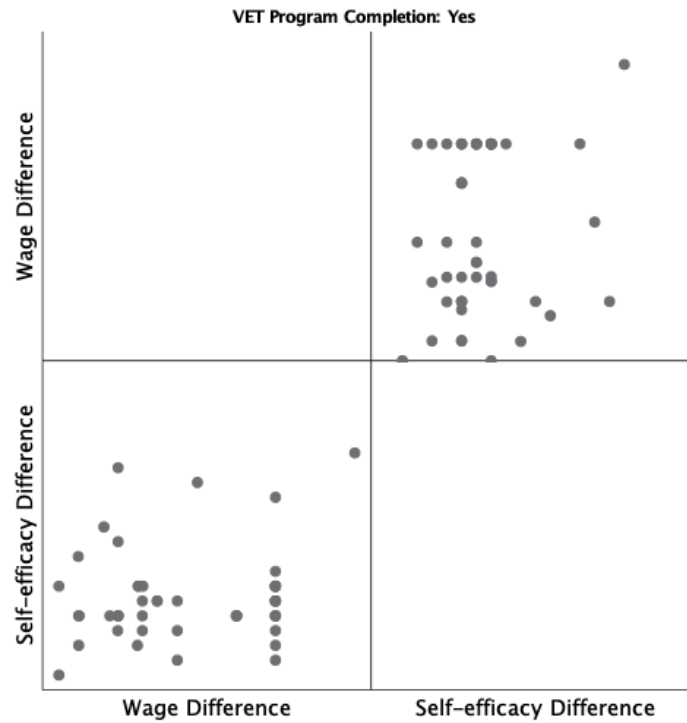


Figure 8. Scatterplot matrix for VET program completion.

Absence of multivariate outliers. Multivariate outliers occur when a value for two or more variables is extremely different than the other values of those variables. As with univariate outliers, the presence of multivariate outliers may skew the results of the statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2010). To detect whether there were multivariate outliers for both dependent variables, wages and self-efficacy, Mahalanobis distance D^2 was calculated. In this study, the highest D^2 measure was 12.10, which was below the critical value of 13.82, indicative of the absence of multivariate outliers, and, thus, met the assumption for MANOVA.

Equality of covariance matrices. Equality of covariance matrices indicate the likelihood of differences between the experiment and the control group (Hair et al., 2010). There was not equality of covariance matrices, as assessed by Box's test of equality of covariance matrices ($p = .000$). The VET trainees and non-VET trainee groups were significantly different. However,

because there were equal sample sizes in each group, the violation equality of covariance matrices was feasible to overcome by proceeding with the analysis and using Pillai's Trace V instead of Wilks' Lambda in the multivariate test (Laerd, 2015).

Absence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity occurs when a change in one variable can be explained by another variable in the study (Hair et al., 2010). To confirm the absence of multicollinearity between the two dependent variables, wages and self-efficacy, Pearson's correlation was tested ($r = .28, p = .006$). (See Table 1).

Table 1

Correlations

		Wage difference	Self-efficacy difference
Wage difference	Pearson Correlation	1	.28*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006
Self-efficacy difference	Pearson Correlation	.28*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	

Note. $N = 98$. ** $p < .01$.

Results

The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs. Based on the results of a G*3 power analysis, the purposive sample contained wages data and self-efficacy data for 98 participants (e.g., Faul et al., 2007), ensuring an equally represented target population between VET trainees and non-VET trainees, with 49 people in each group, all from the Myanmar BOP. Archival data was

provided by the director of the US-based social enterprise and was analyzed through MANOVA using SPSS software.

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was interpreted to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. Two outcome variables of social enterprise VET were assessed: monthly wages and self-efficacy. The archival data of Myanmar BOP consisted of two groups: VET trainees ($n = 49$) and non-VET trainees ($n = 49$). An overall description of the results was that VET trainees experienced a greater increase in wages ($M = \$112.39$, $SD = 68.32$) and self-efficacy ($M = 1.31$, $SD = 3.12$), as compared to non-VET trainees ($M = \$18.73$, $SD = 41.14$ and $M = .14$, $SD = 4.48$, respectively). Descriptive statistics are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

		VET ($n = 49$)	Non-VET ($n = 49$)	Total ($N = 98$)
Wage difference	<i>M</i>	\$112.39	\$18.73	\$65.56
	(<i>SD</i>)	(68.32)	(41.14)	(73.23)
Self-efficacy difference	<i>M</i>	1.31	.14	.72
	(<i>SD</i>)	(3.12)	(4.48)	(3.88)

Though not used for analysis, demographic information was collected for illustrative purposes and potential future research: (1) age (if known, or approximate); (2) gender (as personally identified); and (3) specific VET training program(s) completed (for VET trainees). Demographic information is illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3

Demographic Information

		VET (<i>n</i> = 49)	VET %	Non-VET (<i>n</i> = 49)	Non-VET %	Total (<i>N</i> = 98)	Total %
Age	<i>M</i>	23		31		27	
Gender	Male	23	47%	17	35%	40	41%
	Female	26	53%	32	65%	58	59%
Training Program	None	0	0%	49	100%	49	50%
	Café	8	16%	0	0%	8	8%
	Cooking	28	57%	0	0%	28	29%
	Sewing	9	18%	0	0%	9	9%
	Bike repair	4	8%	0	0%	4	4%

Note. Café and sewing were trainees were all female. Bike repair trainees were all male. Of the cooking trainees, 19 were male and 9 were female. The social enterprise's first and second VET training programs were bike repair and cooking, respectively. Those programs were phased out in favor of café, which includes barista and baking training, and sewing.

After addressing the assumptions of MANOVA testing, performing descriptive statistical testing, and depicting demographic information, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to determine the effect of completion of a social enterprise VET program on the combination of two dependent variables, wages and self-efficacy. The reporting of the results includes statistical significance testing, confidence intervals, and effect sizes, in addition to the description provided above (APA, 2009). Results were reported for the combined dependent variables, wages and self-efficacy, per the research question and hypotheses.

Research question 1/hypothesis

Q1. What is the difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between people in the Myanmar BOP who complete a social enterprise VET program and Myanmar BOP who do not complete a VET program? The null and alternative hypotheses for Q1 were:

H1₀. The completion of a social enterprise VET program results in no difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between the people in the Myanmar BOP.

H1_a. The completion of a social enterprise VET program results in a difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between the people in the Myanmar BOP.

Testing the statistical significance assessed whether the observed difference in wages and self-efficacy of VET trainees and non-VET trainees reflected a pattern other than chance. The one-way MANOVA revealed there was a statistically significant difference between social enterprise VET program completion on the combined dependent variables $F(2, 95) = 33.55, p < .001$; $V = .414$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.414$, so the null hypothesis was rejected. Because after conducting the MANOVA procedure, the MANOVA result was significant at the $p < .001$ level, it was not necessary to accept a lower level of significance (α) as is the acceptable convention of violating the assumption of equality of variance.

Follow-up univariate ANOVAs showed that wage difference ($F(1,96) = 67.58, p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.413$) was statistically significant; whereas self-efficacy difference ($F(1,96) = 2.23, p = .139$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.023$) was not statistically significant between VET trainees and non-VET trainees, using a Bonferroni adjusted level α of .025. Though the social enterprise VET program completion led to a significant difference in wages and social efficacy for VET trainees versus non-VET trainees, more of the difference was a result of wage increases versus self-efficacy increases. Aside from the univariate ANOVAs, post hoc tests were not conducted because there were fewer than three groups.

The confidence interval reported how plausible the estimated difference might be (Hair et al., 2010). The confidence interval for this MANOVA was set at 95%. For the combined dependent variable, 95 out of 100 times, the observed difference will fall in the range of values.

The range of wage difference was \$275, with a minimum of a decrease of \$25 and a maximum of an increase of \$250. The range of self-efficacy difference was 22 with a minimum of a decrease of self-efficacy of 11 and a maximum of an increase of self-efficacy of 11. See Table 4 for the range of values per group.

