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REVIEW

European Social Enterprises, Still an Epitome of Benevolent Enterprises? The Employees' Perspective

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a comparative study in terms of two ethical climate dimensions and affective organizational commitment. The employees of a confederation of social enterprises and a socially sustainable firm participated in the study. The multi-group exploratory factor approach was used to analyse the data. The findings of the study suggest that differences that exist in self-interest and social responsibility climates are not clear when comparing social enterprises and sustainable firms. Furthermore, the results showed that the size of the effect of these two types of ethical climates on affective organizational commitment varies from one type of organization to the other.

KEYWORDS

Social enterprises; for-profit socially oriented enterprises; self-interest climate; benevolent cosmopolitan climate; affective commitment; organizational ethics

Introduction

Scholars have already pointed out several difficulties in the development of a common definition of the social enterprise (Lyon and Sepulveda 2009; Peattie and Morley 2008). Since the term social enterprise (henceforth SE) encompasses different organizational types (Kay, Roy, and Donaldson 2016; Teasdale 2012; Thompson and Doherty 2006), the usefulness of general definitions of SE has been questioned. As shown by prior research, the existence of different types of SEs is the result of the historical, social, institutional and economic diversity of the context where they operate (Alter 2007; Defourny and Nyssens 2010a; Kerlin 2006, 2010, 2013; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development 2013). Several descriptions of SEs located in different regions have helped to map and conceptualize the practice in a more specific manner. While European SEs are characterized as having a social benefit as the privileged outcome (Defourny and Nyssens 2010b), US SEs are described as more market-oriented organizations (Kerlin 2006, 2010). European scholars define the SE as an institutional structure created to follow a social goal (Galera and Borzaga 2009; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development 2013). In line with this, national and regional institutions have built their definitions and regulate the operation of SEs (Galera and Borzaga 2009; Kerlin 2006). Furthermore, several criteria have been defined to differentiate SEs from other types of organizations: participatory processes; venture created by stakeholders; decision-making not based on ownership, high autonomy and economic risk, low paid work; continuous activity; limited profit distribution; and explicit social mission (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development 2013). Generally speaking, SEs differ from commercial ventures when their social mission is the central purpose of such organization (Chell 2007; Doherty, Haugh, and Lyon 2014). Hence, conversely to regular

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business, the SEs' mission shapes the market offer and the role of founders and managers (Doherty, Haugh, and Lyon 2014; Santos 2012). Now, businesses have been attentive to sustainability for several decades (Salzmann, Ionescu-sommers, and Steger 2005). As new organizational forms named hybrid organizations are balancing social and commercial goals (Haigh and Hoffman 2012), the divide between these types of organizations is somewhat blurring and may be causing confusion to different stakeholders. Employees perceptions can help to shed light on whether, and to what extent, despite hybridization processes, there is still a difference among SEs and socially oriented business in terms of the materialization of their mission.

This article presents a study aimed at establishing if, in the eyes of the employees, the commitment to a social goal is higher in European SEs when compared with businesses with a social sustainability strategy. To this end, the perceptions of employees from European SEs and a European firm, committed with a social sustainability strategy, were analysed. By comparing the SE sector with the for-profit sector in terms of the commitment to the social mission, this study also contributes to examining sustainability strategies across sectors (Salzmann, Ionescu-sommers, and Steger 2005) and to the knowledge regarding the differences between businesses and SEs (Peattie and Morley 2008). In doing so, the study contributes to the development of the SE definition. Concepts in social sciences require a clear differentiation to follow a satisfactory formation (Gerring 1999). This is the case of the SE concept. Concept differentiation refers to how different are the attributes with regard to those of similar concepts (e.g. sustainable firms), and to the possibilities of operationalization. Consequently, the authors chose a fundamental attribute of the SE definition – the commitment to a social goal – using the ethical climate (henceforth EC) construct and comparing it with the EC of a social sustainable firm. As explained below, EC refers to workers' perceptions about the ethical implications of organizational practices (Victor and Cullen 1988a). Previous research has shown that EC varies from one sector to the other (Agarwal and Malloy 1999; Agarwal, Malloy, and Rasmussen 2010; Brower and Shrader 2000). EC and its consequences in the SE sector remain unexplored. Therefore, the results of this study also contribute to EC research. The study adopted the perspective of workers, given the importance that these stakeholders have on the culture and operations of both SEs and businesses with a social sustainability strategy.

Several reasons led to consider the perceptions of employees to test the pervasiveness and exclusiveness of the missional conceptualization of European SEs. On one hand, human aspects are keys when contrasting SEs and for-profit organizations (Peattie and Morley 2008). On the other hand, more studies on human resources management research and practice development in the SE sector are needed (Austin and Reficco 2006; Peattie and Morley 2008; Royce 2007). Furthermore, attitudes towards sustainability strategies in business have mostly examined the managers' perspective (Salzmann, Ionescu-sommers, and Steger 2005).

Specifically, the goal of this research was twofold: first, using organizational ethics as theoretical framework, to establish whether there was a significant difference among social and socially sustainable enterprises in terms of their commitment to the social benefit. The authors expected to find that SEs are still the epitome of benevolent enterprises when compared with corporations with a social sustainability strategy. Second, the study aimed at evaluating whether the effects of organizational ethics on work-related attitudes were stronger in SEs than in socially sustainable enterprises. The assessment of the effect that commitment presented on the social mission, as perceived by employees on their attitudes, helps validate and compare the impact of socially oriented strategies towards both sectors. Italy was selected as a country of study since Italian SEs are pioneers in that sector (Defourny and Nyssens 2010). Accordingly, an Italian firm with a deeply rooted social mission was selected to conduct the comparison.

Ethical climate and affective commitment

EC is defined as a dominant perception of organizational practices with ethical implications (Victor Cullen 1988a). These perceptions are the result of personal experiences of the members of the organization (Lefkowitz 2003). The concept is based on Kohlberg's (1984) theory on moral reasoning,

and development and sociological theories of roles and reference groups (Victor and Cullen 1988a). Two fundamental assertions support the development of the concept: organizations have a socio-moral atmosphere that influences decision-making; and reference groups affect attitudes and behaviour (Victor and Cullen 1988a). Victor, Cullen and Bronson's (1993) EC operationalization has been broadly used (Martin and Cullen 2006). The authors proposed nine theoretical types of EC (Victor and Cullen 1988a). Among these types of EC, two opposite dimensions seemed suitable to assess the levels of the commitment of SEs with the organizational social goal. In addition, such dimensions were tested to determine whether those levels are higher when compared with those prevalent in firms with a social sustainability strategy. The types of EC selected for this study were: self-interest and social responsibility. According to Malloy and Argawal (2001) and Laratta (2009), people in the non-profit sector perceive organizations more supportive of social responsibility. This may also be the case on the SE sector and socially sustainable firms. The first type of EC considered for this study (i.e. self-interest), one of the three egoistic climates initially proposed by Victor and Cullen (1988a), refers to perceptions about organizations where people are egoistic and individualistic. In these organizations others are secondary and self-interest prevails (Cullen, Parboteeah, and Victor 2003). Moreover, in egoistic climates, employees perceive that the organization is acting against societal ethical expectations (Cullen, Parboteeah, and Victor 2003). Conversely, the social responsibility type of EC corresponds to employees' perceptions of the organization caring for constituencies outside the organization (Victor and Cullen 1988a). Unlike other types of ECs, social responsibility and its opposite self-Interest are straightforward measures of whether, according to the perception of the employees, the organization is committed to respond to social needs or, conversely, its members only care about themselves. Hence, these two EC dimensions provide the basis to assess whether SEs are more committed to their social mission – responding to social needs – than socially sustainable firms.