Table 4

Range of Values

		VET (<i>n</i> = 49)	Non-VET (<i>n</i> = 49)	Total (<i>N</i> = 98)
Wage difference	Range	\$250	\$175	\$275
	Minimum	\$0	-\$25	-\$25
	Maximum	\$250	\$150	\$250
Self-efficacy difference	Range	15	20	22
	Minimum	-4	-11	-11
	Maximum	11	9	11

Since the confidence interval was set at 95%, the significance level (α) was .05 (α = probability of Type I error). A Type I error occurs when the researcher shows a significant difference when there really is not difference. Because the MANOVA result was significant at the $p < .001$ level, which is an even higher significance (α) than .05, it is unlikely at Type I error occurred in this study.

The effect size was an indicator of the strength of the conclusions about group differences separate from inferences to the population of the study (Hair et al., 2010). The calculation of effect size for MANOVA was .41 ($f = .41$). The effect size of this MANOVA was larger than the estimated effect size of .25 ($f = .25$) in the G*Power analysis, meaning the sample size was larger than what was required for the effect size of this study.

Power is an indicator of the strength of the findings and is inversely related to the probability of making a Type II error ($1 - \beta$ = probability of Type II error). A Type II error

occurs when the researcher concludes there is no effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable(s), when there is, in fact, an effect (Hair et al., 2010). The observed power of the independent variable, social enterprise VET program, on the combined dependent variables of wages and self-efficacy was 1.00. This power of 1.00 was greater than the power of .81 projected by the G*Power analysis. Reviewing the power for the dependent variables separately, more of the observed statistical power comes from wage difference ($1 - \beta = 1.00$), versus self-efficacy difference ($1 - \beta = .32$).

Based on the descriptive statistics, within the study sample, VET trainees did display increased wages ($M = \$112.39$, $SD = 68.32$) and self-efficacy ($M = 1.31$, $SD = 3.12$), as compared to non-VET trainees ($M = \$18.73$, $SD = 41.14$ and $M = .14$, $SD = 4.48$, respectively). The VET trainees had a statistically significantly greater difference in wages (154% versus 22% for non-VET trainees, collectively) and self-efficacy (5.5% versus 0.6% for non-VET trainees, collectively). In summary, the results of the MANOVA met statistical significance of $p < 0.05$; thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. The confidence interval was 95%. The effect size was .41. The observed power was 1.00.

Evaluation of the Findings

This quantitative quasi-experimental study compared the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. The aim was to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in terms of Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory as the theoretical foundation. The analysis of this quantitative quasi-experimental study found that statistical differences exist between wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP based on social enterprise VET program completion. The analysis shows both primary stakeholder

groups' (donors and beneficiaries) needs were met as stakeholder theory would suggest. The results of this MANOVA analysis suggest that there is a statistically significant difference in wages and self-efficacy between the experiment group, VET trainees, and the control group, non-VET trainees. A review of the statistics shows that VET trainees experienced a mean wage increase of \$112.39 as compared to non-VET trainees who experienced a mean wage increase of \$18.73 over the three-month span. Whereas VET trainees had mean self-efficacy score increases of 1.31, non-VET trainees had mean self-efficacy score increases of 0.14.

Limitations of the study included the small sample size and the short time span. The first noted limitation of this research was the small sample size because of the challenges of making generalizations (Kummitha, 2018). However, the small sample size was not much of a limitation because the effect size of .41 ($f = .41$) was larger at than the G*3 Power analysis effect size of .25 ($f = .25$). This means the researcher has enough data to appropriately find whether a relationship between the variables exists. The benefit of a larger sample size would be analysis of potential confounding variables such as occupation, age, and gender using a different procedure than one-way MANOVA.

In addition to the limitation of a small sample size, another consideration was the three-month time span between testing. The three-month time span between testing is a normal part of the US-based social enterprise's process to minimize participant attrition. If the time span between testing had been longer, for example six months or one year, the results of the combined dependent variables of wages and self-efficacy would likely have had statistical significance. Yet, the dependent variable of self-efficacy may have had greater statistical significance as a stand-alone factor, because VET trainees would have had longer to feel confident about their new skills.

The research question was: What is the difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between people in the Myanmar BOP who complete a social enterprise VET program and Myanmar BOP who do not complete a VET program? The null hypothesis was that the completion of a social enterprise VET program results in no difference in monthly wages and self-efficacy between the people in the Myanmar BOP was not supported with the findings of this study, and thus, was rejected.

The findings of this study regarding wages and self-efficacy combined are more aligned with the research of capitalist-model social enterprise VET literature (e.g., Atiq et al., 2019; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018) versus the socialist-model social enterprise VET literature (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Napathorn, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). The alignment of the findings of this study with the capitalist-model social enterprise VET literature may be expected as the US-based social enterprise of this study most resembles the indigenous capitalist social enterprise model. However, the findings of self-efficacy are consistent with existing research on both models of social enterprise VET, though the existing research is primarily qualitative versus quantitative (Chui et al., 2019; de Bruin & Read, 2018; Meltzer et al., 2018).

Though most of the studies of capitalist-model social enterprise VET programs showed overall positive effects of capitalist VET in developing nations, there were mixed impressions among researchers whether the results were short-, medium-, or long-term (Atiq et al., 2019; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). Atiq et al. (2019) found that upon completion of the VET program, the VET graduates experience a ten percent increase in wages. This increase corresponds to the findings of this study in which VET trainees experienced an average of a 3.14% increase in wages after three

months of training. Over time, the VET graduates contributed more toward household income and invested more in their children's education and healthcare (Atiq et al., 2019). Meanwhile, Dolan and Rajak (2018) found VET training was not a quick-fix from poverty, but the benefits of VET, including increased self-efficacy and hopefulness, were more medium-term.

Studies of socialist-model social enterprise VET led to increased employment for some people, but left many trainees without jobs because there were not enough job openings or because of ineffective employee recruiting and retaining practices (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Napathorn, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). An analysis of the findings of this study reflects that this is not necessarily accurate as VET trainees each had jobs at the end of their training program, and all but two trainees had higher wages at the end of the program.

The findings of this study regarding self-efficacy confirm the research of both socialist- and capitalist-models of social enterprise VET that VET leads to increased self-efficacy, self-worth, and well-being (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019; Chui et al., 2019; Costa & Pesci, 2016; de Bruin & Read, 2018; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Douglas et al., 2018; Džunić et al., 2018; ; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Meltzer et al., 2018; Quiroz-Nino & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Rey-Martí et al., 2016; Tukundane et al., 2015; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). In a multi-nation study of Mexico, Guatemala, and Peru, the capitalist VET model of social enterprise increased the quality of life for VET trainees by providing skills and job opportunities and strengthened the local economies (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). In a socialist-model VET study of seven Hong Kong social enterprises, trainees felt a sense of empowerment and self-reliance because of learning new skills and being able to contribute to their families (Chui et al., 2019).

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. The goal was to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in terms of stakeholder theory as the theoretical foundation. This study aimed to validate and extend stakeholder theory focusing on the differing effects of two outcome variables of social enterprise VET programs- (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2) self-efficacy difference, a social factor – between VET trainees and non-VET trainees. The goal was to quantify and compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy of VET trainees three months after the completion of a social enterprise VET program against a control group of Myanmar BOP without social enterprise VET. The purposive sample contained wages data and self-efficacy data for 98 participants. The study was conducted by retrieving archival data from the director of the US-based social enterprise offering VET to the Myanmar BOP regarding VET trainee and non-VET trainee wage and self-efficacy data. A one-way MANOVA was conducted using SPSS software to compare mean monthly wage and self-efficacy differences between people who completed and who did not complete a social enterprise VET program in the Myanmar BOP community. Though the sample size was small, steps were taken to minimize threats to validity and reliability including the use of archival data and the inclusion of a control group.

The analysis of this quantitative quasi-experimental study found that statistical differences exist between wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP based on social enterprise VET program completion. The results of this MANOVA analysis suggest that there is a statistically significant difference in wages and self-efficacy between the experiment group,

VET trainees, and the control group, non-VET trainees. VET trainees did experience greater differences in wages and self-efficacy three months after VET completion than non-VET trainees. The findings of this study for wages are consistent with the existing literature on the results of capitalist-model social enterprise VET programs, but not for socialist-model VET programs. The findings of this study for self-efficacy are consistent with the existing literature on the results of both capitalist- and socialist-model social enterprise VET programs.

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

Agenda 2030 is a global initiative to increase sustainable economic development and end poverty by the year 2030 (Mindt & Rieckmann, 2017; OECD, n.d.; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Rahdari et al., 2018; UN, 2018; Verboven & Vanherck, 2016). The UN and the OECD leaders list social enterprises as part of the solution to sustainable economic development (OECD, n.d.; Rahdari et al., 2018; UN, 2018). Researchers are studying the contributions of social enterprises that offer VET to sustainable economic development (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Atiq et al., 2019; de Bruin & Read, 2018; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Douglas et al., 2018; Džunić et al., 2018; Meltzer et al., 2018; Napathorn, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). There are mixed results of recent studies of social enterprises offering VET regarding the abilities of social enterprises to balance stakeholder needs (e.g., Abramson & Billings, 2019; Battilana et al., 2015; Cheah et al., 2019; Cooney, 2017; Cordes, 2017; Costa & Pesci, 2016; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018; Sarman et al., 2015).

The general problem is that BOP markets experience challenges with sustainable economic development (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016; Mindt & Rieckmann, 2017; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017). Part of the reason is the lack of vocational and education training, which are necessary components for sustainable economic development (Bendul et al., 2016; Bocken et al., 2016; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Tukundane et al., 2015; Vladimirova & LeBlanc, 2016). Social enterprises are businesses that address social and environmental challenges while creating economic profit (Cheah et al., 2019; Džunić et al., 2018; Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Littlewood & Holt, 2018). Some social enterprises offer vocational educational training (VET) programs for the BOP communities in which they operate (Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Napathorn, 2018). The specific problem addressed in this study was how

social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy.

The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. In specific, this study aimed to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in terms of stakeholder theory as the theoretical foundation. By using a static group comparison with a non-equivalent group design, this study examined two outcome variables of social enterprise VET, wages and self-efficacy, between two groups in the Myanmar BOP, VET trainees and non-VET trainees. A one-way MANOVA was conducted to answer the research question addressing wages and self-efficacy.

The research site was the training center of a US-based social enterprise operating on the Thailand-Myanmar border in Mae Sot, Thailand. The population for the study was comprised of all individuals in the Myanmar BOP, including Burmese and Karen refugees and migrants, living within the sampling frame, the Thailand-Myanmar border towns of Mae Sot, Thailand, and Myawaddy, Myanmar (Dannecker & Schaffar, 2016). The study sample was selected based on a purposive sample method with an equal sample size of VET trainees and non-VET trainees, all from the Myanmar BOP, which ensured an equally represented target population between VET trainees and non-VET trainees. Archival data were collected regarding 98 people in the Myanmar BOP from 2012 to 2020. A three-month span was used to assess differences in wages and self-efficacy between VET and non-VET trainees in the Myanmar BOP.

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was interpreted to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a

social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. Two outcome variables of social enterprise VET were assessed: monthly wages and self-efficacy. The archival data of Myanmar BOP consisted of two groups: VET trainees ($n = 49$) and non-VET trainees ($n = 49$). Findings from the research display VET trainees experienced greater differences in wages and self-efficacy than non-VET trainees. The results of the MANOVA showed statistically significant variances between the combined dependent variables, wages and self-efficacy, based on the independent variable, social enterprise VET program. An overall description of the results was that VET trainees experienced a greater increase in wages ($M = \$112.39$, $SD = 68.32$) and self-efficacy ($M = 1.31$, $SD = 3.12$), as compared to non-VET trainees ($M = \$18.73$, $SD = 41.14$ and $M = .14$, $SD = 4.48$, respectively). One of the assumptions of MANVOA is that data is normally distributed. With Shapiro Wilk's testing for a normal distribution, wage difference was not normally distributed for VET trainees ($p < .001$) or non-VET trainees ($p < .001$). Self-efficacy was normally distributed for non-VET trainees ($p = .074$), but not for VET trainees ($p < .001$). Despite the deviations from normality, the decision to conduct the one-way MANOVA was made because the MANOVA test is fairly resilient to deviations from normality (Laerd, 2015). The limitations of the study were the small sample size, mono-operation bias, the potential for confounding variables, and a lack of generalizability. The results of the study on wages and self-efficacy contribute to the stakeholder theory literature about whether social enterprises offering VET balance multiple stakeholder needs and contribute to sustainable economic development.

This final chapter continues with the implications of the findings, recommendations for practice and theory, recommendations for future research, and conclusions drawn from this study. There were implications of the findings around the: (a) research question; (b) study

problem and study purpose; and (c) theoretical framework, which was stakeholder theory.

Recommendations for practice and theory include: (a) supporting social enterprise VET programs as part of the solution to sustainable economic development in BOP communities; (b) supporting social enterprises as contributors to the 2030 Agenda; (c) generating awareness of and increase support for social enterprise VET programs to benefit the Myanmar BOP; and (d) incorporating social enterprise in the stakeholder theory literature. Recommendations for future research on social enterprise, include more: (a) research in fragile and post-conflict nations; (b) quantitative research; (c) longitudinal research; (d) research on potential confounding variables; (e) correlational research; (f) stakeholder theory inclusion in social enterprise literature; and (g) donor education and evolution. The conclusion contains: (a) a summary of the study; (b) the importance of the study; (c) the meaning of the study results with respect to previous research; and (d) elaboration on the take-home message of the entire study. The take-home message of the entire study is: Social enterprises offering VET programs are an integral part of the solution to the problem of sustainable economic development because they fill the institutional void of vocational training and education in BOP communities while balancing the needs of multiple stakeholders. The multiplication effects of personal sustainable economic development from one individual to another are leading to families lifting themselves from the BOP and creating a new community culture of hope and a can-do attitude.

Implications

The implications of the study findings are discussed below in terms of the research question, the study problem and purpose, and the theoretical framework, which was stakeholder theory. Based on the research conducted, the implications specifically related to differences in wages and self-efficacy are assessed based on social enterprise VET program completion. There

was one independent variable, the social enterprise VET program (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019). The US-based social enterprise of the study offered four types of VET programs: (a) sewing; (b) café barista and baking; (c) cooking; and (d) bicycle repair. There were two dependent variables: (a) the monthly wages personally earned by each participant (e.g., Ahmed, 2016); and (b) self-efficacy, the personal feelings an individual has about the ability to overcome adversity to accomplish a task (e.g., Chui et al., 2019; Sherer et al., 1982).

Implications of the study results around the research question. The research question was: What is the difference in monthly wages between people in the Myanmar BOP who completed a social enterprise VET program and Myanmar BOP who did not complete a VET program? The hypothesis tested was if the completion of a social enterprise VET program resulted in a difference in monthly wages between the people in the Myanmar BOP. MANOVA results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between VET- and non-VET trainees on the combined dependent variables $F(2, 95) = 33.55, p < .001$; $V = .414$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.414$, so the null hypothesis was rejected. Thus, the research question was supported. Based on the descriptive statistics, within the study sample, VET trainees did display increased wages ($M = \$112.39, SD = 68.32$) and self-efficacy ($M = 1.31, SD = 3.12$), as compared to non-VET trainees ($M = \$18.73, SD = 41.14$ and $M = .14, SD = 4.48$, respectively).

This finding implies that the study supports previous research about the capitalist-model social enterprise VET literature for wages and self-efficacy (e.g., Atiq et al., 2019; Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018) more than the socialist-model social enterprise VET literature (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Napathorn, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). Atiq et al. (2019) found that upon completion of the VET program, the VET graduates experience a ten percent increase in wages. This increase corresponds to the

findings of this study in which VET trainees experienced an average of a 3.14% increase in wages after three months of training. The alignment of the findings of this study with the capitalist-model social enterprise VET literature may be expected as the US-based social enterprise of this study most resembles the indigenous capitalist social enterprise model.

The findings on self-efficacy imply that this study supports the existing research on both the capitalist- and socialist- models of social enterprise VET, though the existing research is primarily qualitative (Chui et al., 2019; de Bruin & Read, 2018; Meltzer et al., 2018) and not quantitative as this study was. Though the differences in self-efficacy between VET trainees and non-VET trainees were not statistically significant as a stand-alone variable, VET trainees did experience a greater increase in self-efficacy after three months of training than non-VET trainees. The alignment of the findings on self-efficacy in this study with both capitalist- and socialist- VET models of social enterprise is likely due to VET trainees having access to VET which provides a structured path to a more hopeful future, versus non-VET trainees who continue a life of uncertainty (e.g., Dolan & Rajak, 2018). Uncertainty is a characteristic of BOP communities that social enterprise leaders must overcome to facilitate sustainable economic development, the problem and purpose of this study.