Although previous research results show that differences in EC exist between industrial sectors (Cullen, Victor, and Stephens 1989), for-profit companies and non-profits (Agarwal and Malloy 1999; Agarwal, Malloy, and Rasmussen 2010; Brower and Shrader 2000), and the latter and public organizations (Malloy and Agarwal 2008; Venezia, Venezia, and Hung 2010), no study has inquired, to our knowledge, whether significant differences exist between SEs and for-profit firms. Brower and Shrader (2000) found that for-profit enterprises had more egoistic climates than non-profits, whereas non-profit organizations were more benevolent than for-profit ones. Yet, since SEs differ from traditional non-profit organizations in aspects such as strategy, values and norms (Dart 2008), and are 'directly engaged in the production and/or sale of goods and services (rather than predominantly advisory or grant-giving functions)' (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development 2006). Furthermore, considering that social impact is gaining relevance at the strategic level of for-profits, the distinction between SEs and socially sustainable business in terms of EC may be less patent.

Since EC is a suitable concept to identify a gap between organizational rhetoric and reality (Agarwal and Malloy 1999), it cannot only help to assess whether European SEs are truly committed with their social goal, but also be useful to evaluate if these enterprises are certainly an epitome of benevolence in the market (when compared with socially sustainable firms from the same region). Even though there is a trend on the private sector towards an increase of social accountability (Rim and Kim 2016), considering the very nature of European SEs, it is plausible to believe that they are still an epitome of social benevolence within the European market.

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of benevolent cosmopolitan and self-interest climates between European SEs and their socially sustainable business counterparts.

Additionally, the EC construct and its effects on several outcomes have been widely studied. A meta-analysis published by Martin and Cullen (2006) demonstrated that EC directly and positively affects organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and exerts an indirect effect on psychological well-being and dysfunctional behaviour. More recently, Victor and Cullen (1988b) published a review which included articles that studied the outcomes of EC. The review included the outcome variables considered in the mentioned Martin and Cullen's (2006) meta-analysis, plus turnover, and

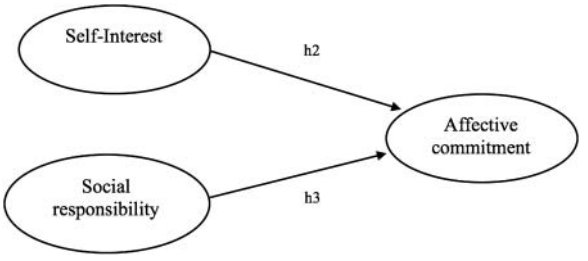

Figure 1. Theoretical model to be simultaneously tested in SEs and socially sustainable firms.

ethical behaviour. Regarding organizational commitment, Victor and Cullen (1988b) showed several studies that found that benevolent or caring climates have a positive influence on that variable. Interestingly, none of the studies referred by these authors as having organizational commitment as outcome were conducted in SEs (Victor and Cullen 1988b). Since employees working in European SEs are sensitive to the accomplishment of the social mission (Román, Battistelli, and Odoardi 2014), and socially sustainable businesses are mostly oriented to profit, the authors of this study posit that:

H2: The negative effect of the self-interest climate on affective commitment is stronger in European socially sustainable enterprises than in SEs from the same region.

H3: The positive effect of the benevolent cosmopolitan climate on affective commitment is stronger in European SEs than in their socially sustainable counterparts.

Noteworthy, virtually no research has simultaneously inquired EC and its effects on employee attitudes in the SE and for-profit sector. The theoretical model included in the last two hypotheses of the study and validated using samples of both sectors is represented in Figure 1.