Implications of the study results around the study problem and purpose. The results of this study address the study problem and study purpose, and contribute to the existing literature. The study problem was how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The focus of this study was two primary stakeholder groups of social enterprise, donors and beneficiaries. Donors are stakeholders who provide start-up and some operational funds (Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018). Beneficiaries are the

Myanmar BOP, who participate in VET programs (e.g., Costa & Pesci, 2016). Not knowing the answer to how social enterprises contribute to sustainable economic development for the Myanmar BOP, while balancing the needs of donors and beneficiaries, left a potentially valuable resource for reducing poverty untapped and unsupported (e.g., Rahdari et al., 2016). Thus, determining whether to support social enterprises as a resource for the problem of reducing poverty led to the study purpose of the comparing the differences in wages and self-efficacy among the Myanmar BOP.

The study problem was examined through the study purpose and the subsequent research question, which was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. The reason for examining the differences in two factors of social enterprise - (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2) self-efficacy difference, a social factor - between the Myanmar BOP was to understand whether social enterprises balanced the needs of two primary stakeholder groups, donors and beneficiaries. This can be accomplished by showing a return on donors' investments while teaching the BOP skills to lift themselves out of poverty (e.g., Chui et al., 2019; Dolan, & Rajak, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). In this study, VET trainees experienced a mean wage increase of \$112.39 as compared to non-VET trainees who experienced a mean wage increase of \$18.73 over the three-month span. Whereas VET trainees had mean self-efficacy score increases of 1.31, non-VET trainees had mean self-efficacy score increases of 0.14. Collectively, the VET trainees had a statistically significantly greater difference in wages (154% versus 22% for non-VET trainees) and self-efficacy (5.5% versus 0.6% for non-VET trainees). To determine these results, the confidence interval for this MANOVA was set at 95%. The confidence interval reported how plausible the estimated

difference in wages and self-efficacy might be (Hair et al., 2010). For the combined dependent variable of wages and self-efficacy, 95 out of 100 times, the observed difference will fall in this range of values. Therefore, it is likely that those in the Myanmar BOP who complete the US-based social enterprise VET will experience a greater increase in wages and self-efficacy than the Myanmar BOP who do not complete the US-based social enterprise VET.

The study problem was addressed by demonstrating that the social enterprise VET program filled the institutional void of vocational training and education in BOP communities. The institutional void of vocational training and education leads to low literacy and work skills (Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos, 2015), supply chain challenges (Bendul et al., 2015), and increased crime and violence (Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a; 2015b; Milton et al., 2017) all of which contribute to a lack of sustainable development (Atiq et al., 2018). The result of the study was that social enterprise VET led to both increased wages and self-efficacy for Myanmar BOP VET trainees. Thus, social enterprises offering VET programs are part of the solution to the problem of sustainable economic development because they fill the institutional void of vocational training and education in BOP communities.

The results of this study contribute to the existing literature on practical aspects of social enterprise VET, the field of international business, the need for more quantitative research, and for more research in fragile nations. First, from a practical standpoint, the results of this study confirm that the advantages of vocational education training include improved access to the labor market, improved livelihoods because of the ability to earn money and other assets, self-confidence, and motivation (Tukundane et al., 2015). Even though the advantages of VET may take time to manifest, the implication of these findings for social enterprise leaders and donors is that regardless of short-term disappointment, oftentimes, the future opportunity is enough to keep

some beneficiaries progressing in their personal and professional development (e.g., Dolan & Rajak, 2018). In addition to confirming the advantages of VET in the existing literature, this study also distinguished the social and economic impacts of the capitalist- versus socialist- VET models of social enterprise.

Second, this study contributes to the field of international business since Asia is the region of focus for the UN in addressing sustainable development. Specifically, the BOP in Southeast Asia is significant in terms of the needs of the people and the potential for sustainable development (British Council, n.d.). In the Southeast Asian nation of Myanmar, of those employed, almost 12 million were underqualified (UNFPA, 2017). The US-based social enterprise of this study currently provides café baking and barista and sewing VET training. These VET programs equip trainees for careers in garment manufacturing, food products manufacturing, and hotel and tourism, which are growth sectors in the Myanmar economy (e.g., Bernhardt et al., 2017). Thus, VET training ameliorates the issue of the need for Myanmar companies to hire foreign workers who are better qualified and have more skills (e.g., Simona et al., 2014). Third, by focusing on the fragile Southeast Asian nation of Myanmar, which has not yet reached post-conflict status, this study extended the call in the existing literature for more quantitative research on social enterprises and more research on social enterprises operating in additional developing, fragile nations (Džunić et al., 2018; Littlewood & Holt, 2018; Ramus et al., 2018; Steiner & Teasdale, 2019).

Implications of the study results around the stakeholder theory. As there were implications of the study findings around the research question and study problem and purpose, there are also implications of these results in terms of stakeholder theory, the theoretical framework for this study. The goal of asking the research question in this study was to examine

how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs from a theoretical standpoint. As stakeholder theory researchers suggest, it is necessary to focus on stakeholder needs for organizational success (Freeman, 1984; Freeman, 2010; Freeman et al., 2016; Sulkowski et al., 2018). Social enterprises must balance multiple primary stakeholders, such as donors' expectations of performance while meeting the immediate needs of intended beneficiaries (e.g., Costa & Pesci, 2016; Ramus et al., 2017; Ramus et al., 2018). Stakeholder theory applied to the measurement of two of the outcome variables of social enterprise, wages and self-efficacy, because according to stakeholder theory, success is measured by how the organization manages stakeholders, with stakeholder interests as the foundation of social enterprise strategy (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Donaldson & Lee, 1995). Donors, one stakeholder group, might be more interested in productivity and efficiency increases (Cooney, 2017; Ramus et al., 2017), such as wage changes of BOP VET trainees (e.g., Ahmed, 2016; Cooney, 2017). Meanwhile, BOP VET trainees, the beneficiaries, may need both wage and self-efficacy increases, which may take more time to develop (Chui et al., 2019; Meltzer et al., 2018). Answering the research question regarding wage and self-efficacy differences was relevant to stakeholder theory because according to the theory, a firm must address the conflicting needs of multiple stakeholders for long-term survival (Ali, 2017; Atiq et al., 2018; Gooyert et al., 2017; Miles, 2017; Sarman et al., 2015). The analysis showed both primary stakeholder groups' (donors and beneficiaries) needs for wages and self-efficacy increases were met as stakeholder theory would suggest.

The theoretical implications of the findings of this study include support for and extension of the stakeholder theory. Before conducting this study, it was unclear, based on the extant research, how social enterprises balanced multiple stakeholder needs in providing VET to contribute to sustainable economic development (e.g., Cheah et al., 2019; Costa & Pesci, 2016;

Crucke & Decramer, 2016; Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Jammulamadaka & Chakraborty, 2018; Kolk & Lenfant, 2015a, 2015b, 2016; Littlewood & Holt, 2018; Ramus et al., 2018). The implication of the results of this study for stakeholder theory is that social enterprises, which operate at the intercept of social and economic initiatives, successfully serve two primary stakeholder groups, donors and beneficiaries, while contributing to the local communities in which they operate and filling institutional voids left by local governments. Stakeholder theory indicates that the success of an organization depends on the ability of leaders to effectively manage a broad range of relationships with internal and external stakeholders (Joensuu, Koskela, & Onkila, 2015). Based on the statistical analysis, the US-based social enterprise of this study is successful at balancing stakeholders' (donors and beneficiaries) needs by increasing wages and self-efficacy for VET trainees while continue to be profitable enough for long-term viability. Profitability is necessary for social enterprises to expand the scale and scope of operations and services for other BOP communities (Bocken et al., 2016; Staicu, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). Profitability is also vital so that the US-based social enterprise is not necessarily dependent upon donor funds indefinitely, and the issue of social enterprise profitability is relevant to supporting stakeholder theory.

In addition to supporting stakeholder theory, the implications of the results of this study extend stakeholder theory. Stakeholder theory was seminally grounded in for-profit business (e.g., Freeman, 1984), and has extended into non-profits, international business through corporate social responsibility, and social enterprises (e.g., Freeman, 2010). The study responds to the call in the stakeholder theory literature for the need to study social enterprises from the stakeholder theory perspective (Sarman et al., 2015; Sulkowski et al., 2019). This study extends the scope of stakeholder theory by measuring the impacts of social enterprise actions to address

sustainable economic development in the BOP to create differences in wages and self-efficacy. The differences of two factors of social enterprise VET, wages and self-efficacy, which are of interest to two primary stakeholder groups, donors and beneficiaries, were not examined together in previous stakeholder theory literature.