Method

Participants and procedure

The model was tested on a convenience sample. Virtually, all samples surveyed in studies inquiring employee-behaviour related variables are of this nature (Landers and Behrend 2015). In addition, convenience samples are generally the norm when studying differences in subpopulations regarding human behaviour, due to the excessive costs that probability samples require (Jager, Putnick, and Bornstein 2017). A renamed Italian confederation was contacted before sending the invitation to all social cooperatives. The invitation sent to the cooperatives and their employees stated that the participation in the study was voluntary. In the case of the sustainable firm, which was contacted because of its well-known commitment with sustainability, the participation of the employees was also voluntary. Participants were employees of 19 confederated Italian SEs and an Italian firm with a social sustainability strategy. The social cooperative form of Italian SE's has been replicated in other European countries such as Belgium, Portugal, Greece and France (Galera and Borzaga 2009; Spear and Bidet 2005). According to the International Organization of Industrial and Service Cooperatives, despite national and contextual differences, all social cooperatives share several general standards (CICOPA 2004). Among these shared standards is the explicit general interest mission. Precisely, the scope of this study was the degree of commitment of SE to the social benefit. In Italy, social cooperatives are the most common legal form of SEs (European Commission 2014). Some of the Italian social cooperatives are in the service sector (Type A), whereas other subgroup is dedicated to work in integration activities (Type B). The participating social cooperatives belonged to these two subgroups (*Ns* Type A = 248; Type B = 138) and were affiliated to a confederation of social cooperatives. The confederation of social cooperatives (SEs confederation) has a unified social mission accepted by all social cooperative members. In fact, in the instructions on how to create a social cooperative the SEs

confederation emphasizes the need of responding to social needs. Since the authors examined to what extent the social cooperatives were committed to the social benefit, and the confederation's social mission is shared for all the participant cooperatives, they were treated as a cluster. Furthermore, the size of the surveyed cooperative was relatively small. Organizations operating in the European social economy are mostly micro, small and medium size entities (European Commission 2018). Considering each cooperative separately would have prevented the researcher from demonstrating construct validity and in consequence from presenting sound results.

The Italian socially sustainable business is a multinational company with operations in three different countries. Sustainability is one of the pillars of the company's strategy. Human resources management practices are conditioned by community growth and employee well-being principles. The survey was conducted at the Italian headquarters.

All participants voluntarily responded the survey. Overall, 859 usable questionnaires were retrieved; 421 in the SEs confederation, and 438 in the business enterprise. Mean age was 39 years (SD = 10.43) in the SE and the age of 77% of the participants from the socially sustainable firm ranged from 25 to 45 years. Most of the participants in the firm were men (95%), whereas the majority of participants in the SEs were women (72%).

Measures

Two sub-scales of the climate questionnaire were used for the study (Victor and Cullen 1988a). As mentioned before, the questionnaire has been used in different sectors, including in non-profit organizations (Agarwal and Malloy 1999; Deshpande 1996). The social responsibility and self-interest sub-scales of the questionnaire were chosen for the study since, although opposite, they seemed suitable to measure the commitment to the social mission in both contexts. Benevolent cosmopolitan climates (i.e. the social responsibility dimension) refer to perceptions of the company as concerned by well-being outside of the organization (Victor and Cullen 1988a). Conversely, in egoistic climates such as the self-interest type, employees perceive that the organization is not complying with societal expectations (Cullen, Parboteeah, and Victor 2003). The respondents rated their degree of agreement with the eight items (4 each sub-scale) using a 7-point Likert scale. Affective commitment (AC) was measured using the six items sub-scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1984). The AC subscale has been previously used in studies including Italian samples (Glazer, Carole, and Short 2004). Participants selected their responses using a 5-point Likert scale.