This study also advanced stakeholder theory and contributed to the literature by tying actions that improve sustainable development to theory, because the practical application was missing in current theories (e.g., Kim, 2018). Sulkowski et al. (2019) specified that there was a need for more research in the stakeholder theory literature on the actions firms take to address and create sustainable development in BOP markets. The findings of this study imply that social enterprises offering VET are at the epicenter of stakeholder theory, in a practical sense. VET trainees earned a greater increase in wages than non-VET trainees, an economic factor, which was also of interest to donors in terms of the long-term viability of the social enterprise. Additionally, VET trainees also experienced greater self-efficacy differences than non-VET trainees, a social factor. These results meet the needs of donors and beneficiaries while generating a profit for the US-based social enterprises so that it remains financially sustainable.

Recommendations for Practice

Recommendations for practice and theory include: (a) supporting social enterprise VET programs as part of the solution to sustainable economic development in BOP communities; (b) supporting social enterprises as contributors to the 2030 Agenda; (c) generating awareness of and increase support for social enterprise VET programs to benefit the Myanmar BOP; and (d) incorporating social enterprise in the stakeholder theory literature.

Social enterprise VET as part of sustainable development solution. The first recommendation is for stakeholders, including donors, investors, beneficiaries, and governments,

to support social enterprise VET programs, especially capitalist-model VET, as part of the solution to sustainable economic development in BOP communities. Sustainable development involves integrating social, environmental, and economic considerations (Obiri et al., 2016), which is the cornerstone of social enterprise VET programs. Sustainable economic development is created in BOP communities by designing: (a) new institutional arrangements; (b) new institutions; and (c) support specifically for social enterprise leaders (Selsky, 2016). The findings from this study that wage and self-efficacy increases after social enterprise VET completion were significantly greater than for the Myanmar BOP without social enterprise VET. Donors, policymakers, and social enterprise leaders need to understand these and other potential impacts of social enterprises on beneficiaries, both positive and negative, because of the shared goals of supporting sustainable development and addressing acute BOP issues (Holt & Littlewood, 2015; Littlewood & Holt, 2018). This is due, in part, because differing needs include the donors' expectations of immediate impact from VET and beneficiaries' needs for longer-term training, which may not yield immediate results (Costa & Pesci, 2016). Wage increases may signal to donors that VET leads to beneficiaries improving their economic standing, though it may not be immediate (e.g., Ahmed, 2016). Self-efficacy increases may signal to beneficiaries that with VET, the individual will learn to overcome obstacles to increase socio-economic standing (e.g., Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). Because there were increases in both wages and self-efficacy, donors can see tangible results for their investment, and beneficiaries can believe for a higher-quality future for his- or herself and their families.

An additional observation from the study procedure worth noting is that the only plot in the MANOVA assumptions in which there were no outliers in the data set was for post-VET trainee wages. There were drastic variances in pre-VET wages for VET trainees and non-VET

trainees, and pre- and post- VET self-efficacy for VET and non-VET trainees. The fact that there were no outliers for post-VET trainee wages is indicative of the leveling factor that VET training creates in the Myanmar BOP, making the ability to earn a living equally accessible, regardless of self-confidence in one's skill level, occupation, gender, or age. Džunić et al. (2018) specifically suggested social enterprise leaders are potential contributors to poverty amelioration because social enterprise vocational training programs increase employability, which encompasses three areas of the SDGs- employment, education, and poverty reduction. Opportunities for employment are a major contributor to solving community-level problems (Quiroz-Nino & Murga-Menoyo, 2017). Even in the cases of social enterprise VET programs in which lifting poverty was not immediate, researchers agreed VET trainees were better off with VET than without (Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Tukundane et al., 2015). The findings of this study regarding wage and self-efficacy differences between VET and non-VET trainees, in conjunction with the existing literature, contribute to the recommendation for stakeholders including donors, investors, beneficiaries, and governments to support social enterprise VET programs as part of the solution to sustainable economic development in BOP communities.

Social enterprises as contributors to the 2030 Agenda. The second recommendation is for policymakers to continue to advocate for and support social enterprises as contributors to the 2030 Agenda. In the existing literature, the United Nations (UN) and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) are taking a multi-stakeholder approach to rally the world in pursuit of the global agenda of increasing sustainable development (Kim, 2018; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017). As the UN's SDGs have taken root on a global scale, the UN and the OECD are partnering to pursue the 2030 Agenda, the achievement of all 17 SDGs by the year 2030, when no one is left impoverished (OECD, 2018; UN, n.d.). In developing nations and

BOP communities, social enterprises are key players in promoting sustainable economic development (Atiq et al., 2018; Cheah et al., 2019; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). This is because social enterprise leaders are pivotal in creating partnerships, mobilizing resources, and engaging stakeholders (Selsky, 2016). Social enterprise leaders find uncommon ways of creating partnerships, mobilizing resources, and engaging stakeholders to tackle the problem of the lack of sustainable development which are unique to the BOP context in which the social enterprise operates.

The results of this study support the pivotal role of social enterprise leaders in facilitating sustainable development. In addition to the findings in this study about wage and self-efficacy increases, two of the by-products of social enterprise VET were: (a) a career advancement path; and (b) that trainees were able to obtain national identity. From a career advancement path perspective, the social enterprise typically hires first from within, which creates a path that is tangible to VET trainees. Further, the social enterprise leaders encourage the VET trainees to try for opportunities they might not otherwise believe they were capable of, as is consistent with the self-efficacy increases. For example, one of the VET graduates who started cooking in the restaurant several years ago has advanced to managing the café, including the financial records. The US-based social enterprise leaders empower the VET trainees and graduates cross-train in marketing and business management, in addition to learning English by speaking with staff and guests. As long as the social enterprise continues to grow, the VET trainees' and graduates' career advancement is virtually unlimited.

In addition to having a career advancement path, obtaining a national identity is a life-changing experience for VET trainees. Obtaining a national identity allows freedom of movement from one place to another, access to health insurance, and application for driver's

licenses. The combination of these benefits enabled some VET trainees to start their own businesses, advance at the social enterprise, travel to other communities for work, and take care of multiple generations of family members. For many VET trainees, having national identification provided freedom and choices they had not experienced in several years, if ever. The existing literature confirms the problem of the lack of national identity, which perpetuates the cycle of marginalized people. Refugees of ethnic violence live on the Myanmar-Thailand border and are vulnerable to exploitation because of their tenuous lack of national identity (Sharples, 2018). However, the social enterprise of the study actively works to mitigate this obstacle by fighting for the freedom of the VET trainees, helping them attain national identity.

This fight for the freedom of marginalized people, in addition to providing wage and self-efficacy increases, and a career advancement path, are just a few examples of why the UN and the OECD list social enterprises as part of the solution to sustainable economic development (e.g., OECD, n.d.a; UN, 2018). In particular, capitalist-model social enterprises *teach people to fish* by giving them skills and knowledge versus *giving people fish* in the form of sporadic aid with no skills. Though there are indeed places and needs for stand-alone aid, there is also a place for leaders to pursue a longer-term strategy and commitment of equipping people to care for themselves. Capitalist-model social enterprises typically serve in a longer-term capacity. Also, the US-based social enterprise of this study helped the VET trainees acquire their national identity, even when there was a high possibility that the VET trainee would take her or his new skills and get a job at another business, or start her or his own business.

Education and vocational training are necessary components of sustainable economic development in BOP markets (e.g., Atiq et al., 2018; Bendul et al., 2015; Bocken et al., 2016; Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos, 2015). Quiroz-Nino and Murga-Menoyo (2017) studied VET in

term of the contribution to the UN's SDGs and the 2030 Agenda and suggested leaders of organizations that create VET programs have a decisive role in teaching BOP community members to participate in and contribute to their communities toward achieving the 2030 Agenda. VET led to the ontological perspective of being well, the functional perspective of living well, the operational perspective of doing well, and the ecological perspective of caring well (Quiroz-Nino & Murga-Menoyo, 2017). Not only does the social enterprise VET of this study break the cycle of destitute poverty among multi-generation families, but it also creates a culture of caring and community involvement. On a day-to-day basis, VET trainees work and play with local children in education programs to support their learning, and with youth at the creative arts center learning music and painting, also located at the VET training center. During the 2020 coronavirus pandemic, the social enterprise shifted the sewing center operations from manufacturing bags and accessories to manufacturing face masks. The social enterprise partnered with the Thai government and manufactured 1200 face masks for the government to distribute around the region.

The actions of the US-based social enterprise of this study, even during a time of crisis beyond the typical acute BOP community challenges, exemplify why this researcher and other scholars believe social enterprises have a significant role in achieving the multi-stakeholder 2030 Agenda when no one is left impoverished. In particular, social enterprises address the UN's sustainable development goals centered around employment, education, and poverty reduction in BOP communities thanks to their ability to collaboratively tackle economic and social issues (Lumpkin et al., 2018; Quiroz-Niño & Murga-Menoyo, 2017; Rahdari et al., 2016). Social enterprises create social and economic change for the betterment of society. The findings of this study, in conjunction with the existing literature, contribute to the recommendation for

policymakers to continue to advocate for and support social enterprises as contributors to the 2030 Agenda. See Figure 9 for the cycle to sustainable development.

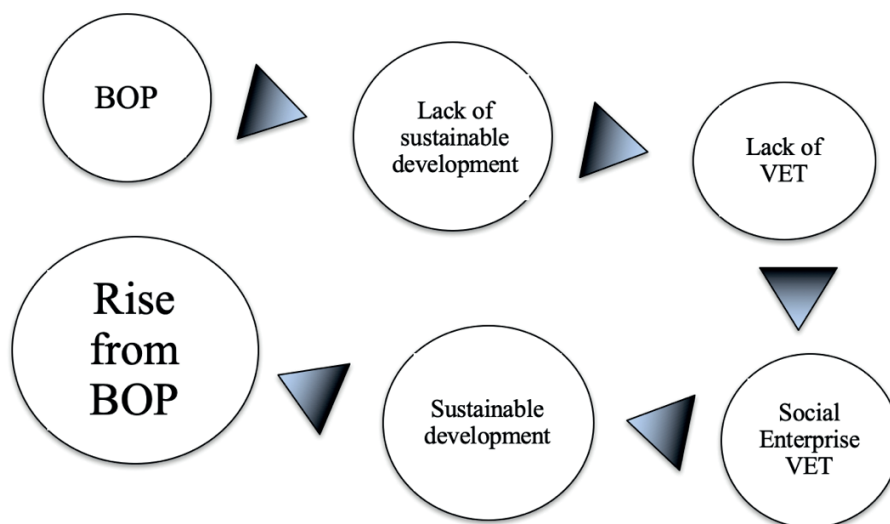


Figure 9. Cycle to sustainable development.

Social enterprise VET for the Myanmar BOP. The third recommendation is to generate awareness of and increase support for social enterprise VET programs to benefit the Myanmar BOP. In the existing literature, of the Southeast Asian nations, Myanmar has the largest BOP population, with more than 25% living in extreme poverty (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017). Of those employed, almost 12 million are underqualified, and more than 50% are in vulnerable employment arrangements (UNFPA, 2017). Myanmar's economic challenges stem from a lack of infrastructure, access to capital, tax revenue base, tax revenue collection and banking systems, property rights enforcement, and vocational training (Thawngmung & Robinson, 2017). Though Myanmar's economic challenges are common to other nations with vast BOP communities, the US-based social enterprise works around these challenges in ways that are culturally and logistically unique to the Myanmar BOP. Further, the US-based social enterprise leaders of this study drill down to the specific needs of Karen refugees who live on the border towns of Myawaddy, Myanmar, and Mae Sot, Thailand.

In this study, the Myanmar BOP VET trainees learned vocational skills such as sewing, café baking and barista, cooking, marketing, and business management, in tandem with English by interacting with the US-based social enterprise staff and customers. The vocational and educational skills taught in the US-based social enterprise's VET support Myanmar's primary FDI and national growth sectors of garment manufacturing, food products manufacturing, and hotels and tourism (e.g., Bernhardt et al., 2017). For firms pursuing FDI, as well as Myanmar SMEs, which comprise the majority of Myanmar companies, one of the biggest obstacles besides corruption (Soans & Abe, 2016; Vogiatzoglou, 2016) is a lack of skilled labor (Bernhardt et al., 2017; Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). Because of the lack of skilled labor, some Myanmar companies hire foreign workers who are better qualified and have more skills (Simona et al., 2014). The US-based social enterprise VET program equips VET trainees with the skills that Myanmar companies need so they can hire locals and reduce the need for foreign labor.

Access to skilled labor is a primary factor driving corporate growth in both developed and developing nations. Even in turbulent developing nations, such as Myanmar, the availability of access to education mitigates the effect of the relationship between skilled labor and corporate growth (Mertzanis & Said, 2019). Because of the vocational and education training focus of some social enterprises, Myanmar leaders want to work together with social enterprises to set up viable businesses for sustainable economic development instead of just receiving donations (Cahalane, 2012). In 2017, social enterprise consultants formed the Social Enterprise Development Association of Myanmar (SeDAM) to interface between Myanmar government leaders and social enterprises to build up the economy by supporting social enterprises (Tun, 2017). SeDAM is an example of how creating sustainable advantages such as economic development in BOP communities requires leaders to change their perception of competitive

advantage. Selsky (2016) admonishes the need to shift from firm-specific competitive advantage with the end goal of beating another firm to partnership-specific competitive advantage with the end goal of beating the disruptive force in the BOP community. The findings of this study, in conjunction with the existing literature on Myanmar, contribute to the recommendation of generating awareness of and increasing support for social enterprise VET programs to benefit the Myanmar BOP, which could help Myanmar's national economic development. See Figure 10 for the subsequent benefits of social enterprise VET after increases in wages and self-efficacy found in this study.

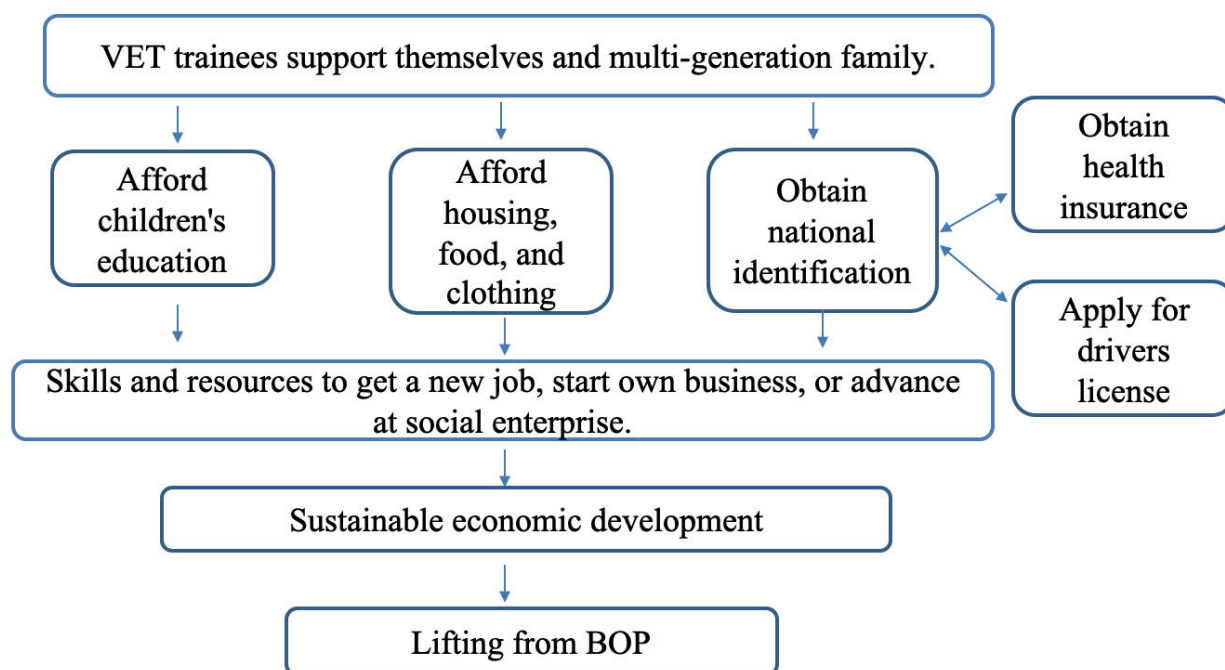


Figure 10. Benefits of VET after increases in wages and self-efficacy.