Analysis

The multi-group exploratory analysis (MG-EFA) (Asparouhov and Muthén 2009) approach was utilized to analyse the invariance of the EC measure among the SEs and the socially sustainable firm, and to simultaneously assess the effect of EC constructs on AOC in both organizations. Furthermore, by using the MG-EFA approach comparisons at the group level can be conducted from individual-level observations. Mplus (v 6.12) was chosen to conduct the MG-EFAs. This exploratory approach (MG-EFA) was selected over the confirmatory method since, to the authors' knowledge, the EC instrument has not been validated for the Italian population. The MG-EFA approach allows to test for configural invariance and for two levels of measurement invariance. By constraining the factor structure of the measure (i.e. EC scales) to be equal across sample the authors tested for configural invariance model (CIM). Furthermore, the researchers constrained both the factor structure and the unstandardized factor loadings to be equal across sample to test for the simplest level of measurement invariance (MIM simple; Asparouhov and Muthén 2009; Dolan et al. 2009; Kline 2011). If the results of this test are satisfactory, the researchers can conclude that the constructs being measured manifest throughout the samples. In addition, a comparison between the scores of the items of the measures can be conducted (Kline 2011; Milfont and Fischer 2010). Next, the authors tested a strong measurement invariance model (MIM strong). In addition to the constraints imposed in the other two MG-EFAs, the

MIM strong implies the equality of the items' intercepts, factors' means and other coefficients across samples. In this study, the authors compared the MG-EFA models following the model-trimming approach used by Dolan et al. (2009), and Asparouhov and Muthén (2009). Thus, the CIM (MEFA with less df and more free parameters) was compared with the MIM simple. Subsequently, the latter with a MIM strong (model with more df and less free parameters) with items intercepts constrained to be equal the two organizations. The comparison between the competing models was computed using the Satorra Bentler (χ^{2diff}) test.

To manage the non-normality of the scores, the MLR estimation method with CF-Varimax (orthogonal) rotation was employed in all the MG-EFAs. Satorra and Bentler (1999) suggest calculating the χ^{2diff} from χ^2 tests of models estimated using the MLR estimator:

$$T = (T0 * c0 - T1 * c1)/cd$$

where c0 = scaling correction factor for the null model; c1 = scaling correction factor for the alternative model; d0 = degrees of freedom (df) for the null model; d1 = df for the alternative model; T0 = the Satorra–Bentler scaled chi-squared value for the null model; T1 = the Satorra–Bentler scaled chi-squared value for the alternative model; cd = (d0 * c0 − d1 * c1)/ (d0 − d1).

The following coefficients were considered to evaluate the goodness of fit of the three MG-EFAs: comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and root mean square error of approximation index (RMSEA). Cut-off values for these coefficients are: close to .95 for both the CFI and the TLI, and around .06 for the "RMSEA index (Hu and Bentler 1999)".

Results

Goodness of fit indexes for the CIM and MIM simple models resulted satisfactory (see Table 1). Conversely, according to the same coefficients, the MIM strong showed poor fit. However, the comparison between the three MG-EFAs was computed. When comparing the CIM with the MIM simple, the χ^{2diff} test suggested that there was no statistical difference in terms of overall fit between both models. According to the model trimming approach, it is possible, therefore, to select the model with more df and more free parameters (Kline 2011); namely, the MIM simple. On the other hand, the χ^{2diff} resulted non-significant when comparing the MIM simple and the MIM strong. This result indicates that when specifying the MIM strong, that is, when constraining some of the free parameters of the MIM simple, the model became oversimplified.

Thus, the MIM simple was favoured over the MIM strong. According to this model, the two dimensions of the EC explain 20% of the variance of AC in the SEs confederation, and 22% in the socially sustainable business. Put differently, self-interest and social responsibility explained a similar portion of the variance of AC in both organizations. Noteworthy, the self-interest dimension exerted a negative effect on AC in both organizations (see Figure 2). Conversely, the social responsibility dimension had a positive effect on AC. Although the sense of both effects resulted the same in the two groups, the effect of self-interest on AC was higher in the so

Table 1. MG-EFAs goodness of fit indexes and χ^{2diff} tests.