Incorporating social enterprises in the stakeholder theory literature. The fourth recommendation, from a theoretical perspective, is incorporating social enterprise in the stakeholder theory literature. In the social enterprise literature, the results of social enterprise initiatives to effect sustainable economic development in the BOP matter because social enterprises are accountable to multiple stakeholders. Part of the reason social enterprises are

accountable to multiple stakeholders is because they often rely on start-up donations or loans to provide the training programs (Lyon & Owen, 2019) and for scaling operations regionally and globally (Bocken et al., 2016). There is a critical need for social enterprises to mitigate the dual-objective (economic and social) tension of stakeholders for survival and long-term impact (Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). Though the wage (economic) and self-efficacy (social) differences for VET trainees found in this study are impressive, the increases would not be possible without the US-based social enterprise leaders' ability to navigate the needs of multiple stakeholders, even beyond donors and beneficiaries. The US-based social enterprise director and managers exemplified the practical application of concepts referenced in the stakeholder theory literature, including: sustainable supply chain management (e.g., Bitzer & Glasbergen, 2015); collaboration to address wicked problems such as educational deficiencies and opportunity deficits (Selsky, 2016); corporate social responsibility (e.g., Singh et al., 2015); juggling the needs of beneficiaries, donors, and the social enterprise's viability (e.g., Karns, 2016; Sarman et al., 2015); and inclusive capitalism (e.g., Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018; Vázquez-Maguirre et al., 2018). This researcher agrees with Battilana (2018) that corporate leaders wanting to do more than *check the box* of CSR initiatives in developing nations can take lessons from social enterprises such as the US-based social enterprise of this study.

In addition to exemplifying the practical application of many concepts referenced in the stakeholder theory literature, the US-based social enterprise of this study also embodies one of the perspectives of stakeholder theory known as stakeholder shaking. Stakeholder shaking occurs when organizations influence stakeholders to cooperate in addressing societal issues to create sustainable solutions (Sulkowski et al., 2019). The implication is that while stakeholders influence social enterprises with differing needs, social enterprises also influence stakeholders,

shaking them out of complacency (e.g., Sulkowski et al., 2019). An example of stakeholder shaking occurred in Atiq et al. (2018) as the social enterprise brought BOP issues to the attention of donors, and the opportunity for- and benefits of- vocational and education training to the attention of beneficiaries.

Similar to Atiq et al. (2018), the US-based social enterprise of this study is another practical example of stakeholder shaking in the stakeholder theory literature. The US-based social enterprise engaged both stakeholder groups, donors and beneficiaries. Donors provided seed money to launch the training center and purchase raw materials, which enabled the US-based social enterprise to provide VET. The beneficiaries learned new skills, which enabled them to increase wages and self-efficacy, leading to personal sustainable economic development and the viability of the social enterprise. The multiplication effects of personal sustainable economic development from one individual to another are leading to families lifting themselves from the BOP and creating a new community culture of hope and a can-do attitude.

Social enterprises are a relatively new entrant in the stakeholder theory literature as compared to the introduction of the theory regarding for-profit firms in 1984. However, the actions and attitudes of the director and managers of the US-based social enterprise of this study are examples of the knowledge and practical application social enterprises bring to the stakeholder theory discussion. The findings of this study, in conjunction with the existing social enterprise and stakeholder theory literature, contribute to the recommendation of more inclusion of social enterprises in the stakeholder theory literature.

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this quasi-experimental quantitative study open the door to several possibilities for future research on social enterprise, including more: (a) research in fragile and

post-conflict nations; (b) quantitative research; (c) longitudinal research; (d) research on potential confounding variables; (e) correlational research; (f) stakeholder theory inclusion in social enterprise literature; and (g) donor education and evolution.

Fragile and post-conflict nations. The primary recommendation is for future research on social enterprises operating in fragile and post-conflict nations. These war-ravaged nations have among the most numerous BOP populations. However, research is limited because of the dangers associated with data collection. This researcher agrees with Kolk and Lenfant (2016a) that there is a need for more study of the range of social enterprises operating in BOP contexts, covering multiple social enterprises. Examples of these post-conflict and fragile nations and regions include, but are not limited to, the remote parts of Asia, the Middle East, and the nations in between these two regions: Afghanistan, Kazakhstan Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan.

Quantitative research. Because the study of social enterprises is relatively new, the majority of the current research is qualitative as researchers continue to uncover new themes. This study is an example of how some themes, such as the factors of wages and self-efficacy, have been fleshed out enough for quantitative research. Thus, more quantitative research is needed on measurable aspects of social enterprises, such as donor and investor consistency and expectations, by-products of VET training such as local language literacy, English language skills, obtaining a national identity, community members lifted from the BOP, and best practices and success factors of viable social enterprises.

Longitudinal research. Longitudinal studies are needed and will become more plausible as the study of social enterprises evolves, and there are more quantitative data on social enterprises operating in more fragile nations with vast BOP communities. Though longitudinal

field studies are not as realistic because of researcher access and safety, longitudinal studies using archival data studies can be a viable solution if more social enterprises captured data upfront, then tracked progress over six months, 12 months, or longer. A potential limitation of longitudinal studies may be the challenge of maintaining a control group due to attrition, which adds validity to the study. Since the results of this study provide evidence of the increase in wages and self-efficacy relative to a control group, then a future study could incorporate at pre- and post-test without the use of a control group.

Potential confounding variables. One of the limitations of this study was the potential confounding variables of gender, age, and occupation. Of all the recommendations for future research listed in this study, examining these potential confounding variables is the next logical step in this line of research. For statistical significance, a study on gender, age, and occupation would require a larger sample size than what was available for this study. Based on a G*Power analysis, a sample size of 351 is necessary to analyze the confounding variable of age with MANCOVA (multi-variate analysis of co-variance). Occupation and gender pose additional limitations due to the level of measurement of these variables being nominal, and not interval or ratio.

Correlational research on occupation. Once there are larger sample sizes and alternative statistical testing methods for nominal variables to examine the potential confounding variable of occupation, correlational research is needed. Correlation research is needed to determine the magnitude of change of wages, self-efficacy, and other measurable factors of social enterprise VET based on occupation. Correlational studies examine the strength of association between the independent and dependent variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). The reason for correlational research on occupation is to determine if one occupation has a

statistically significant magnitude of change in wages than another. For example, if a social enterprise must choose between offering one of two VET programs, such as cooking or carpentry (but not both), the decision of which to offer may be more clear if the magnitude of wage increase is higher in one occupation versus the other.

The strength of correlational studies is describing the magnitude of co-occurrence with minimal to no researcher-control, ease of conducting, and most common in business and social science. The potential downside to correlational studies is that there is no determination of cause and effect because there is no independent variable manipulation (Burns & Burns, 2008). Since this study compared the difference in wages and self-efficacy between Myanmar BOP with and without VET and determined a cause and effect relationship, a correlational study is appropriate to determine the magnitude of change.

Stakeholder theory research. In addition to recommendation for more inclusion of social enterprises in the stakeholder theory literature, there is a need for future research on the stakeholder theory. In the social enterprise literature, several authors have discussed the need for more research on specific stakeholder groups. Vázquez-Maguirre and Portales (2018) advised there is a need for more research on the influence of stakeholder pressure, including donors and beneficiaries, to generate either social or economic value. Lyon and Owen (2019) proposed assessing the impact of social enterprise investment on beneficiaries as a future study. Mortimer et al. (2019) concluded that beneficiaries' and other stakeholders' perceptions of what was valuable varied and recommended that a multi-criterion decision analysis is a tool to prioritize the value. According to Costa and Pesci (2016), social enterprise donors and beneficiaries have conflicting needs, and social enterprises struggle to fulfill the demands of both. Donors often want more immediate or definite impact for their investment. However, beneficiaries need time

for skill development. These studies involve the preferences and pressures of beneficiaries and donors of social enterprise and can be studied through the lens of stakeholder theory. Viewing the preferences and pressures of beneficiaries and donors of social enterprise through the lens of stakeholder theory would also meet Kim's (2018) urging for the need to tie actions directed toward sustainable development to theory which is missing in the current literature.