Model	χ^2	df	c[a]	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
CIM	361.48	124	1.18	.07	.94	.92
MIM simple	382.45	134	1.19	.07	.94	.93
MIM strong	581.36	141	1.18	.09	.89	.87
		χ^{2diff}	df			
CIM vs. MIM simple		21.53	10	$p > .01$		
MIM simple vs. MIM strong		229.60	17	$p < .01$		

Note: SEs confederation = 421; business-enterprise n = 438.
[a] MLR scaling correction factor.

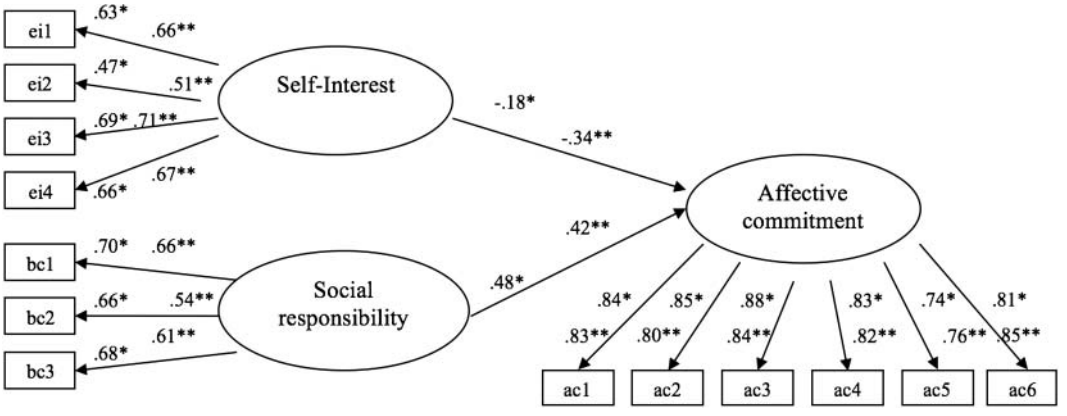

Figure 2. MIM simple.
Note: All standardized coefficients significant at the $p < .01$ level. *SEs confederation, $n = 421$; ** business-enterprise, $n = 438$. For the sake of parsimony, factor loadings under .40 are not represented in the exploratory portion of the model. Non-standardized coefficients were constrained to be equal across samples.

cially sustainable firm. In contrast, the effect of social responsibility resulted higher in the SEs confederation.

Given that the MIM simple was the selected model, comparisons between groups were conducted at the item level. *T*-tests using the Boferroni correction (alpha = .007) were used to this end. The results of these tests show (see Table 2) that significant differences exist in terms of perceptions composing egoistic and benevolent climates. Specifically, the results show that regarding egoistic climates, in all cases, the item mean scores were higher in the socially sustainable firm. The difference in mean scores of two out of three items of the benevolent climate dimension resulted significant, while no significant difference was found in mean scores as measured by item bc1.

Finally, we controlled for several variables. Given that the participants of the socially sustainable firm were mostly men and the respondents of the SEs were mainly women, we controlled for gender. Including gender in the MIM simple did not annul the effects of the EC dimension on AC. In addition, *post hoc* analyses showed that there were not statistically significant differences in mean scores of the EC items among Types A and B of social cooperative. Regarding the difference on AC between Types A ($M = 3.40$, SD = .94) and B ($M = 3.78$, SD = .99) of social cooperatives, the authors encountered a statistically significant difference $t(413) = -3.82$, $p = 000$. However, the size of that difference

Table 2. *T*-tests results.