Donor education and evolution. The final, and perhaps most important, recommendation for future research is donor education on why social enterprises make money and the subsequent evolution of donors' perspectives. The US-based social enterprise director of this study expressed that one of the social enterprise's early challenges was that donors, who had given financial resources for the mission, did not understand why the organization needed to also make money. Abramson and Billings (2018) briefly mentioned this challenge of social enterprise leaders whose donors expressed concerns about the social enterprise making money using the money the donors gave. There is a group of donors who *give* to a social enterprise as a purely social mission. Those donors who *give* are unlike the donors discussed in this study, who *invest* in a social enterprise as an economic venture with a social mission. Thus, some social enterprise leaders not only have the challenge of balancing social and economic objectives, while creating profit for viability, but they also have a group of donors with an entirely different concern. The other group of donors does not understand why the social enterprise needs to make money because the donors view their money as a gift or contribution to a social mission.

Existing literature on this group of social enterprise donors who do not understand why social enterprises need to make money was scant. Therefore, it was beyond the purview of this study. However, in the US and possibly other nations, there is a need to increase awareness and education about the social enterprise model. Donors who *give* need to understand how, unlike

non-profit organizations, social enterprise leaders teach people how to fish versus just giving them fish. Unlike for-profit businesses, social enterprise leaders teach people how to fish versus just selling them fish. Social enterprise VET trainees in this study learned skills that enabled them to improve their own livelihoods, lift themselves from poverty, care for multiple-generation families, obtain official legal identification, build up their communities, make their own choices about their values, and experience the freedom of being and moving from place to place they did not have before the training. This good news of social enterprise VET is worth the time and effort of educating donors and observing their evolution to a new way of donors giving of their treasure, time, or talent.

Conclusions

Sustainable economic development is a challenge in BOP communities, such as those in Myanmar, where people live in subsistence conditions (Kapteyn & Wah, 2016). Contributing factors are the lack of vocational training and education available for BOP community members (Bendul et al., 2015; Bocken et al., 2016; Kapteyn & Wah, 2016; Vázquez-Maguirre & Portales, 2018). The UN and the OECD are rallying the organizations around the world, including social enterprises, to address the challenge of increasing sustainable economic development through the 2030 Agenda.

A social enterprise is a type of organization with the dual objectives of profitability and providing social value (Littlewood & Holt, 2018). Some social enterprises offer vocational educational training (VET) programs for the BOP communities in which they operate (Dolan & Rajak, 2018; Napathorn, 2018). Since the 1980s, social enterprises have emerged and expanded as one of the primary forces to reducing or eliminating societal problems (Lumpkin et al., 2018). Social enterprises operate in many different contexts juggling a myriad of stakeholder

expectations to address the world's toughest social problems, such as the lack of sustainable economic development.

This study addressed the problem of how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in offering VET for the Myanmar BOP communities' sustainable economic development, such as differences in wages and self-efficacy. The purpose of this quantitative quasi-experimental study was to compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP community between people who completed a social enterprise VET program and who did not complete the program. In specific, this study aimed to examine how social enterprises balance multiple stakeholder needs in terms of Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory as the theoretical foundation. Stakeholder theorists postulate that firms may prioritize the needs of stakeholders based on power and strength (Sarman et al., 2015). When taking a stakeholder theory perspective, social enterprise leaders have the extra challenge of balancing financial and social bottom lines and are accountable to donors and beneficiaries (Sulkowski et al., 2019). This study aimed to validate and extend stakeholder theory focusing on the differing effects of two outcome variables of social enterprise VET programs- (1) wage difference, an economic factor, and (2) self-efficacy difference, a social factor – between VET trainees and non-VET trainees. The goal was to quantify and compare the differences in wages and self-efficacy of VET trainees three months after the completion of a social enterprise VET program against a control group of Myanmar BOP without social enterprise VET.

The analysis of this quantitative quasi-experimental study found that statistical differences exist between wages and self-efficacy in the Myanmar BOP based on social enterprise VET program completion. The results of this MANOVA analysis suggest that there is a statistically significant difference in wages and self-efficacy between the experiment group,

VET trainees, and the control group, non-VET trainees. VET trainees did experience greater differences in wages and self-efficacy three months after VET completion than non-VET trainees. The limitations of the study were the small sample size, mono-operation bias, the potential for confounding variables, and a lack of generalizability.

Conducting this study was important for both practical and theoretical reasons. From a practical standpoint, not knowing the answer to how social enterprises contribute to sustainable economic development for the Myanmar BOP left a potentially valuable resource for reducing poverty untapped and unsupported. Wage and self-efficacy differences between these two groups of people led to determine that participation in the social enterprise VET program contributes to an increase in wages and self-efficacy, which lead to improved financial livelihoods for VET graduates. From a theoretical standpoint, there was a need to tie actions that improve sustainable development, which was missing in current theories. The findings of this study imply that social enterprises offering VET are at the epicenter of stakeholder theory, in a practical sense. VET trainees earned a greater increase in wages than non-VET trainees, an economic factor, which was also of interest to donors in terms of the long-term viability of the social enterprise. Additionally, VET trainees also experienced greater self-efficacy differences than non-VET trainees, a social factor. These results meet the needs of donors and beneficiaries while generating a profit for the US-based social enterprises so that it remains financially sustainable.

The results of this study contribute to the previous literature on practical aspects of social enterprise VET, the field of international business, the need for more quantitative research, and more research in fragile nations. Regarding the practical aspect of social enterprise VET, the results of this study confirm that the advantages of social enterprise VET include improved

access to the labor market, improved livelihoods because of the ability to earn money and other assets, self-confidence, and motivation. Even though the advantages of VET may take time to manifest, the implication of these findings for social enterprise leaders and donors is that regardless of short-term disappointment, often, the future opportunity is enough to keep some beneficiaries progressing in their personal and professional development. Next, this study contributes to the field of international business since Asia is the region of focus for the UN in addressing sustainable development. Social enterprise VET programs ameliorate the issue of the need for Myanmar companies to hire foreign workers who are better qualified and have more skills. Finally, by focusing on the fragile Southeast Asian nation of Myanmar, which has not yet reached a post-conflict status, this study extended the call in the existing literature for more quantitative research on social enterprises and more research on social enterprises operating in additional developing, fragile nations.

The take-home message of this entire study is: Social enterprises offering VET programs are an integral part of the solution to the problem of sustainable economic development because they fill the institutional void of vocational training and education in BOP communities while balancing the needs of multiple stakeholders. The results of this study support the pivotal role of social enterprise leaders in facilitating sustainable development. In addition to the findings in this study about wage and self-efficacy increases, two of the by-products of social enterprise VET were a career advancement path and that trainees were able to obtain national identity. The combination of the primary results and by-products of the results means that social enterprise VET breaks the cycle of that lack of sustainable development in BOP communities. The multiplication effects of personal sustainable economic development from one individual to

another are leading to families lifting themselves from the BOP and creates a new community culture of hope and a can-do attitude.

The results of social enterprise VET lead to four action items. First, stakeholders, including donors, investors, beneficiaries, and governments, should support social enterprise VET programs, especially capitalist-model VET, as part of the solution to sustainable economic development in BOP communities. Second, policymakers should continue to advocate for and support social enterprise leaders as pivotal players in achieving the 2030 Agenda because of their ability to tackle economic and social issues collaboratively and effect community-level change. Third, there is a need to generate awareness of and increase support for social enterprise VET programs to benefit the Myanmar BOP. The US-based social enterprise equips Myanmar BOP VET trainees with the skills that Myanmar companies need so they can hire Myanmar citizens and reduce the need for foreign labor. Fourth, there is also a need to include social enterprise in the stakeholder theory literature, mainly because of social enterprise leaders' abilities to shake stakeholders out of complacency cooperate in addressing societal issues to create sustainable solutions.

The findings of this quasi-experimental quantitative study opened the door to several possibilities for future research on social enterprise. The primary need is for more studies about social enterprises operating in fragile and post-conflict nations. The most important topic for the current and future generations of stakeholders is donor education on why social enterprises make money and the subsequent evolution of donors' perspectives. This good news of social enterprise VET is worth the time and effort of educating donors and observing their evolution to a new way of donors giving of their treasure, time, or talent.

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