	SE		Socially sustainable firm		
Item	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	*t*-test
ei1. In this cooperative, people are mostly out for themselves	2.42	1.38	3.22	1.15	$t(855) = -9.13$, $p = .0000$
ei2. There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this cooperative	1.57	1.45	2.53	1.14	$t(850) = -10.74$, $p = .0000$
ei3. In this cooperative, people protect their own interest above other considerations	2.05	1.47	2.83	1.25	$t(851) = -8.40$, $p = .0000$
ei4. People in this cooperative are very concerned about what is best for themselves	2.54	1.35	3.39	1.11	$t(851) = -10.01$, $p = .0000$
bc1. It is expected that you will always do what is right for the customer and public	4.18	.93	4.33	.78	$t(811.35) = -2.51$, p = .0123
bc2. People in this cooperative are actively concerned about the customer's, and the public's interest	3.64	1.07	3.32	.97	$t(830.38) = 4.67$, $p = .0000$
bc3. The effects of decisions on the customer and the public are a primary concern in this cooperative	3.61	1.09	4.09	.89	$t(844) = -6.96$, $p = .0000$

was small (Cohen's $_d$ = .39), leading to the conclusion that there is not a medium nor a large difference in terms of AC between the SEs subsamples.

Discussion

This paper presents a study on the differences between European social and socially sustainable firms, in terms of two EC dimensions and their effects on AC. Hence, it contributes to the knowledge regarding the differences between SEs and for-profit enterprises (Peattie and Morley 2008) and to the assessment of sustainability strategies across sectors (Salzmann, Ionescu-sommers, and Steger 2005).

Comparisons of mean scores corresponding to the self-Interest items suggest that the socially sustainable firm has a more egoistic climate when compared with the confederated SEs. These differences help to explain the higher effect of self-interest on AC in the firm, and support previous research indicating the existence of more egoistic climates in the business sector (Brower and Shrader 2000).

Contradictory evidence was found when comparing the levels of social responsibility climates across the SE and the socially sustainable firm. No significant difference in the mean scores of item bc1, and contradictory evidence in items bc2 and bc3; confederated SEs more socially responsible according to differences calculated using bc2 scores, and the socially sustainable firm surpassing the SEs confederation in terms of social responsibility according to differences in bc3 scores. These contradictory results may be due to the fact that the researchers were asking for two different steps of the organizational ethical decision-making process; namely: establishment of moral intent and engagement in moral behaviour (Craft 2013). Looking closely, item bc2 asked the respondents for the moral dimension of day to day activities, while when tapping their responses to item bc3 the participants responded if morality affects decision-making processes in the organizations. Thus, when compared with each other, one of the organizations was assessed better by its employees in their manifestation of its moral intent than when engaging in moral behaviour, and vice versa.

As opposed to previous research results indicating that firms are less benevolent that organizations from other sectors (Brower and Shrader 2000), these findings suggest that nowadays differences among European SEs and socially sustainable firms as perceived by employees are not a clear-cut. A plausible explanation for the small differences in EC between SEs and the socially sustainable firm found in this study relies on the fact that recruitment processes are affected by the economic crisis. In response to recession and difficulties to access employment, unemployed workers may take temporary positions (Bewley 1995). Hence, it is likely that by being in this situation, people hired by SEs during or after 2008 recession lack of a real interest in the social cause of the organization. As a consequence, their knowledge of the social mission of the organization would be limited. In turn, this could bias their assessment of the extent to which SEs are committed to their social cause.

Future studies should include actual social impact measures to assess whether differences in employees' perceptions about the social responsibility among SEs and socially sustainable firms reflect the real impact of both types of organizations on the social context. As a matter of fact, several measures have been recently proposed to assess the social impact of different types of SEs (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development 2016). Yet, regardless of the absence of objective measures, the findings of the present study are useful since talent attraction and motivation in the SE sector depends on psychological and emotional dimensions (Austin, Stevenson, and Wei-Skillern 2006). Another limitation of the present study relates to one of the clusters used for the comparative analyses. Although the participating cooperatives are affiliated to a confederation that emphasizes the need of having a social mission as a condition to create a cooperative, the authors did not include in the survey items directed to establish if all the organizations had a similar social mission. This omission needs to be corrected in studies surveying confederated social cooperatives and analysing them as a single group. Finally, although the use of convenience samples is not necessarily indicative on non-external validity (Landers and Behrend 2015), further studies should use probabilistic sampling techniques.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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